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JOSEPH H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER, 130 NASSAU STREET, N. Y.

The Week.

IN an early number of THE NATION we expressed an opinion that the powers of mischief of the Southern malcontents were to be feared in the local legislatures as well as in Congress; that the great question really was, how to keep them out of the former—which called down upon us a good deal of indignation, particularly amongst our Baltimore friends, who were at that time greatly agitated by the alleged probability that the Clerk of the House would admit the whole Southern delegation to their seats before organization. Well, the Clerk of the House has done nothing of the kind. There does not seem to have been at any time the slightest ground for supposing that he would do anything of the kind. There is in Congress, as we then predicted there would be, a "powerful Northern majority," who will not consent to the re-admission of the South until it has given ample security for its good behavior. But what great difference does this make as regards the condition of Southern society? What the South wanted most of all to get back into Congress for, was its deliverance from military rule. That it is now securing without getting back into Congress. President Johnson is handing over the States one by one to the State authorities, and delivering to them the management of their own affairs. This to them is the essential thing. It gives them the control of the negro—within certain limits, it is true, but wide limits. It enables them by stay laws to bid defiance to their Northern creditors; by vagrant laws and labor laws, such as all the States are passing, to "keep the negro down" and "make him feel his inferiority;" and to build up on, in short, the ruins of the old social system a new one, very much better, no doubt, but still marked by features repugnant to the spirit of our institutions, and likely to prove a fertile source of trouble in the future. And what can Congress do to prevent all this? The exclusion of the Southern delegates does not interfere with it in the least. As far as we can judge, the delegates are willing to stay at home as long as the House pleases, provided the President refrains from interference; and the President has given, and is giving, the strongest proofs that his interference is nearly at an end. So that, important as the power of keeping them out of the House and Senate undoubtedly is, it is by no means all-important. The successful exercise of it does not, as we now see, enable us by any means to reach the core of the Southern difficulty. The mere adoption of the Constitutional Amendment does not do it, nor will the Freedmen's Bureau do it, unless it is supported by more force—brute force—than it has now at its disposal. It remains to be seen what can be done by enforcing the Amendment.

CARL SCHURZ is not responsible for the President's cheerful view of the condition of the South, nor did he advise relinquishing the national control of the States lately in rebellion. His report declared that the loyalty of the masses and most of the leaders at the South means merely submission to necessity; and that the freedman, in ceasing to be the slave of an individual, was regarded as still the slave of society. Mr. Schurz urged the President to recommend to Congress to send one or more investigating committees into the Southern States. Neither his testimony nor his advice being heeded, it is not impertinent to ask what are Mr. Johnson's grounds for rejecting them, and more of the same tenor, which he has published, as if in entire justification of his sudden course?

A PETITION from the women of the United States to Congress, asking for an amendment to the Constitution, "prohibiting the several States from disfranchising any of their citizens on the ground of sex," is in circulation, and has been forwarded to us for publication. We are unable to publish it, but we wish the movement all possible success. We think the women of the United States ought to have the franchise if they desire it, and we think they ought to desire it. But until they do desire it, and show that they do by a general and emphatic expression of opinion, we are opposed to their being saddled with it on grounds of mere theoretical fitness or justice. In any real democracy women ought to vote, but the position of disfranchised women differs in many important particulars from that of disfranchised men. The social emancipation of women must, in our opinion, precede their political emancipation. As long as they are socially dependent, as at present, on men, and do not generally desire or seek independence, the assertion of their political rights will be difficult or impossible. We should, for our part, witness without emotion the disfranchisement of all *men* who looked steadily and persistently to married life as a career or means of livelihood.

THERE are some Kentuckians who are silly enough to assert that slavery is one of the "reserved rights" of the States, and cannot be taken away by any constitutional amendment. We are glad to observe, on the other hand, how sensibly and humanely the Louisville *Journal* accepts the new order of things, and demands fair play for the emancipated. A similar spirit has been manifested by the Richmond *Republic*, and, except these two journals, by no others, not avowedly radical, that come to us from the South.

THE Massachusetts Fish Commissioners, after careful enquiry, have reported that by means of fishways to aid their ascent of the Merrimac and Connecticut, the salmon and shad that used to abound in those rivers may be enticed back again. But they must be bred at the headwaters in New Hampshire; the streams must be kept as clean as possible of chemical and other pollution; and there must be stringent laws concerning the time and manner of fishing. After all, manufactures must suffer to some extent, and it is a question if the moderate supply of fish anticipated is worth the outlay and damage. The report is a valuable one for reference.

IT was stated last week, in a paper read before the American Social Science Association in Boston, that a committee from the New York Prison Association had visited all the prisons in the United States, and would lay the result of their investigations before the Legislature of this State.

"Admiral" Semmes has been arrested, and is, it appears, to be tried before a court-martial for "violating the usages of war," in making his escape in the English yacht after having hoisted a white flag on board the *Alabama* and surrendered. In the specification he is spoken of as having been at the time of his escape "a prisoner of war;" but we believe it is by no means well settled that a prisoner of war may not escape if he gets a chance between the time of formal surrender and his actual transfer to the captor's custody. Thousands of such escapes occur after every surrender. Moreover, supposing it to be settled that such an escape is illegal, it would still remain very doubtful whether offenses, not in themselves immoral, committed by a man as such prisoner, would render him liable to trial by the enemy's court-martial after the war was all over. There are other incidents in Semmes's career, such as his decoying ships by burning others at night, which seem to us to furnish far stronger grounds for trying him than the charge now brought against him; and it ought not to be forgotten, in considering his protest against arresting or trying him for facts occurring anterior to Johnston's surrender, that we have allowed Pillow to escape the consequences of his crime at Fort Pillow under cover of a similar capitulation.

Mississippi and Virginia have passed stay laws, and it is not improbable that other Southern States will follow their example. There is nothing very singular in this. Where debtors are in the majority creditors must expect to wait. What is singular is that the States which are most addicted to stay laws are the very ones which are most in the habit of groaning over their want of capital, and wondering why "the solid men" of New York and Boston do not invest amongst them more freely.

The planters along the Mississippi propose that the Government should rebuild the levees which they themselves cut, with the amiable intention of "drowning out the Yankees," during the war, and at the time seemed to think the performance a very fine one. That the Government should render reasonable assistance towards restoring the South in the interest of the whole country is, we think, fair enough; but then a decent regard for justice requires that they who did the mischief should pay by far the larger portion of the damage.

We find we fell into a slight error in ascribing to Mr. Jay Cooke's pastor the "anti-climax" of which we spoke in No. 24 of The Nation. It was Mr. Cooke's former pastor who perpetrated it. It ought not to be necessary for us to say that the criticism of extravagant and absurd language used by public men on public occasions is one of the proper and most important functions of a newspaper; and our comment on the address, therefore, was not, and ought not, to be taken as an indication of unkind feeling to either its author or Mr. Cooke. To present Mr. Cooke as one of the "great men" produced by the revolution was, in our opinion, calculated to do mischief, as helping to create and uphold a standard of greatness essentially false and misleading.

We accuse the Cincinnati *Gazette* of the injustice which we attributed to it, though we feel under no obligation to search in its news columns for the credit which it failed to assign in the usual place. We must also question the exactness of the term "condensed," when applied to an article which was simply docked with one clip of the shears. "Curtailed" would have been free from ambiguity.

Leopold I., King of the Belgians, is dead. He was born at Coburg in 1790, and was the son of the Duke of Saxe-Coburg Saalfeld. His first wife was Charlotte, daughter of George IV. of England, who died without issue. Leopold was called to the Belgian throne in 1831, and the following year married the daughter of Louis Philippe, by whom he had three children. The eldest of these, Leopold-Louis-Philippe-Maria-Victor, Duke of Brabant, succeeds his father. The late King was a man of great sagacity, who made the interests of his people a profound study, and maintained them at home and abroad against revolution and against the cupidity of the larger powers, to which Belgium, fat, prosperous, and helpless, has always been a temptation. There is still danger of her position between Prussia, France, and Holland, danger which can only be averted by address and prudence on the part of her ruler. The young King is said to be much under the influence of the Jesuits.

Few kings are wiser in the art of keeping out of trouble than the late King of the Belgians, and his skill was so much admired that he was frequently made the umpire to decide upon questions of right and wrong in other people's troubles. But he refused every such office that involved even remote embarrassment to himself. When Mr. Secretary William Cornell Jewett went to Europe on his independent peace mission, he flatteringly offered to Leopold to make him umpire between the United States Government and the Rebellion. "And what would the King say?" enquired the person to whom Mr. Cornell related the fact. "He said," answered the independent peace missionary, with charming candor, "that he would n't put his fingers between the bark and the tree."

The Belgians are now looking somewhat uneasily to the East to see what attitude the Emperor will take in regard to Belgium. This will be friendlier than most people believe if, as the correspondence of the *Independance Belge* says, it be true that Napoleon proposed to recognize the Duke of Brabant the day after his father's death. The duke, however, while expressing his gratitude for the mark of sympathy, begged the Emperor to delay the recognition until he had sworn fidelity to the Belgian constitution and had been proclaimed king according to the fundamental law, which was wise and just in the duke, and produced a good impression at the Tuileries.

The Austrian ministry is beginning to experience the difficulties of settling the constitutional question originated by the Emperor's patent of September 20. There are seventeen provincial diets in the empire, and thirteen of these are now deliberating upon the question. Upper Austria, Lower Austria, Styria, Silesia, and Carinthia favor the maintenance of the constitution of 1861, suspended by the imperial patent; Moravia remains neutral; Galicia and Istria felicitate the Emperor on his course; Bohemia, Carniola, Salzburg, Vorarlberg, and Bukowina have not yet declared themselves decidedly; Tyrol, Dalmatia, Görz, and Trieste have not even taken the question under consideration yet. In Upper Austria the authorities warned the Diet that blame of the Emperor's patent suspending the constitution would be unconstitutional. The Diet blamed it, and now the ministry propose the simple and natural expedient of dissolving the Diet.

The speech of the Austrian Emperor at the opening of the Hungarian Diet recognized the necessity of self-government in Hungary, but recommended that the laws of 1848 should be revised so as to make them compatible with the unity of the empire and the rights of the sovereign.

It is probable that the Queen of Spain will deliver the usual speech this year at the opening of the Cortes. Her majesty is said to have an invincible repugnance to alluding to the recognition of Italy by Spain, which was very distasteful to her personally.

A minute trouble has arisen about the representation of Schleswig-Holstein in the Paris Exposition for 1867. The poor little duchy wished to be represented in her own name. Prussia refused; and it is finally settled that Schleswig shall exhibit in the Prussian department and Holstein in the Austrian.

It seems possible that the dispute between Spain and Chili, which has so long threatened to end in slaughter, may end yet in salutation. The English and French Governments have amicably intervened, and it is proposed that Spain shall give back to Chili the ships captured, and that Chili shall demand no indemnity. In the first instance, the Spanish admiral arrogantly declared that he would not treat at all with the Chileno authorities unless they fired a salute to the Spanish flag; but it is now suggested that negotiations may begin without loss of Spanish dignity after the firing of an alternate salute; that is, the first

gun from the Chilenos, the second from the Spaniards, and so on by turns. This is a very simple and satisfactory way out of the affair; but it is not yet certain that Spain will agree to take it.

It is said that the Roman and Italian Governments have agreed together upon measures for the "pitiless" repression of brigandage on the frontier. In the meantime, a brilliant feat of brigandage has startled the people, not of the frontier, but of Rome itself. There a young man, abounding in broad silver *scudi*, paid successful court to a beautiful girl, and on the day appointed for their marriage begged to take her for a drive outside the walls. This was reasonable. About two miles from the city the pair alight for refreshment at an inn, and find there a party of the lover's friends, who, when they rise to return, mount into the carriage with them. The horses take the road away from Rome—the poor girl is in the hands of brigands, and her lover is their chief.

The editor of *Il Panaro*, a Modenese journal, has lately been shown a machine for the composition of types by which he was enabled to set up five lines of poetry in nine seconds, each line containing thirty letters. The editor is convinced that by the aid of this machine speeches may be reported *verbatim* in type.

The reform of the Swedish Constitution, alluded to in The Nation of last week, has been approved by the Diet, and there is consequently great rejoicing in Sweden. The reform involves abolition of the right of the clergy to seats *ex officio* in the Diet, and reduces this body from four branches to two.

Great joy is said to prevail among the inmates of Clichy, which, as Mr. Yellowplush says, is French for Fleet, or Queen's Bench. The prisoners have been informed that a law abolishing imprisonment for debt will be proposed in the French Senate during the session of 1866.

The Italian Minister of Finance proposes to reduce, by augmentation of taxes, the deficit in the budget from 265 to 100 million *lire* or francs.

The publisher of Renan's "Life of Jesus" is about to publish (by way of antidote?) the second volume of Guizot's "Meditations upon the present state of the Christian Religion."

The *Unità Italiana*, which was the organ of the Mazzini party in Italy, has died for want of subscriptions—a fair sign of failing strength in the party of action, and of growing content with the government measures.

It appears that the Papal troops, which replaced the French on the frontiers, have already entered upon their life-long service of fighting the brigands. A good feeling exists between them and the Italians, but it is probable that the robbers will, as heretofore, outwit all the military combinations against them.

CONGRESS.

Washington, Dec. 29, 1865.

The Christmas holidays find about half the members of the Senate and two-thirds of the Representatives absent from the capital. Enough remain to forward the more important financial measures in the Committees on Ways and Means and Appropriations. It begins to be very apparent that no general revision will be given to our present very complicated and onerous tariff at the present session, and that but little if any reduction will be made in the rates of duty. The House Committee of Ways and Means is presided over by Justin S. Morrill, of Vermont, whose name has been for years linked with the highest of high tariffs, and a majority of the committee are decided protectionists. In one aspect, at least, it is unfortunate that the body which originates all measures for raising revenue is unlikely to disturb the existing tariff to any considerable degree. I refer especially to the enormous extent of articles taxed, which reaches between two and three thousand, thus greatly enhancing the trouble and cost of collecting the revenue. Great Britain raises a revenue of about £23,000,000, or one hundred and fifteen millions of dollars, annually, by a customs tariff on 44 articles only. The United States collected but $85,000,000 last year on our extravagantly large list of articles taxed. Would it not be wiser to look to a less number of articles, and those chiefly luxuries, for a revenue, letting articles which are necessaries come in free, or at low rates of duty, which, as the experience of nations shows, produces the largest revenue?

The President's anxiety to hurry the political restoration of the late rebel States is shared by an extremely small number of the party now dominant in Congress. The moderate Republicans are mostly as unwilling as the Radicals to admit the South now to their old seats of power, though for somewhat different reasons. While the advanced party are disposed to demand equal and universal suffrage as a condition precedent, there is a growing determination among Northern men of more moderate views to insist upon a constitutional amendment reducing the South to her just quota of representatives in Congress, as based upon voting population, before recognizing her claim to participate in the federal Government. It is felt that this is a condition to which even those to whom negro suffrage is distasteful cannot possibly object. On the re-assembling of Congress the bills heretofore introduced embodying this amendment are to be pressed with vigor, and, as there is not a shadow of doubt as to the result, this will afford a safe rallying-point on which to contest the immediate admission of the Southern members. It is believed that this plan will not encounter the opposition of the Executive, and it is certain that it would be an entirely safe issue for this Congress to go to the people upon. It would postpone action upon the exciting question of reconstruction until another fall, when a new election for Congressmen is to take place, and the joint committee upon the condition of the late rebel States will have made their report. Perhaps a sufficient number of State Legislatures will adopt such an amendment during the winter to make it a part of the Constitution; but this is now doubtful, depending greatly upon the time of its passage through Congress. It would afford, too, a partial test of the sincerity of the South in its professions of loyalty to the Union. Speculation apart, it is certain that the majority in Congress is too firm to be shaken from its purpose by anything short of an unmistakable popular verdict pronounced against its course. It will resist alike the importunities of the compromising, the thunders of the opposition press, and the blandishments of Executive power.

THE FREEDMEN.

The dreaded holidays have passed with even more than the usual order at the South, in spite of the forebodings of a negro insurrection which found expression in almost every quarter. Candid and honorable men there are renewing their acknowledgment of the good conduct of the colored population, at this time as during hostilities. But, to be fair, some credit must be given to the whites also, for not allowing their suspicions and apprehensions to overthrow their self-control, and make themselves the authors of the catastrophe. Alexandria alone was an exception to the general quiet; and it seems to be well ascertained that the riot there on Christmas, involving the loss of several lives, was a concerted attack of whites on blacks, incited partly by the old pro-slavery and rebellious malice and partly by an abundance of bad liquor.

—The Virginia notion of a happy New Year for freedmen was embodied last month in a pretty general intention, so the Bureau was informed, to turn the infirm and helpless out of doors on the 1st of January. Col. Brown, on the 21st, gave warning that "the late owners will be required to provide for their former slaves, who are helpless and dependent on them for subsistence, until the overseers of the poor of the counties to which they belong shall have made arrangements for their care and support." Gen. Howard approved this order on the 26th, and added that any citizen making the attempt should be reported by name, in order that his case may be immediately laid before the President. This the *Times*, of this city, stigmatizes as a "sumptuary edict," although complaining that it will *increase* the expenditures of the "first families." It wonders that the Government did not wait till the expul

sion actually took place, and protect the negro from actual, rather than presumptive and prospective, wrong. This is quite in accordance with the views of that paper concerning reconstruction, but the proverb which prizes prevention above cure is more akin to wisdom.

Minor Topics.

A LADY FRIEND of THE NATION, who writes this journal her felicitations for the New Year, and makes us a number of compliments on our manifest superiority to contemporaries (we suppress the compliments), complains of a feeling of disgust and dissatisfaction with the manner in which, obediently to a cruel law of custom, her first day of 1866 was passed. Her letter is dated the 2d, and breathes, from the rarified atmosphere of Madison Avenue, sentiments of the most just and laudable despair for the degradation of the beautiful old Manhattan usage of New Year's visits into an absurd riot of calls, with all the wild excess of the carnival and none of its picturesqueness. She writes, in fact, fatigued to death with the social drudgery of the previous day, but resolved, in spite of her fatigue, not to let the folly pass without her vehement protest. She is so weary of it, she confesses, that she would be willing to have New Year's Day hereafter come only once in a century.

If all our lovely readers dealt as frankly with themselves as our correspondent, would there not be a general admission that New Year's calling has become an abuse and a bore, pleasing and profiting nobody? Once, it must be allowed, the custom meant something, and without doubt it first grew out of a good and amiable instinct. We suppose it to have been prompted originally by the feeling which draws friends naturally together in the presence of an event so grave for the old, so joyful for the young, as the advent of a new year. At such a time humanity is glad of sympathy, and we can imagine that in the old days our fathers (or, more properly speaking, our adopted stepfathers, since in New York nobody can be said to have actually descended from anybody) paid New Year's visits in a spirit of real friendship, and intended the expression of a hearty and kindly sentiment by them. Then the old gentlemen probably called upon ancient dames and exchanged cheerful convictions of the superiority of the New Year's Days of their youth over the upstart New Year's Days of later date, which were making the world old before its time with their profligacy of recurrence; and then stout young Dutch gallants visited the plump Dutch maidens and talked over the gaieties of the past year and the promise of the present, and impressions were made on tender hearts, and old quarrels were ended, and possibly a troth or two was plighted. But everything was decent and sincere, and if, according to the simple customs of the Arcadian people who settled the Bowery, a stray kiss was dropped behind the door, no harm was done where none was meant, and the New Year's was all the happier for the little sin. As the visitors went from house to house they ate mightily, no doubt, of stout luncheons and drank glasses of honest gin, and, before night, here and there one might have grown thick in his speech without ceasing to be seemly in his tipsiness. But can anybody suppose that the young New Yorkers of that day made their calls as they do in this? Imagine Peter Stuyvesant, and Wouter Van Twiller, and William the Testy whirling together through the streets in a buggy, which is stayed before Mrs. Van der Trollop's door long enough for those young men to rush in and say, "How de do, Mrs. Van der Trollop? Happy New Year! Ah! can't stop, thank you. Ever so many calls to make. Good-bye!" and so rush out again.

Or is it to be believed that Mrs. Van der Trollop aspired to number her New Year's callers by the hundreds, and cared nothing for their quality, hardly that they should be acquaintance, and not at all that they should be friends? This is now the ambition of the ladies, as it is similarly the ambition of the gentlemen to make as many calls as possible, no matter upon whom. The latter, therefore, call in threes and fours at houses where only one is faintly known, and so swell the list of the lady's visitors and add her name to their visited. In this way it is quite possible for a party of utter strangers to receive the New Year's hospitalities of any house they choose. They need only be bold and resolute, and go rather late in the day; a good address would be a matter of indifference or even of suspicion, for by three o'clock all addresses are alike bad. Our correspondent has reason to think that she entertained a party of such pilgrims, who entered her drawing-room with easy nonchalance to wish her the compliments of the season. The spokesman of the party gracefully recalled himself to her protesting memory: "Mr. Smith, madam. I wish you a happy New Year." "Oh, thank you, Mr. Smith! A happy New Year! I did n't recognize you at first"—nor at last, the amiable hypocrite! "Not surprising," consents Mr. Smith, sweetly; "so many callers. *I* do n't remember half the ladies I call upon. Allow me to introduce my friends, Mr. Tom, Mr. Dick, Mr. Harry." "Mr. Tom, Mr. Dick, Mr. Harry," repeats the lady, "let me offer you some refreshments." The gentlemen, already too much refreshed, further restore themselves, declare that they cannot stop, and fly from the house. The lady remains to receive Brown, Jones, and Robinson, hardly better known to her, and does not begin to suspect before she sits down next day to express her discontent with New Year's calls to THE NATION that she has perhaps been the subject of a social experiment. Who knows? The experiment may not have been premeditated. At three o'clock on New Year's Day one brown-stone house looks much like another; and our correspondent's unknown friends may have found themselves in an unfamiliar presence without intending it, when they would have at once discerned that nothing but a daring course could save them.

In the meantime Bridget was receiving her friends with as lavish a hospitality in the basement, where a table was set, and where all day long the endless number of her cousins was seen to come and go. Men who may yet hold high government offices in the Republic of Ireland visited Bridget (whose money they had frequently taken and used for the liberation of her country), and drank a glass of whiskey to the welfare of Erin, and then passed to other basements for the celebration of like jovial rites. It is said that Bridget had made it the hard condition of her engagement that she should be allowed to receive New Year's calls, and that she would have scorned to enter a house where the arbiter of domestic destinies was denied this simple right. There is no harm in giving it that we know, and we are sure that Bridget will be sensible and proper in its exercise, as soon as her mistress reforms her own New Year's hospitalities, which, indeed, we do not despair that she shall yet do, restoring an idea happy and good in itself to something like propriety and sense, if not beauty and grace, in its expression.

IF a foreigner, taking notes for a work on the manners and customs of this country, had been strolling down Clinton Street, Brooklyn, in the place of Mr. Hugh Allen, he could have witnessed, on the Saturday before Christmas, a scene so bloody and so farcical that he might very excusably have entered in his diary: "An American, in walking out with a lady, sometimes shoots the fair partner of his promenade. In fact, the national passion for the use of fire-arms makes them, with young people, the natural appeal from the cruelty of a snub or the injustice of coquetry. I learn, in regard to the gentleman whom I saw shooting a lady in Brooklyn, the other day," what the diligent reader of the daily papers already knows.

Would it not have been, indeed, a curious bit of drama if represented in any other civilized country? Even here, where we are somewhat habituated to violences uniting the morals of Paris to the manners of Arkansas, this Brooklyn affair is startling, and presents aspects which are anomalous, to say the least. Before now, sensitive girls have taken vengeance on seducers, and, being brought to trial for murder, have been acquitted, and triumphantly kissed out of court; but we believe this is the first time we have heard of a heart-broken lover retaliating the injuries of flirtation by an attempted assassination and suicide. If the Cockney already supposed should say to us: "Now, 'pon my soul, do you know, I think this is very odd," we should hardly have the courage, we fear, to tell him that he did not understand our institutions.

Consider for a moment the remarkable scene of which we suppose him to have been witness, in the place of Mr. Hugh Allen: A lady and gentleman are walking together, when the report of a pistol is heard,

but their manner is so unconcerned, as they continue their walk, that the attention of the spectators is not drawn to them. A second shot is fired, and a pistol is seen in the gentleman's hand. The walk still continues, and it is thought merely that he is amusing himself, in anticipation of the Christmas holidays, rather boisterously and foolishly. He fires his weapon a third time, and now the lady falls with three bullets in her brain, every one of the shots having taken effect. The bystanders rush to her assistance, and the assassin, advancing a few yards alone, places the revolver to his temple and shoots himself, the bullet passing out through his eye. He believes himself mortally wounded, and, returning, lies down at the side of his victim, to die there. But, finding himself equal to yet another shot, he rises on his elbow, and discharges his pistol at the lady's body. Throughout, the hideous farce has been as silent as a pantomime; now, however, the lady utters a faint scream. She is perfectly conscious; she gives her name and address; she gives the name and address of the assassin.

All this our Cockney friend would have witnessed in the place of Mr. Hugh Allen, and if he had been a tourist of common mind, and not strongly sustained by the purpose of making a book, might well have felt his brain reel under the pressure of the extraordinary facts. The sequent history of the affair is not less crazing: the assassin, discovering that his own wound is not fatal, and having now emptied his revolver, runs and throws himself into the river. But it seems that the water is too cold for suicide, and he succeeds in reaching the shore, where he is arrested and taken to the police-station, and, while an order is prepared for his removal to the hospital, he reveals the motive of his crime. It is merely that he loved the lady whom he had shot, and spent a great deal of money for her comfort and welfare in the belief that she would become his wife; that he found her fickle and ungrateful beyond endurance, and so resolved to kill her and kill himself. In the midst of this mad confession he is careful to protest that there is nothing against her character. Thus ends the second act of the murderous comedy.

In the third act, we find the heroine and hero, in spite of their wounds and of the hero's reiterated wish, in a fair way to recover, though one bullet is still left in the heroine's brain. A calm has succeeded to the violent action of the former scenes. Friends call upon the assassin in great numbers and get their names into print. "He is supplied with all the delicacies of the sick-room in the shape of marmalade, oranges, jellies, etc., and, indeed, anything his fancy may dictate." Under these affectionate influences he is almost melted into martyrdom. He conceives a tenderness for a particular custodian, and will receive nothing from the hands of anybody else. He even consents that if his victim really desires to live (as has been represented to him) he will have nothing to say against it, although he would rather she should die. At the same time he shows a great dislike for his doctor, or, in the more noble language of the reporters, he "evinces great repugnance towards his attendant physician." But that which will prove as incomprehensible and maddening as the rest to our Cockney friend, who is still far from understanding our institutions (as we get into the spirit of this affair, and feel how coherent and harmonious in all its monstrous features is the whole nightmare transaction, we recover the national quality of defiance), is that, as this assassin-martyr lies in the hospital, receiving the calls of sympathizing acquaintances, and surrounded by all the delicacies of the sick-room, the brother of the lady, whom he so pitilessly and persistently strove to murder, comes to pay him a little visit of friendship. At this interview we learn that "the recognition is quite warm and reciprocal, and evinces the fact that the attachment they had for each other before this affair remains unshaken;" that is to say, the brother continues the friend of the man who not only tried to kill his sister, but still desires her death, unless she wishes very much, indeed, to live. The assassin tells his victim's brother to take twenty dollars out of his desk in New York, and keep half, and the visit terminates, and all knowledge of the affair ends.

As it stands, it is a mystery on which we shall be glad to leave comment to our factitious Cockney. In his forthcoming book, however, at what shall he marvel the most: the assassin's determination upon a murderous deed from so slight a cause; or the young lady's more than stoical fortitude in refusing to cry out when shot three times; or her brother's more than Christian greatness in visiting a man stained with all the guilt, if not the fact, of murder, and evincing a friendship for him not to be abated by the mere passing assassination of a sister?

Seven or eight years ago there was a jolly English diplomatist at one of the small German capitals. He would have made an excellent (London) *Times* correspondent, for his wont was to jump conclusions and see everything from a grotesque point of view. Thus, having to chronicle some disturbances at Munich, he once edified Lord Palmerston by the following conclusion: "In my opinion, this state of things may be accounted for by the fact that, while some German populations habitually drink beer and others wine, the Bavarians indulge in both beverages."

There is much philosophy in laughter and much truth spoken in jest. Causes less important in their effects on national character than national drinks have often been made the subject of long essays and even volumes. It was, we seriously believe, a lucky day for America when the first American citizen of Teuton descent opened his lager saloon. We had nearly lost the Saxon institution of malt liquor. A few brewers there were, indeed, patronized by a select circle. Fidler & Taylor brewed good ale in Albany, and must have found customers to appreciate it, for Fidler retired on a fortune and changed his name to Howard. Mr. Squeers had ascertained that there was no act of parliament against a man's calling his house an island if he chose, and there certainly was no act of Congress or legislature against a Fidler calling himself a Howard. But the general public knew not malt. The festively-disposed among the masses drank fire-water (New England rum and "ammunition" whiskey); the soberly-disposed drank ice-water, more decent in its outward manifestations, but nearly as injurious in its ultimate effects. One reason why "the beer that renders the Briton so proud" never became naturalized among us was that its potency rendered it over-heady for our nerve-exciting climate. Very different are the soothing influences and associations of lager, reminding one, as it does, not of sturdy river-pulls and bargee-fights and Guy-Livingston-y runs across country, but of trim gardens and pleasant music and dances (in lager beer the hop naturally predominates) at rational hours of the day, and "Saxony, you know, where the pretty maidens grow," and Baden-Baden, where they don't grow, but the article is largely imported, and all that sort of thing. Though, singularly enough, the name *lager* is not common in Germany, common as the thing is. It seems to be a Teutonic-Americanism; yet it is good German, too. Does any unsophisticated reader hesitate about its meaning? We have known several who did, and with some pretensions to linguistic skill. One friend who had read about Wallenstein's Lager and seen the French *bière de Mars*, wanted to connect the two. But the French term means beer of *March* not of *Mars*, and the German word in this construction means merely a *store*. Lager beer is beer that has been stored long enough to give it some body; whence you may hear a *Deutscher* say that the beer has not been *lagered* long enough—in other words, that it is too new.

The beauty of lager is that a little makes a man comfortable, and a great deal won't make him drunk. If any one wants to see the general effect, let him look in upon the Germans of New York when they are Schützenfesting in Jones's Wood, or on any other occasion when they turn out in force. Of physical beauty the company cannot certainly make great boast. It is an unpleasant but unshirkable truth that the American and German cross, especially in the softer sex, seems apt to combine the ugliest points of both races. But "handsome is that handsome does," and the spectator who marks these peaceful thousands disporting themselves temperately and rationally, and considers what different results usually attend similar gatherings of another class of adopted citizens, is fain to bless the memory of Gambrinus, and avow his conviction that there are many worse things in this imperfect world than lager beer. Among its claims should not be forgotten the literature to which it has given birth, and we trust the public does not forget "Hans Breitmann's Sermon," the best humorous poem the country has seen these twenty years, always excepting the Biglow papers, for when it comes to comic rhyming, Hosea Biglow is always to be excepted—like the burgomaster in the story.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should addressed to the Editor.*

EIGHTEEN HUNDRED AND SIXTY-FIVE.

There has probably been no year since the first of the present era which the civilized world will have hereafter so much reason to remember as that which closed last Sunday night. The year in which Rome was first entered by the barbarians was an awful year; the year in which Charles Martel stemmed the Saracen tide on the field of Poictiers was also a momentous year. The year in which Luther first raised his voice against Indulgences was another. Everybody who has a taste for what the schoolmen call the *Media Scientia* might weave an enormous web of speculation by picturing what might have happened if these things we have been mentioning had not happened.

What, for instance, would have become of civilization if it had been left much longer to the guardianship of the broken-down and enervated races in whose hands Alaric found it? Would they, even with Christianity at their backs, have been able to keep the flame alive in those deeper depths to which society in the last days of the empire was rapidly sinking? What sort of Europe should we have had, and what sort of America, if Charles Martel had given ground at Poictiers? Would Mohammedanism, if forced upon the vigorous races of the West, have met with a better fate than is overtaking it in the hands of the Orientals? Would the muezzin's call have fallen on more willing ears if uttered in London and New York than in Constantinople and Bagdad? And what kind of social and political system would have grown up in Europe had the Reformation never come? Should we have seen the whole family of modern nations pulverized into a sort of China, ruled by a theocracy, and supplied with books and ideas by a Propaganda, and making its boast from year to year and age to age that it was no wiser than its fathers?

Attempts to answer questions of this sort may seem idle enough, and yet it is difficult to form an adequate idea of the importance of any one of the great events of history without endeavoring to conjure up a picture before one's own mind of the possible or probable consequences of its non-occurrence.

If we exercise our wits in this way upon the events of the year which has just closed, we shall have no great difficulty in reaching the conclusion that, taken for all in all, no other year since the first of the whole Christian era has done so much, or rather revealed so much that was already done, as 1865. Anybody who paid much attention to the drift of European thought for the last twenty-five years must have seen that there had been a steady ebbing of the humanitarian feeling which reached its height about 1830. In England, the contemptibleness of weakness and poverty, the majesty and moral worth of force, even brute force, the duty of the strong to larrup the weak into industry, the grandeur of big crops and big buildings, and the worthlessness of the great mass of the human race for any purpose but obedience, had been preached so faithfully by Carlyle, that society, government, the press, and the bar were all infected by his ideas, and they at last found a fitting expression in the establishment of the *Saturday Review* and the clamor for interference in the late war on behalf of the South, and ended in producing a scarcely concealed contempt amongst a large portion of the upper classes for every movement which did not promise material results. On the Continent democracy, it is true, was making headway, but it was social not political democracy. The goal of political progress there seemed to be a state of things in which the incapacity of men to govern themselves would be laid down as one of the axioms of political science, and in which communities would be held to have attained their highest aims when one ruled and all had plenty to eat and drink. The ideas bred by the Imperial régime in France, and which the success of that régime seemed to place beyond cavil, were spreading rapidly over Europe; and even in Germany, the only road out of the slavery in which the people now grovel seemed to lead into a centralized despotism, to which Bismark or somebody like him was to give shape and consistency. Italy was freed, it is true, in great part from foreign domination, but not from foreign influence; and that influence was exerted and still is exerted in such fashion as to make her rather a warning than an example, to prove that free institutions are rather things to fly from than to fight for.

In this country the Southern school of economists and political philosophers had been for years preaching with considerable success "the failure of free society." Slavery was held up by them, and held up with a cunning and an eloquence to which the more cultivated classes at the North made but a feeble or imperfect resistance, as the sole solution of the great problem of human poverty.

A century more of such teaching and such progress, of this tranquil buying and selling, where should we have found ourselves? What would have become of our political, what of our religious ideas? What kind of progress would our progress hereafter have been? What sort of civilization would have been produced by the final triumph of labor over capital? Should we have entered on the road along which Rome marched to her ruin, or should we, after going down a little distance and losing much time and much of things more precious than time, have at last succeeded in retracing our steps to the point from which our descent began, to try once more, with dimmed eye and abated force, the old attempt to reconcile liberty with order and progress?

Unless one thinks a little on these things he can hardly form a just idea of the greatness of the salvation which the year that has just expired has brought to us, and, through us, to the civilized world. The guns that announced the downfall of the Confederacy announced not only that the civil war was over, but that modern society had entered on a new path—that a certain order of ideas had finally and conclusively assumed the mastery; that the future of modern society was to be democratic and not monarchical or oligarchic; that the existing divisions of society were conventional and evanescent; that, in short, an opportunity had at last offered itself, and a people had been found to use it, to prove beyond question that Christian principles could be successfully applied to the solution of political problems not only without injury, but with immense advantage to material progress.

Anybody who considers what might have happened if all this had not come to pass, will recognize the claims of 1865 to be for ever marked in all calendars as one of the most famous years of history. And nothing is more certain than that it is future generations and not we who will appreciate the full importance of all that it has done. The value of the past year's work will probably not be fully visible for a century to come. But even now we are sensible that it witnessed an immense step in human progress, perhaps the greatest ever made since that greatest one of all, 1865 years ago, of which the philosophers of the day took so little count.

We are the more earnest in dwelling on this view of the crisis from which we have just emerged, because it is a view which is not by any means universally received amongst us. There is, unquestionably, still a large class at the North who do not believe that the events of the past year have really any such meaning as we have ascribed to them, and who believe that all the wisdom, if not all the right, lay, in the late contest, with the South; that the war was a gigantic evil, and only evil; that it has ended better than was expected, but that the duty of patriotic men is now to labor to efface all traces of it, to consign the ideas which it brought into prominence to oblivion, and to restore the old Southern theories of government and society to their old supremacy in men's minds, and to fix in them that there is no such thing as political progress possible in America, that we got as near perfection at the time of the Revolution as we can ever get, and that our business now is to secure, if not the return of the country to the point then fixed, at least to prevent any further departure from it. And, unless we are greatly mistaken, it will be found that the men who feel in this way about the results of the late struggle will resume, as the memory of it becomes fainter, a portion at least of their old social influence, and will still need watching and counteracting.

A CHRISTMAS BOX.

In 1864, the captain of the great march made over the city of Savannah, and, in effect, the Confederacy, as a Christmas gift to President Lincoln. A twelvemonth later the new President relinquishes the military control of the territory thus acquired, and restores self-govern-

ment, with the compliments of the season, to the States which were then in unsubdued rebellion. While the confident and united Republican majority in Congress were taking their usual holiday vacation, and mingling with the good cheer at their respective homes the thought that the "committee of fifteen" on reconstruction had removed all present anxiety on that subject, the committee of one, who has been most active in the work hitherto, proceeded to consummate his policy according to his own ideas. Mr. Johnson had already significantly reminded the Southern delegates that it was idle for them to hang up their stockings in the Capitol, and those who, acting on his advice, went home, may now congratulate themselves on their sensible behavior. The gift at their own doors is of more importance than that which they craved of Congress.

If the American people, owing to the peculiar relations of slavery to freedom, and, latterly, of the States to the federal Government, had not become familiar with paradoxes and anomalies, it would be worth while to dwell on the present confusion in our national affairs. The Executive, holding the view that the disloyal States must be reckoned among those competent to pass upon the Constitutional Amendment, extorts from a sufficient number of them their ratification, and proclaims the Amendment enacted by the voice of three-fourths of thirty-six (impliedly equal) States. After an arbitrary lapse of time, yet long enough to show that the spirit with which the South has recognized an accomplished fact is not that which is bent on securing justice and protection to all classes of her population, the President desists from exacting a condition of this sort, and judges that the time has come for a full restoration of civil rule. Gen. Grant approves of the restoration, but reinforces Gen. Howard in urging the continuance and increased efficiency of the Freedmen's Bureau. Congress, finally, has declared that the States which the President thinks capable of resuming their individual vitality and functions have as yet no claim to be represented in the national legislature. In this diversity of opinion the Executive has clearly the advantage, and his recent action in dismissing Perry, Sharkey, *et id genus omne*, has altered materially the problem before Congress, and will make a new review of their resources necessary.

Evidently, apart from the singularity of the spectacle, and whatever moral pressure may come of this, there is nothing to hinder Congress from persisting in its exclusion of the reconstructed States from the seats which they lay siege to. It is equally evident that its power over them has been weakened by the President's concession, and that, however unanimous may be its condemnation of his course or its remedial legislation, it may not anticipate the same submission from the South as a fortnight since it might have counted on. It may vote Perry better than Orr, and Sharkey better than Humphreys, but without the cooperation of the Commander-in-chief it can hardly recall them, and it is a very grave question how far Mr. Johnson himself, if he could be persuaded, might lawfully or prudently override the peaceful establishments of his own creation. The statutes of Congress may now be met by the counter-statutes of the States, and the immunities of citizens resident or immigrant are exposed to the nearly untrammelled will of the new rulers of the South. For the freedmen there indeed remains the Bureau, or would remain if the President favored its continuance, which it is not doubtful that Congress will order. But the Executive favor is not certain, and his opposition would be fatal.

We deem it a matter of sincere regret that the President has been so precipitate, and has so little consulted the feeling and deliberate judgment of Congress, which he must know are likely to be at variance with his own. He cannot be said to have assumed a hostile attitude, but his seeming indifference is less creditable than the most determined resistance. If he intends after all to second the decisions of Congress, he has divested himself of the most potent means of carrying them into effect. He has not yet announced the end of war and the return of peace, with the consequent diminution of his own authority, but his strength is now confined to the suspended *habeas corpus*, and the normal operations of the War Department with the Freedmen's Bureau appended. We say is *now* confined; but it is difficult to predict that it would be, if the President were to take a more enlarged view of the question. In these times it is too much to insist that even our magistrates should be logical; but we may be allowed to hope that Mr. Johnson's inconsistencies will not always be to the detriment of the republic, though, in saying all this, we cast no imputation either on his honesty or his sincerity. But it is evident we are just getting to a point where good intentions will not be enough for our purpose. The consequences of any mistake in the decision of the questions now before the country would be so serious that we protest against any one man's undertaking to solve them on his own responsibility. Not one of them ought to be settled by any less power than the whole government. If the restoration of the South should prove premature, it will be a very small consolation to us when the mischief is done to know that the President was imposed on in 1865.

THE "LIBERATOR" RELEASED.

THE *Liberator*, representative of the original abolitionists, has deceased, or rather has been translated; for its end was not so much an extinction as a disappearance in the light which it heralded and helped to bring in. It expired last Friday in the arms of victory. The Constitutional Amendment, which declared that slavery no longer existed in the United States, was publicly ratified in season to be duly announced and welcomed in the issue of December 22, Forefather's Day, leaving the last issue free for the final words of memory and jubilation. The paper has finished its course because it has reached its goal; but if its goal had been set a century further on, nothing would have finished its course till the goal had been reached; for it was supported by its principle; it lived on its nerve. If want of money could have killed it, the paper would have been starved out long ago. If hate and loathing could have destroyed it, it would not have lived a twelvemonth. All the packs were in full cry after it the instant it was discovered, and it seemed a very small thing to kill. A more insignificant enemy than it looked to be thirty-five years ago it would be hard to imagine. We have before us, as we write, the first number of the paper, published in Boston, at No. 6 Merchants' Hall, January 1, 1831. The sheet is a span and a half long and a span wide. The editor declares that he will be "as harsh as truth and as uncompromising as justice;" that he is in earnest, that he will not equivocate, that he will not excuse, that he will not retreat a single inch, and that *he will be heard*. The publishers, on their part, proclaim their determination "to print the paper as long as they can subsist on bread and water, or their hands can find employment." The paper has not much more than doubled its size since then; but steadily, week by week, never failing in a single instance to come to time, it has dropped its water upon the nation's marble heart. Its tenacity has been as wonderful as its intensity. The abolition of chattel slavery was its aim, and it never for a moment lost sight of it. There was a stern monotony in its issues that was like the pressure of fate. It was an unvarying soliloquy thirty-five years long. Line upon line, precept upon precept, was its rule and method. Other matters found place in its columns but they never distracted attention from this. The poetry was somewhat lacking in poetic art, but it was all inspired by anti-slavery conviction. The literary criticism was not delicate, but it was always honest and earnest. Many of the contributions were rough in style and crude in thought, but they were contributions to the main cause. Every strange reform found a voice in its columns, but their currents came in as tributary streams to swell the tide of moral sentiment which was to carry away the one gigantic wrong of slavery. The editor, from year to year, kept his pledge—he never did equivocate, excuse, or retreat. He knew no distinction of persons; he knew no difference of times or seasons. Justice does not vary with policies or events. Other newspapers might change hands and principles; parties swung round to opposite sides; great political issues appeared and disappeared; statesmen filled the public eye and vanished; cabinets went in and out; administrations rose and fell; elections again and again convulsed the country and altered the old sea margins of opinion. The editor of the *Liberator* never took his eye from the slave nor cared where other men fixed their eyes, save as they smiled or frowned on the slave. It is, perhaps, the most remarkable instance on record of single-hearted devotion to a cause.

We are not of those who think that the influence of the *Liberator*

was either feeble or circumscribed. On the contrary, we believe that it was deep and broad. It did not do the whole work of abolishing slavery, by any means. Providence never entrusted a great task to a single instrument. A thousand causes, industrial, social, political, conspired to bring about the magnificent result which we are so happy in beholding to-day; but among those causes the *Liberator* was one, and it was a most important one. Its effect on the political movements of party organizations was not appreciably large, perhaps. Its effect on the conspicuous classes in society, the rich, cultivated, and aristocratic, was very small indeed. But its effect on the moral sentiment of the country was exceedingly great. It went straight to the conscience. It did not say: Slavery is a mistake, an industrial blunder, a financial stupidity, a social solecism, or political folly. It said: Slavery is a sin. Addressed to a Puritan community, that argument told. The *Liberator* slowly but steadily educated the religious convictions of the people to the detestation of a guilt. The sigh of the slave was heard, first timidly in prayers, then tremblingly in sermons. Afterwards the cry broke out audibly in both. It divided parishes; it dispossessed preachers of their pulpits; it caused agitation throughout the churches. Especially in the country villages and in the larger towns this paper was read and pondered. Its influence was not of the kind that makes noise; it was silent, but it was radical, and it did more than any one thing beside to create that power of moral conviction which was so indomitable an element in the later political campaigns.

A paper so small and of circulation so limited would have failed to do the work this did, if it had not been the organ of a single mind charged with a single conviction. The *Liberator* was Mr. Garrison; Mr. Garrison was the *Liberator;* and Mr. Garrison was a man to make himself felt. He was the man for the work at the time the work was undertaken. The providence that shapes tools for its uses shaped him admirably well. A man of genius might have lacked the sober steadfastness which was required. An enthusiast might have been dazzled by false lights. A political tactician would certainly have been seduced by prospects of immediate success, to be secured through delicate management which would have involved compromise. A person of fine imagination would probably have distorted by overcoloring the dreadful facts, which were more impressive in their bare, gaunt outline than any painter's art could have made them, and by over-exciting the moral sensibilities would have failed to educate them. A man who was capable of keenly suffering from the adverse opinions of his fellowmen would have found it difficult, if not impossible, to maintain the inflexible calmness which the work demanded. The thing called for was conscience—a clear, definite, absolute, overpowering feeling of right and wrong, such as, in the language of Goethe, "penetrates the body, and puts it in a state of activity that repels all hurtful influences." This was Mr. Garrison's attribute. He was all conscience; he was rectitude itself. The moral sense was light to him and heat. One could hardly determine what his other qualities were, so deeply were they tinged by this element. Was a thing right or wrong? He could see that; and seeing that, it seemed of little moment whether he saw or failed to see anything else. He knew no shades of right and wrong. Right and wrong were absolute—the same in all lights and in all shadows. He knew no degrees of justice and injustice; he made little account of atmospheres; he was not nice in moral perspective. Sins were all the same size, and there were no little ones. Every slave apologist was a slaveholder. Every one who turned away from the slave's appeal was a hater of his brother; and every one that hated his brother was a murderer. The "categorical imperative" supplied the logic. It was the logic for the occasion. Nothing less, probably, would serve. The ploughshare must needs have been sharp and well driven that was to make a straight furrow through a moral world so stubborn. It would not do to look to the right hand or to the left, or to turn out of the way for violets.

But Mr. Garrison, though an unswerving and pitiless reformer, was no bigot. The cause owned him; not he the cause. He had no wish to arrest Providence and make God wait on his newspaper. The Spirit led him whither it would. His moral sense running along the line of naked principles, gave him that singular prescience which men call prophecy. As surely as he knew when to begin his work, he knew when his work was finished. His announcement that the time was come to stop the *Liberator* and dissolve the association, took some of his warmest friends by surprise. They remonstrated with him earnestly, representing to him the utterly unfinished state of the enterprise he had undertaken. The President's proclamation had not abolished slavery. The State laws were extant still and in force. The system was in active operation in every Southern State, and under it outrages terrible as ever were perpetrated. The Constitutional Amendment was not ratified, nor greatly in the way of being so. A large class of the most faithful abolitionists profoundly distrusted Mr. Lincoln, and still more his cabinet. They were not sure of the constancy of the public conviction, and felt that the hour demanded of them redoubled efforts under their old banner. But Mr. Garrison had more faith than they; more faith in the people, in the President, in the inevitable tendency of events. He decided that the work of the *Liberator* was finished.

De Maistre urges as an argument for the divine institution of war that it leaves unbrutalized in manners and affections the men who make it their profession. By this test Garrison's mission will stand grandly vindicated. He comes out of his warfare completely unspoiled. Doing his battle for God and not for himself, the conflict left no stain upon him. Terrible as his earnestness was, fierce as were his invectives, deadly as was his assault on the popular prejudice, there was always something abstract and impersonal about them. He wrote and spoke, not out of his private feeling, but out of his moral conviction. While his enemies thought him a bloody-minded fanatic, and the world generally regarded him as a ferocious demagogue, his friends knew him, and know him still, as one of the sweetest tempered, kindest, simplest, most unambitious and retiring of men; modest, quiet, domestic, fond of children, mirthful, overflowing with human charity, and, with unaffected naturalness, losing himself in the world of workers.

It was a rare sagacity that told this reformer when one phase of his career was ended; it was a rare truthfulness that told him the ending of this phase was not the ending of the career; and equally rare is the devotion which impels him instantly to take up the old work under its new and less exciting aspects, by joining heart and hand with those who are laboring to clothe and educate the negroes, whom he gave the better part of his life and the whole of his soul to make free.

THE NATIONAL HIGHWAYS.

In an article on this subject, printed November 16, we endeavored to show that the railroads of the country, forming as they do a connected and organized system overspreading and connecting all parts of it, are, like our rivers and lakes, national highways, and therefore within the jurisdiction of national authority.

It is satisfactory to find this opinion expressed in the message of the President. He says: "The Constitution confers the right to regulate commerce among the several States. It is of the first necessity for the maintenance of the Union that that commerce should be free and unobstructed. . . . It is best while the country is still young, and the tendency to dangerous monopolies still feeble, to use the power of Congress to prevent any selfish impediment to the free circulation of men and merchandise." The principle thus announced is applied by the President to taxes imposed by a State on the transit of men and merchandise within its limits, or to the denial of a choice of route. In such cases Congress, under its power to regulate commerce, may interfere. This power, however, includes all causes by which commerce among the States may be obstructed, and surely none can be more efficient than danger to life and limb. The House of Representatives seem to be of this opinion, for they have just (Dec. 11) by unanimous consent agreed to the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Committee on Commerce be instructed to enquire what legislation is necessary for the safety and protection of persons travelling upon railroads in the United States, and report by bill or otherwise."

It being thus settled that there is a power legally competent to govern the railroads, the next question is, What ought this power to do?

The subject has become of grave importance. The annual destruc-

tion of hundreds of valuable lives, which might be avoided, is a reproach to the Government. The percentage of injury is so great that it inspires a sense of insecurity. It is not so in Europe, where the railroads are subject to the control of government. How that control is exercised we have not at hand the means of ascertaining. That it is exerted and with good effect, is enough for our present purpose. The committee of Congress to whom the subject has been referred will doubtless seek information, and the various means employed abroad may, perhaps, furnish materials for a system that will be applicable to the circumstances of our country. These vary so much that it would be difficult to frame rules suitable for all. A very large staff of officers would be necessary to enforce any system on our long lines of railroad. This would add greatly to the patronage of the Government, already so exorbitant and so dangerous, and the morale of our politics affords little hope that the persons appointed would always be able to resist the influence of these powerful corporations.

The subject is surrounded by difficulty, yet something must be done or attempted, for the evil is becoming too serious even for our proverbial American recklessness of life. Since our last article on this subject was printed, nearly one hundred people have been killed or wounded on railroads. It is a terrible thought that all this misery might have been prevented. By whom? Not by the railroad companies; else why is it not prevented? why does the evil increase? The reason is that the railroad companies have not a sufficient motive to prevent it. Occasional accidents are cheaper than the very expensive means necessary to prevent them. An engine or a few cars are broken or destroyed once or twice a year. Claims for damages are rarely made except by those in the humblest walks of life, and they do not often travel on railroads. A very honorable feeling of delicacy prevents the wounded or the representatives of the killed from demanding money for sufferings for which money is no compensation. We arrive thus at the conclusion that the railroad companies cannot, because of their nature, do more than they are now doing to make travelling safe, and for the reason that it will not pay.

And now the question arises, What ought Congress to do? As already stated, there are obstacles and ills connected with the creation and execution of any system of preventive measures that must be enforced by the Government. We venture to suggest one that would have the merit of executing itself. It is indicated by the natural law of railroad companies, because they, like fire and steam, iron and granite, acid and alkali, can be governed and used only by recognizing and obeying the natural law of their being; for, as Lord Bacon said, "Nature is only subdued by submission."

Railroads are dangerous because safety will not pay, and profit, by the law of its nature, is the only object of a money corporation. The remedy, therefore, is obedience to that law. Let the Government make safety pay by rendering accidents expensive. The law might do this by providing that for every person killed or wounded on a railroad the company shall pay a certain sum, not by way of punishment, for it is absurd to talk of punishing stockholders for injuries they never intended, but merely as a means to attain a desirable end. In order that this plan may be effectual, it should be as certain in its operation as a law of nature, which, because it is inexorable and affects alike the just and the unjust, no one disregards.

> "When the tall arch is nodding from on high,
> Shall gravitation cease if you go by?"

Gravitation is, therefore, respected and obeyed by all. No excuse, however just and reasonable, should be received, but the penalty should follow inevitably the simple fact of injury. If a plea were admitted in any case, "the ingenuity of counsel" could, in the majority of cases, prove a sufficient foundation on which to build the defence of diligence, or even of extraordinary diligence, which the law requires. The whole object of the proposed plan would thus be defeated, which is, to render danger costly—more costly than safety.

There is no injustice in this rigor, because the penalty imputes no criminality to any one. Grant that there was due diligence in the particular case, the object of the law is to secure such diligence in all cases that the number of accidents shall be the fewest which the nature of railroads permits. This can be done only by rendering accidents more expensive than a wisely organized system of precautions to avoid them. If the companies knew beforehand that a catastrophe, by which ten were killed and as many maimed, would cost $150,000, such events would be much less common than they now are, when the expense is only $20,000 or $30,000.

Thus we see that the natural law ot railroad companies points out the way to govern them. They are corporations engaged in business, and as such their only motive is profit. Make, therefore, the utmost care to avoid accidents the essential condition of profit. As they are not men but corporations, no malice or intention to do injury can be imputed to them. Attach, therefore, to every injury a pecuniary penalty, from which there can be no escape, so that the company may regard it merely as a loss to be avoided, like other losses, by the general good management of their work.

We cannot give the details of a law to carry these principles into practice, but suggest that it contain the following provisions:

1. It shall be the duty of the president of every railroad company, whenever an accident occurs, to make a report thereof to the district attorney of the United States of the district wherein is situated the principal office of the said company, which report must contain a statement of the time and place of the event, the number of persons killed and wounded, with their names and places of residence, and the nature of the injuries received by the wounded.

2. It shall be the duty of the said attorney, immediately upon receiving this report, to enter judgment against the said company for a sum equal to —— dollars for every person killed, and —— dollars for every one wounded according to said report, and in —— days thereafter to issue execution for the same, unless it be previously paid.

3. The money thus collected shall be paid into court, and shall remain there —— months, during which time any one mentioned in said report, his or her agent or legal representative, may claim respectively the sums before-mentioned to be paid by the said company for each person killed or wounded on its road. After the expiration of —— months from the entering of such judgment, the money unexpended shall be paid into the Treasury of the United States.

4. No company which has paid, in the manner above-mentioned, the amount required, shall be liable for damages at the suit of any one, or the representatives of any one, mentioned in the said report.

The railroad companies know better than any one else how to prevent accidents. If these were more costly than the means necessary to avoid them, the companies would use those means without expense to the Government.

It may be thought by some that the proposed plan is inconsistent with the fifth section of the amendments to the Constitution, which declares that no person "shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law." But this section was intended for "criminal cases" only (Story's Com., 1789). It does not, therefore, apply to corporations, who are (2 Kent's Com., 226) immortal, invisible, intangible beings, who cannot perform a personal act, nor commit a crime, nor be arrested or punished. The experiment is, at all events, worth trying, and the subject is certainly worth discussion.

A MONKISH LEGEND.

Beautiful stories, by tongue and pen,
Are told of holy women and men,
Who have heard, entranced in some lonely cell,
The things not lawful for lip to tell;
And seen, when their souls were caught away,
What they might not say.

But one of the sweetest in tale or rhyme
Is told of a monk of the olden time,
Who read all day in his sacred nook
The words of the good Saint Austin's book,
Where he tells of the city of God, that best
Last place of rest.

Sighing, the holy father said,
As he shut the volume he had read:

"Methinks if heaven shall only be
A Sabbath long as eternity,
Its bliss will at last be a weary reign,
And its peace be pain."

So he wandered, musing under his hood,
Far into the depths of a solemn wood;
Where a bird was singing, so soft and clear,
That he paused and listened with charmèd ear;
Listened, nor knew, while thus intent,
How the moments went.

But the music ceased, and the sweet spell broke,
And as if from a guilty dream he woke,
That holy man, and he cried aghast,
"*Mea culpa!* an hour has passed,
And I have not counted my beads, nor prayed
To the saints for aid!"

Then, amazed, he fled; but his horror grew,
For the wood was strange, and the pathway new;
Yet, with trembling step, he hurried on,
Till at last the open plain was won,
Where, grim and black, o'er the vale around,
The convent frowned.

"Holy Saint Austin!" cried the monk,
And down on the ground for terror sunk;
For lo! the convent, tower, and cell,
Sacred crucifix, blessèd bell,
Had passed away, and in their stead,
Was a ruin spread.

In that hour, while the rapture held him fast,
A century had come and passed;
And he rose an altered man, and went
His way, and knew what the vision meant;
For a mighty truth, till then unknown,
By that trance was shown.

And he saw how the saints, with their Lord, shall say,
A thousand years are but as a day;
Since bliss itself must grow from bliss,
And holiness from holiness;
And love, while eternity's ages move,
Cannot tire of love!

PHŒBE CARY.

DRESS AND ITS CRITICS.

IT has recently become popular, if not fashionable, to promulgate diatribes against the extravagant toilets of American women. On the other hand, many foreigners have openly remarked, and not a few natives more quietly observed, a growing inattention to dress, a tendency to shabbiness and slovenliness, on the part of American men. The misogynist would probably explain at once that the former phenomenon was the direct cause of the latter; the lords of creation cannot attire themselves properly because the ladies of creation—their wives and daughters—spend all the money for their own adornment. But the complaint against female extravagance is as old as imperial Rome, nay, as republican Athens; it has often coincided with the greatest displays of male dandyism; and besides, this hypothesis omits all consideration of unmarried men.

Many of the distinctive features of modern male dress may be explained on the obvious principle of convenience and common sense. Take, for instance, the trousers of to-day as compared with the breeches of our great-grandfathers. By-gone wits in various languages have handed down to us several descriptions of the beaux in former centuries getting into their breeches; an operation which took nearly as much time and trouble as it now does to launch a man-of-war. For a later example take the cloak. Men by no means old enough to be grandsires can remember when they sported the "full circle," with its dozen yards or thereabouts of blue cloth. Elegant and graceful it was, and, for a carriage ride to a full-dress party, very convenient, but for all other purposes very inconvenient, wherefore it has everywhere given place to some form of great-coat. Even the "stove-pipe" hat is gradually yielding to the "wide-awake."

Influences like these affects all nations; but something further seems to be at work among ourselves. It would hardly be safe to accept as gospel the dicta of all foreigners, such as Prince Napoleon's friend, who asserted that tailors proper were unknown in the land: "the American buys his clothes at a slop-shop and wears the same suit till it is worn out;" or the more recent writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, who says that the millionaires of St. Louis dress like hodmen, and the only decently attired males in the West are the professional gamblers; but, after paring down these exaggerations, there is a very positive amount of truth in the charge, and it is the more singular from the fact that, till within a few years, Americans were noted for the very opposite quality, too great attention to dress. (*Vide* Thackeray's "Kickleburys on the Rhine," and almost any foreign visitor's book between 1840 and 1860.)

Shall we say that this change is merely another illustration of our national tendency to run from one extreme to another? If so, why do not the women participate in it to a greater extent? Or is it a necessary result of the war? Hardly; for the war has not put down equipages, or dinners, or many things that cost quite as much as a man's wardrobe. Besides, the deficiency is one of care rather than expense; a lack of wash-tub and brush rather than of new broadcloth. Still, war-prices may well have had their share in the result. A comparatively minor expense may change all a man's habits of dress. If he has to pay three dollars instead of one for his dress-gloves, he will begin to economize in them, and, from wearing shabby gloves, he comes rapidly to neglect other details.

One of the main causes of negligence in dress doubtless is the increasing size of our cities and the want of any decent transport for persons of moderate means. Men will not dress themselves carefully to go to places of public resort if they have no reasonable prospect of making a cleanly voyage thither; hence the very rusty appearance presented by the pit, not merely of our best theatres, but even of the opera. Another is the increasing pressure of the public demands upon every man whose labor is of any value to the public. He is obliged to take the shortest cut to his business, in dress as in all other things. He cannot afford the time necessary to take precautions against soiling his clothes. He does not change them or buy new ones as often as he ought to for the same reason.

But whatever be the cause of the evil, we decidedly maintain that it is *not* inherent in the modern shape and style of dress; and we cannot join in the condemnation of that dress often uttered under artistic pretences. Thus, it is frequently said that our attire is "unpicturesque," which really means little more than that we are too familiar with it. Homer praised the beauty of a formal garden because the *uncivilization* of his day made it a rare object. The want of color is a commonly urged fault; but we must remember that grave tints for gentlemen's wear are no modern invention; the Spaniards adopted them centuries ago. One strong objection to colored upper garments is their glaring shabbiness when ever so little worn or faded; an old claret-colored coat, for instance, is ten times seedier to view than an old black one.

But, then, there is no need of men's wearing either a claret-colored coat or a black one. The love of black broadcloth is, perhaps, that weakness of the Yankee character which is best known to foreigners, and has afforded foreign tourists most opportunities of making little jokes in their diaries upon the personal appearance of the American traveller. Not that there is any inherent impropriety in wearing black. On the contrary, there is, perhaps, no color so suitable to the great mass of men. In some sorts of material—velvet, for instance—it furnishes the most becoming suit for almost any kind of wear ever devised by the wit of tailor. But the fact is, it is a bad working or lounging color, the worst that ever a man amused himself or did business in. The consequence is that it has been discarded in Europe for morning wear, and is now there mainly restricted to clergymen, notaries, and tradesmen in their best clothes, and gentlemen in deep mourning. A person presenting himself at a great London house to make a morning call in a full suit of black, would, probably, be received by the footman as a person who had come to take my lady's measure for a pair of boots; and in Paris a *flâneur* who appeared on the Boulevards in such melancholy attire would be set down by his friends as being engaged in a "lark" or an intrigue, or, in fact, as having some special reason for disguising himself.

And this conventional prohibition of the color has, like nearly every other fashion in modern dress—such, for instance, as the low collars and light cravats of our day—a certain basis in common sense and convenience. Modern life is not the stiff and stately thing that it was when Vandyke and Velasquez painted noblemen and grandees in lace and ruffles and black velvet doublets. Men, even gentlemen, are now-a-days all *actively* engaged either in business or in pleasure. They are either hard at work in offices,

or in the fields, or in libraries. They flit about muddy streets on foot, ride in dirty hacks, or stand in dirtier cars, exposed to mud, dust, tobacco-smoke, and all the other plagues of modern life. They are constantly rubbing against something with back or elbows. Consequently the grand requisite in their clothes is that they shall not soil easily, show the dust readily, or wear out rapidly. Black cloth, however, grows seedy-looking sooner than most other colors, and shows stains sooner, and dust sooner, and, therefore, has been most wisely discarded by "good society," except for evening dress and state occasions, when dress is a subject of great care and a matter of importance. Through a large portion of the United States, however, this distinction is unknown, black broadcloth being considered the proper thing to wear to church; at home it is considered the proper thing to wear on all occasions when a man wishes to appear "dressed," no matter at what hour of the day. Consequently, when the untravelled American goes to Europe, he arrays himself carefully in the usual color, and appears at all the railway stations and hotels as black as midnight.

At the South, where, owing to the wild life led by most of the population, one would expect black to be rarely seen, it is, or rather was before the war—we presume now any color is welcome—the color *par excellence* which a "gentleman" was bound to wear, and, as every white man is *ex officio* a gentleman, everybody who could afford it wore black, the other colors being left somewhat scornfully to stage-drivers and such like. Every keeper of a wretched tavern in the Southwest did his best to dawn on his guests every morning in a full suit of black and patent-leather boots, and many a Northern traveller will remember being consigned to the state-room over the boiler on a Mississippi steamboat, owing to the shabby appearance which he presented in a good suit of travelling grey to the "polite and gentlemanly clerk," who sat behind the window black as a crow, but resplendent with diamonds. The fact is, that as there is no country in which there is so much work and so much travelling done as in this, in which men's lives are so intensely active, there is none in which black broadcloth as an everyday dress should be more carefully avoided by everybody who does not wish to look both dirty and shabby most of his time. The same remark applies to patent-leather and prunella boots with patent-leather toes, to which third-rate "swells," and, for some inscrutable reason, young farmers, most of whose time is passed in muddy or dusty fields or roads, are greatly addicted.

Long hair is another piece of personal ornamentation which, in old countries, is being gradually laid aside by the class which devotes most attention to personal appearance. And yet amongst us those who, being least able to take care of their hair, are least entitled to wear it long, are the very men who cling most tenaciously to it. It may be laid down as a general rule, with regard to all matters of dress, that a man's first duty is to be clean, and to look clean and neat. Therefore, if he insists on having ringlets down on his shoulders, he ought either keep them clean himself or have a valet to do it, or ought not to expose them to the dust and dirt of everyday life. Moreover, if he considers it his duty to grease them every day, he ought not to let them lie on the collar of his coat, as the shiny appearance assumed by woollen cloth after repeated applications of pomatum is not pleasing, to say the least. By soldiers and men actively engaged during the day, with any real love of work and any real dislike of dirt, the scissors ought to be unsparingly applied to their "luxuriant locks," which ought to be kept at such a length that a brush and a sponge will keep them in order. In other words, we, as a nation, ought to be as remarkable for the shortness of our hair as we are for its length.

Timothy Titcomb, in one of the bits of advice which he gives to young men, lays it down somewhere, that there should be in every man's dress some central point, from which everything else should radiate, and this point he declares to be the shirt-front, which he would, doubtless, have of expansive dimensions and snowy whiteness. But in this Timothy must have spoken without due consideration. Snowy linen and plenty of it is a pleasing spectacle, but it is a species of display in which nobody should indulge who has not time enough or money enough to change very frequently, or whose occupation is of a nature to soil or ruffle his shirt-front rapidly. And yet, in this matter, as in the matter of hair, we are apt to find that those who can bestow least attention on their shirt-fronts are the very men who make most display of them. No class, probably, wear so few buttons in their waistcoats as street-car conductors. The fact is that workers should button well up, and if they show any more linen than their shirt-collars, they should show only as much as they can fairly protect from being soiled. The whole question of modern dress is in fact, or ought to be, determined by the exigencies of modern life. In this, as in other things, we are growing daily more practical.

A LITTLE GERMAN CAPITAL.

I THINK if I could remember ever to have read a word about this little capital I should not write of it now. I approached it with the freshest feeling—indeed, I had but just come to Europe, and have not since lost the impression that I have the claims of a discoverer upon it.

The natives did not flock to meet me at the railway station, as natives are wont to crowd to the spectacle of their discoverers. The only inhabitant who made any demonstrations of reception was the coachman of the inn of the White Rose. He, however, bade me such a civil good evening, that I could do nothing but go with him to the White Rose at once.

I was glad when all the porters, who had so undignified and diminished my poor luggage by their numerical and individual disproportion, left it and me to the solitude of our sleeping-room, for I was very tired, and I went to bed instantly. If you have never slept between the feather mattresses of a German bed, you as yet know nightmare only by the name. I think that all the ghosts and phantoms that trouble German song are attributable to the dreams dreamed in such beds, and that the sceptical tendency of German philosophers may be traced to the same source. Who, indeed, could preserve his faith, sleeping half-smothered, night after night, under a mountain of feathers? It is clearly impossible.

But not for all the abominations of the bed would I miss praising the delicious coffee they gave me at the White Rose in the morning; neither would I forget the good red wine I drank, blushing to be sold for so mean a sum of kreuzer as it cost me. I had even thought of praising the good looks of the maiden who sharply reckoned the accounts at the restauration; but the vision of her uncompromising ugliness has risen up to reproach me, and I tell the truth of her. She was not beautiful; and if I did not see many women in Germany who were beautiful, I am not to blame; for I diligently looked for them. Heaven has given the German poets a fervid imagination that they may more easily feign in German women "was die Natur versagt."

It was, doubtless, in compensation for my disappointment in this direction that I was suffered in my little capital to see the king—a white-headed old man, of a comfortable habit of body, whose movement, assisted by a cane, did not seem to me very majestic, but, on the contrary, struck me as being of that kind of progress which I have heard called pottering. He was, as one may say, my first king, and I felt jealous that he should come up to the royal standard in my mind. But I say he did not look a very awful king, and I regarded him not only without palpitation, but with so great freedom from the wish to see him revolutionized against that I took off my hat as he went by—I, democrat of the crimson and combustible. As for his subjects, they flocked to their doors to look at him with a curiosity not wholly unmixed, I thought, with affection; and some of his liege urchins seemed even to meditate a procession in his rear as a mark of their loyalty, but they did not follow him far; and presently a barber, in front of whose shop I stood, left a patron holding a basin of soapsuds to his chin, and ran out to tell me that it made the old king very angry to be followed or taken great note of in the street. He walked quite alone to his palace, no staff of office preceding or coming after him, and it seemed a very pleasant little spectacle. His people loved him, no doubt. They told terrible scandals about him. He—but how many sovereigns in America are no better? I do not suppose they will record his errors on the monument to be erected to his memory when he is dead, and his virtues may be very properly held up for imitation.

The folks in his capital slander their king, but they say no better things of each other; and, if I could believe them, I must think that the state of morality was but low in that little capital. They attribute a popular want of virtue to the corruptions of the court, and perhaps these are bad enough There are cakes and ale everywhere, but here I was given to know that they are the chief meat and drink; and, indeed, the accounts which I had of social life in this German city made me wonder if the Germany which Thackeray describes so well is wholly of the past yet.

Oh, civilization of the New World! at thy worst thou art purer and better than this of the Old. Thou comest not down from kings and courts, but forth from each man's heart and brain, and spreadest from level to level, giving to the civil equal all the light of the social and moral superior. And, to get out of the apostrophe (which I have always found a difficult thing to manage), one must come to Europe to learn this, and to regret sincerely all the wrong done in heart to the excellence of the New World life. It was not *mal du pays* (though I felt that) which, I think, brought me early to contrition for unpatriotic thoughts entertained at home. I believe it was rather a willingness to judge candidly of what I had read so much, and to compare American civilization with that of Europe, and to note the startling differences that appeared after the first semblance of similarity between

things essentially unlike had worn off. The two civilizations are unlike, because one is the civilization of individuals and the other the civilization of classes. We happily have no classes in the hopeless European sense. Where there is division among us it is by natural segregation, and not by legal and conventional separation. The well-worn sentiments of national self-praise are marvellously revivified by knowledge of Europe; and is it not worth the journey thither to learn that the Fourth of July orations are true?

Do I moralize to the verge of tediousness? Some things have to be said; but I was going with you that moment to the king's gardens, which are

"So royal-rich and wide,"

and in which you are never out of the gleam of sculptured marbles. The park is not unlike other parks in respect of trees and drives and ponds. The latter are for skating in the winter and for ducks and swans in the summer, and there the people feed these to that fearful extent to which the wretched birds are gorged by the public in all the parks of the known world. But this garden has one notable feature in its noble avenue, two miles long, where I saw the queen in her carriage, and where the people walk and the fat Suabian dandies gallop violently up and down. You see these latter in all the finer streets and squares, and they are always spectacles of wonder and interest, not less from the nature of their horsemanship than the ineffectual dandyism of their dress. They do not show very splendidly in that city, however, for it is military, and the young officers of the garrison have never had anything to do but to make fine appearances since the wars of the first Napoleon, if I except several of those revolutions to which the enduring governments of Europe are so liable, and which are so coolly handed over to us as the peculiar weaknesses of republics. It is a good thing, I say, to see these warriors strutting through the streets of the little capital, with their moustaches newly dressed with fixature, with their neat little waists that betray the corset, with their tight pantaloons and the insufficient tails of their brief coats, and their spurs and scabbards making music as they go. I could not wonder that the cabbage-roses deepened in the broad cheeks of the maidens upon whom their glances fell; and I perceived that a meek melancholy possessed the civil bucks in their presence. The city is so small that it is easy to be distinguished there. When the French or the English ambassador, or any of his children, walk abroad, everybody is conscious of the fact, and people make it the subject of conversation. When a Russian prince arrives, on his way to Baden-Baden, they know of his arrival and are grateful for the sensation. So it seemed to me that the lives of these soldiers must be existences of unmixed ease and celebrity, and I could only admire anew the systems that repeat them everywhere in Europe and make them the first political and social element.

But I liked even better than these men of valor that royal garden whereof I but spoke, and wherein all classes of the people seemed to walk about on Sunday. The sun shone with a feeble November lustre, and barred the avenues with long lines of light, and trembled upon the plumes in the hats of the maidens, and, besides doing all the other things that the sun does in descriptive writing, fell upon the numerous statues in the garden, and drew my wandering attention to them. The marbles were good, perhaps. The subjects were certainly classic, and dealt with fables and feelings as dead to that people as the stone from which they were hewn. Some of them were in the French *renaissance* taste, and made one think of powdered hair and ruffles and hoops and patches. I wonder if, when the sculptors begin to look for the statues that are to adorn our public places in America, they will find nothing in the blocks of marble but the trite Greek celestials, who seem always to be lying in wait there to spring out on a bewildered modern public. Ambrosia is good, but it is hardly a drink to the present taste. Italy is the only land where the old classic themes have any living relation o the people. There, where they swear yet by the Body of Bacchus, and the saints have only changed their names, links of unconscious sympathy may bind them to the days when gods were very common things, and the little domestic *désagrémens* of Olympus formed the sensations of an age in which divorce trials were not reported. But in this German town nothing struck me as so exotic, so foreign to all popular feeling and knowledge, as these poor deities freezing in marble under the dull gaze of the mortals about them. What did Gretel know of Diana? Or thou, Hänsl, of Apollo? Nay, since in the Old World the people are nothing, what interest, æsthetical or otherwise, could even the High-well-born have in such immortals?

It was better in that palace through which I passed, and where noble frescoes celebrated the history of the wars and the heroes of the kingdom. But here the people could not come freely, and I began to think I discerned that this civilization, old and rich, was more wholly destitute of art and the things that reveal and reflect the beautiful, than even that new order of the West, which truly has made the wilderness to blossom like the rose, but has not as yet found time to adorn its usefulness with the final grace of art. Then I began also to doubt the value of certain theories that I had built at some cost of speculation as to that more *thorough* life which men must live in Europe, with a thousand years of history behind them, and

"The fair, the old"

all round them, making precious the breath drawn in such presence. Seeing how men lived and died unconscious of these things, and how little they served to adorn daily life—satiate already with that antiquity of which we are so fond at home, but which is common as the unbuilded dust in European streets—vexed with sentimental disappointment and defeat—did I err in reverting to an opposite faith, and prizing above history, art, and the poetry of association that social and civil order which permits every life to be at once grand and simple, that makes man superior to classes and only subject to freedom? Was I wrong to hold the darkest probability of the American future at greater worth than all the past and present of Europe?

Palaces I did not find all what I expected them to be. I wonder if, being set down in Aladdin's palace, we should altogether like it? For my part, I consider splendor not nearly so good as comfort, and I should have been better satisfied with this palace if it had not been so cold. It was full of wonderful things, but it had not that grand simplicity which I had observed to characterize palaces when represented in the theatres, though it was in places bare enough. I remember a chair there which, when you sat down upon it, played music; and there was a contrivance for weighing yourself—things which I had not expected to find in a royal residence. I do not speak much of the pictures and statues in this palace, for I do not very distinctly recollect them; and besides, seeing afterwards another palace devoted solely to these things, that has naturally the first place in my mind. But, in the very ecstacy of sternutation, and conscious that I was taking a frightful cold, I observed with compassionate interest that the royal beds were contrived upon the principle of that I had slept in and under the night before.

In common with other contributors to periodical literature, I have a good opinion of my own ideas, for I know that they are stolen from the best authors. When I saw the royal gallery in my German capital, I felt no occasion to change the views I had adopted from Hawthorne concerning the nude in modern art. I would fight shy (if I may introduce the expression to good society) of all discussion of the subject but for some thoughts that occurred to me at the time referred to. (Or, perhaps, they only occur to me now, for I have known travellers to invent in cold blood, long after the object has passed from sight, the vivid impression received on seeing it, and the reflections then suggested.) I had an uncontrollably absurd recollection, as I sauntered through this gallery, of an incident in my American life, likewise concerning pictures, which would relate itself to the present occasion, and intimate the same fantastic idea of haste in regard to the production of these works of art. I was in a print-shop one day, at Cleveland, contemplating with the just interest certain portraits there exhibited, which were severally placarded with announcements that they had been painted in one hour, in half an hour, etc. Perhaps the celerity of the artist was more apparent than his skill, I thought (timidly, for I do not like to criticize the works of art); and I was going away quietly when I saw a young man near me—possibly the young man from Boston "called John"—who was rapt in observation of a lady's portrait, painted extremely *décolleté*, and done, I believe, in twenty minutes. "Hello!" said this vulgar young man at last, "painted *her* so quick he had n't time to put the clothes on her!" There are several portraits in this royal gallery of living beauties (there is a certain frankness in German dissoluteness not always engaging) even less draped than that, and the greater part of the ideal beauties were not associated with clothes at all. The mere nakedness was all that struck you in most of these paintings. There was no sentiment in them to dignify or redeem them—no vivid emotion even of a bad kind. They were perfectly executed, and were coarsely and simply sensual in purpose. Not that one really received any hurt from their contemplation; the antidotal ugliness of the old Suaberin who showed the gallery was such as to render all these lavish charms incredible. But because I had often heard honest people reproached with false modesty for objecting to the nude in art—honest people who had only their instincts and the decent amenities of our American life to guide them—I have since been willing to see how far they were blameworthy, and I have been glad to find that the hardly more than instinctive repugnance with which I regarded these pictures has only been confirmed by acquaintance with nobler art. To this they are as the ballet is to the opera—muscular merely, and soulless. They gave me but a bad opinion of the sort of civilization which produced them, and the appetite—it can hardly be called the taste—which enjoys them. I did not care if our country "guarded its strangeness"

to all art, rather than ever have such art as this; and I trust we may never have the culture necessary for its admiration, nor the bad *naïveté* which sees nothing wrong in it. For my own part I like not over-ripe sausages and far-smelling cheese, nor their principle as developed in morals and æsthetics.

If I say anything to hurt the tender feelings with which any German-American regards his fatherland, I honestly crave his forgiveness. But it did not seem to me that the life in that little German capital was such as one need want to live a great while. If he must do it in that town, I believe one would hardly insist on taking out his full threescore and ten. The American would miss first, and above all things, his sensations. There are no sensations there—no healthful collisions of sentiment, no shock of opinion, no journalism. They have a good opera and a theatre, and the statues and pictures of which I have been speaking. On Sunday the people turn into the garden, as I said, or assemble at the beer-houses, where they have beer and smoke and music and dancing. It was quite a wonderful spectacle, this lusty Teutonic pleasure-making, and it was touching to observe how a very little joke could make a great laugh among these honest folks; and yet I thought, in their place, I should presently be weary of their amusements. It seemed to me here, as elsewhere in Europe, that the people were only children as yet, and that they contented themselves with many things that Americans despise. I do not mean native Americans alone, for I found several of our naturalized citizens here who had returned temporarily, and who were sadly disappointed with their old home after having known the wider, freer, higher life of the New World. They had grown into the manhood of freedom in America, and they could not shrink back again into the childhood of the old European subjection.

In this little capital I believe that objects of interest were not in great number. They had an old church which might have been seen, but I did not go into it. I was a very young traveller, and I had not yet learned that the object of interest is the most transitory of human things—that you must see it at once if you would see it at all. Having this old church before me, I felt that I could go into it at any time, and so—I did n't.

I went and walked quite aimlessly about the city, which was perhaps just as well. The new town (all German cities are now divided by epochs of growth into the new town and old town) was very handsome and uninteresting, with broad avenues and fine houses. In the old town it was much better. All the streets were very narrow and crooked and dirty, and built up with houses that bulged, like respectable middle-aged gentlemen, at the second story, and grew, finally, into the most lawless vagaries of gable-peaked roof and dormer window. The shops seemed to be devoted chiefly to the dissemination of sausage, which numbers of yellow-haired maidens were everywhere buying. Commonly the front doors of the dwellings stood open, and one saw all the domestic life within: little, hideous old women, bent and brown, always contemplating something on the fire in a pot; plump old men sitting at chimney-corners in the society of inseparable pipes; uncomely but productive housewives moving about their household work, and impeded by their own flaxen-haired multiplication—just exactly as in all the pictures and story-books.

Let me be far from mocking at such people, knowing, as I do, the thrifty, busy, honest lives they live at home, and the industrious, honorable race with which they have helped to people America. They are much better than their betters in Germany, I thought, as I wandered through one more palace, not far from the city, built by a late luxurious king, and much decorated with frescoes representing the pleasure he had taken in the chase. His majesty hunted over all those walls, with falcon or horse and hound, and in one place he was depicted in the dull butchery of deer driven into a narrow close, where the king and his nobles gave them "the satisfaction of a gentleman," and shot them down at ten paces. He had other passions besides the chase, this king. His temper was violent, and he was habitually in wine. His palace was adorned with the portraits of many frail and fair, his favorites. Was not his a noble life to lead?—a long career undistinguished by any great event, an existence of idle luxury and debauch, unlimited power used to gratify appetites and whims. "The life of a king," God bless us! I hardly wonder that they raised monuments to his virtues; it is but human to tell amiable lies of the dead. But I wonder that it is possible for such hideous wrongs to perpetuate themselves, and that peoples can only be saved from anarchy by surrender to misrule.

I went from hall to hall in this great palace, and was weary of it, when the custodian came to a window which he threw open. It looked out upon a distant village, where a great poet was born, and now a little strip of sunshine fell athwart the houses there. Then I forgot the kings and their paces, and stood only in the presence of that pure and lofty genius, so far above all royalty and state.

"*Seid umschlungen, Millionen!*"

The great poets are all for you, and they will share their inheritance of the hereafter with you.

But it is a pity that the world cannot be divided again more justly, and none of us have masters any more.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXII.

COLUMBIA, S. C., Dec. 11, 1865.

THE town of Newberry, northwest of Columbia and forty-five miles distant, I have recently visited, rather because it is comparatively easy of access than for any other reason. The journey may be made by way of Hope Station in about twenty-five hours, and in returning, if one chooses to forego sleep, he may go by rail as far as to Alston, and, then taking a hack and riding and walking all night, reach Columbia in fifteen hours after leaving Newberry. The railroads are very slow to recover from Sherman's visitation, and, as yet, none of them enter the city, so that the traveller in whatever direction must at first take passage by one of the many stage-lines to some distant way-station or ruined bridge. Into this service are pressed carriages of every kind—coaches, buggies, carryalls, ambulances—and the teams and equipments are as various as the vehicles. From the price of a ticket at the hour of starting to the delivery of luggage or the price of a lodging at the end of the trip, all the accessories and arrangements of this stage travel are excessively and needlessly bad. But, for the time being, the passenger forgets his discomfort in his danger. The loss of sleep is submitted to, and he is willing to go hungry and thirsty and to creep along in the dark at the rate of two miles an hour when he knows that the driver has no lantern and that only a fortnight before, for lack of a lantern, the coach was upset and three passengers killed in one of the enormous gullies by the roadside.

It was in the middle of a cloudy forenoon that we at last got away from the city and set out for Hope Station. The inside passengers were five in number, and an old negro sat swinging his legs over the edge of the roof. "That cousin thar 's got to be car'd somehow," the driver said, when I asked for a box seat, "and there 's too much load on top a'ready." But at last I so far prevailed on him as to be allowed an outside place on condition of getting down when the road began to be dangerous. By the time we were ferried across Broad River and were fairly on our way the privileged ill-humor of a coachman compelled to make a late start had given place to a better frame of mind, and he was not indisposed to conversation.

"Dog me, now, but this is cussed mean coachin'. A kind of a drat, no-account team, anyhow. That hoss Dutch, he 's a hoss, but the other three a' n't nothin'. Never did believe in puttin' one good hoss with a lot o' poor ones. Git 'em nigh about one thing and let 'em work together. I 've coached in Alabamy and in Massissippi, and I druv a hack in Texas when I 've had to git off and spade the mud out o' the wheels. Every few rod, sometimes, we 'd have to prize out with rails. But, you understand, we had hosses. Look at them leaders, hey? Git up, durn ye! Thar, ye 're like a piny woods pond—all over creation."

"How did you like Texas?"

"First-rate. That 's the country for a poor man, sir. A year from now and I 'll be back thar, too. What do you think o' greenbacks? Good? I mean, will they keep good?"

"Yes, they 'll be good as long as the United States is."

"No; I do n't believe it. Won't be worth a copper in two years. You never see any war-scrip that was. The Yankees 'll call it all in, you see. This 'corn-fed,' as we used to call it, I never had no confidence in it. Some was very confidential, but I war n't. I 'm as big a fool as anybody, but I never had no confidence in that, nor in the Southern government nuther. My old uncle in Greenville told 'em just how 't would come out, and durned if it ha' n't. They wanted to hang him. The first time ever I see our scrip was in Vicksburg, and I told the boys the very first I see: 'Boys,' says I, 'this yer stuff right now it a'n't worth one copper.' And the greenbacks are jest the same. If I thought they 'd come out right I 'd know better how to do. I want to go to Texas, and take up some Government land, but I 've got to have some money. Three years ago I had nine hundred dollars, and now I ha' n't got nothin'. 'Stead o' keepin' it I loaned it out to a fellow; all in silver. He was rentin' a good place down below, and I considered I was safe. But bein' off in the army, only my wife was here, and he jest up and

refugeed. That 's the last I see o' him. He got up into Illinois somewhar' I know whar he is, though, and he 's good, I know, for I 've heerd of him, and I can exactly put my hand on him. But if I was to sue him now I 'd be obleeged to take greenbacks, and I do n't want 'em. I 'll wait a while and see."

He should settle in the north-eastern part of Texas, he said, and raise small grains. Cotton he 'd have nothing to do with, nor niggers, either. What the darkies would do now he be dogged if he knew. Starve, he reckoned. "Mornin', cousin, whar ye bound?" he called out to a negro woman, who dropped us a courtesy as she passed us on her way to the ferry. "Goin' down to Columby after your 'free,' be ye? Well, go on." She was a middle-aged woman, and appeared to be accompanied on her pilgrimage by her family. A little boy was following her, a little girl she led by the hand, and on her back was an infant slung in a shawl. A heavy bundle was balanced on her head. They all seemed weary as they trudged along through the mud, and their clothing was too scanty for the winter weather. Within the space of eight miles, over which we passed while I was outside the coach, I counted thirty-nine of these forlorn-looking people travelling to the city, and the driver said he met many every day.

The way to Hope Station lies through the northern part of Lexington district, and is one of the roads traversed by Sherman in advancing on Columbia. For the whole twenty-nine miles there were never, I think, more than fifteen or sixteen dwellings within sight of the road, and of these eleven still remain. Chimneys and heaps of ashes mark the places of the other four. No negro cabin seems to have been destroyed. On the Alston road, too, which lies in Fairfield and Richland districts, the devastation was far less complete than I had supposed, the proportion of burned houses being about the same.

The country through which we travelled was broken and hilly. The road, at first heavy with sand, soon became steep and filled with a stiff red mud, for the soil changed its character with the surface. The pines were still the predominant trees, but mingled with them, and contrasted with their tall purple stems and evergreen branches, were the several species of oaks with black limbs and withered foliage. For five years no care has been bestowed upon the highways, and driving over them is a trade to be learned. They are full of deep ruts and holes, and fence-rail bridges more dangerous than the sloughs beneath them. Often the wheels were axle-deep in mud, and if both were buried at once we thought ourselves fortunate, for when one alone goes down it is necessary for the passengers, close packed as they are, to throw themselves in a mass towards the opposite window. Mules plastered with mud and cotton wagons broken down were not unfrequent. After three hours I was obliged to go inside. In the course of the day I discovered that my fellow-travellers were a Charleston merchant, a judge, a rich planter, a doctor of divinity, and a wounded man, addressed as captain, in the uniform of the Confederate service. The order relative to Confederate military insignia is not so well carried out here as in North Carolina and Virginia, and the Palmetto button is a common sight. Since leaving Virginia, in my journey through the South, I have almost always been taken for a Southerner, though usually it is supposed that I am a native of some other State than that in which I happen to be, and conversation when I am present is generally quite unreserved. When I am known to be a Northern man, sometimes I am made to feel that my company is not desired, and sometimes there is amicable talk and argument. When I took my place in the coach the doctor was reading a newspaper. "Judge," he said, "here is an ominous erratum. 'Grand chance for Yankee enterprise and *thift*.' The printer has omitted an *r*, and it looks too much like a grand chance for Yankee enterprise and theft. He was thinking of Butler, I suspect, and made the mistake purposely."

By-and-bye the doctor spoke again: "Judge, I see that the writ of habeas corpus is restored except in those States recently in insurrection. Could n't Mr. Davis's friends effect his liberation by means of it? What would be the process?"

"Well, they would apply for a habeas corpus, and it would be the duty of the judge to examine the facts and see if he was committed by virtue of a warrant regularly issued. If not, the writ might be granted."

"But he 's at Fortress Monroe," said the captain. "Yes, Mr. Davis is at Fortress Monroe, and that 's in Virginia."

"Ah, well then—" the doctor said.

"Yes, I think you 'll find," said the judge, "that the Yankee Government has taken special good care to put all its prisoners into a place of safety before it issued that proclamation. But he will never be harmed."

"Oh, no," the captain said; "that would rouse up the South more than anything else that could be done."

"Shock the whole world, sir," the judge told him; "not the South alone, but foreign nations; the whole civilized world."

The doctor continued the perusal of his paper, while the rest discussed the policy of the Government and the probability that it might be better now that the President had delivered his message, which, according to the telegraph, was favorable to the South.

"A great many men are trying to dispose of their land," said the doctor. "I wonder if they find purchasers readily?"

"Well, yes, sir," said the merchant, "I believe some of them do. Many of the Yankees want to try if they can raise cotton. They think they can do better with the negroes than we can. And they will do well, I expect. They 're making money at Port Royal. They hire the negroes and pay them thirty cents a task—what we call a task, you know—and then the Yankee keeps a little store on the plantation and gets the money all back again. They have a great ambition to be cotton planters, sir, and I expect a great deal of our lands will change hands, sir."

"That 's true," said the doctor; "I noticed that at Augusta. They have a great ambition to be called South Carolinians. On the hotel books there they registered themselves from 'Port Royal, South Carolina.' Fellows that perhaps had n't been three weeks in the State."

The conversation throughout the day embraced a great variety of topics. The doctor of divinity had been a professor in some college, and he and the judge talked of literary matters. Hobbes's "Leviathan" was mentioned, and the "Mishna" and "Albertus Magnus." Lord Macaulay he considered a brilliant but inaccurate historian. The judge must be mistaken about Bacon's having written upon English history; it was Hume's work that treated of Henry the Seventh. Charles James Fox, too, had tried historical writing, but his mind was not of the historical order. The planter remarked that Fox was a bit of a blackguard and dissipated; probably made some of his good speeches after stimulating. The judge said Canning used to take a very odd stimulant; never spoke in parliament without drinking a glass of right hot water. The captain agreed with Dr. Johnson that the best stimulant was two or three cups of right strong coffee. Not coffee, the planter said—tea. While he had Bourbon he had no use for tea or coffee. He suspected Canning put a little French brandy into his hot water. It was two years since he had drank a dish of tea. His supply gave out in '63, and he never cared to renew it, and he bought no coffee either. He did well not to renew it, the doctor thought; he paid over two hundred dollars for his last lot of tea. The judge had now fifty thousand dollars in Confederate money. He heartily wished it had been invested in good green tea. The planter was an old man, who smoked all day and told innumerable stories of his old acquaintances, their marriages, their family plate, their drinking bouts, their horses and hunting, their duels, and other adventures at home and abroad, and his reminiscences called forth similar stories from the judge, so that it was late in the afternoon before the merchant and the captain fell asleep, and the rest of the party gave themselves up to expectation of the end of the journey. It was accomplished just after six o'clock, in safety and not unpleasantly. All the travellers seemed disposed to make themselves mutually agreeable. The judge insisted that the planter should not give up his pipe nor the doctor his cigar, for, as he said, he was a great tobacco-chewer himself. The minister was not disturbed at the planter's swearing, and the merchant and captain furnished a lunch for all who would partake.

The house where we stayed at night was that of a farmer living convenient to the station. To every two guests he gave one bed, in which they got what sleep was possible. The house was full of travellers, and some of them chose to sit up till two o'clock, the hour at which the return coach started for Columbia. For an hour after midnight I listened to a discussion of the question whether or not the sun travelled over the earth faster in high latitudes than in low. This was left unconcluded; but it was decided that a fire burns better in the night than in the day, and that sunshine on a fire tends to put it out. Passengers for Newberry were called down stairs at five o'clock, and one after another we washed our faces in a tin basin which was in the porch, and, having been hastily packed in the dark into a coach, were slowly driven down to the railroad. It was dark and cold, and the train was not due for three-quarters of an hour, so wood was collected and a great fire made on the ground, round which we sat till sunrise. The talk was about stage-horses and staging.

It was n't all profit, the landlord said. All the Government transportation he had to do for little or nothing—soldiers and parties that the Yankees wanted in these nigger cases.

"I would n't do it, Mr. H.," said the doctor; "refuse."

"Yes, but here 's the thing, doctor. I had a couple of carriages all ready for some gentlemen that had spoken to me several days before. They were all in the house ready going to start that night. Last week it was. But

just that evening down came a Yankee lieutenant with three soldiers—two Yankee soldiers and one o' ours—all wounded they was, and told me they must go down. I told him how it was; I could n't take 'em; there was the parties in the house all ready; but he just took possession of the baggage-wagon, and they had to go sho' enough. Now, what can you do under these circumstances?"

"That 's it," said the captain. "Oh, we 'll never get even with these fellows, Mr. H., till we get a chance to provo' it over them."

"Tell you what, that 'll be a long time, first, though."

The doctor made enquiries about the boats plying on Broad River. He had some freedmen up in Greenville—not his, but some that were moved up during the war; they had belonged to a gentleman in Barnwell, and he had undertaken to get them moved back. The men could walk, but to move the women and children and their things three wagons would be necessary. Five wagons, they estimated; but he thought twenty could go in a wagon. But the wagoners wanted six and eight dollars a day, and the people could hardly afford that. From Columbia the Government would transport them; but to get them to Columbia was the point. If the boats were cheaper, that would be the way to do it.

He was asked if they had a prospect of getting work and homes in Barnwell. They could get work, he supposed. They wanted to go back there.

The train arrived a little after its time, and in something more than two hours we accomplished the sixteen miles to Newberry. It is a muddy, shabby little village, built irregularly on very uneven ground, and seemed to be full of business. It is the centre of a productive cotton region, and has besides sent to market within the last five months a great number of bales accumulated there during the war. For wagoning cotton out of the district it is estimated that $300,000 in gold have been paid since Johnston's surrender. Trade, therefore, is active in the village stores, the square is seldom empty of country wagons, and the farmers purchase largely of the supplies from which they were cut off by the war.

The garrison commander is also the agent of the Freedmen's Bureau, but having occupied his position only a few days he could give me little information. During the hour that I was there his office was a very busy place. The most important cases were one in which a negro complained that he had done some bricklaying for a certain man, and had been paid twenty dollars in worthless money; another, in which a negro was charged with stealing four bales of cotton from the depot; and one in which a white woman, escorted by one of her neighbors, demanded that the negroes on a plantation near her house should be deprived of firearms: they did n't care where they shot. An investigation of the circumstances was promised her. The alleged thief was put in charge of a little German soldier and marched away to jail. The bricklayer declined emphatically to carry a letter from the lieutenant to the person who had defrauded him; he valued his life too highly; so the summons was entrusted to a soldier, to be given whenever the man should come to the village.

The lieutenant said he had superintended the division of the crop on several plantations, but as yet knew of no agreements having been made for the coming year. The Newberry newspaper, I noticed, urged the need of a district convention of planters, and offered for the consideration of its readers one of those proposed forms of contract between farmer and freedman that now begin to be printed in most of the South Carolina papers.

Alston, the most easterly point to which trains are running on the Greenville Railroad, is several miles nearer Columbia than Hope Station, and I returned by that route. Leaving Alston, after eating what was pronounced "a right genteel supper," we rode all night, and made the trip to the city in twelve hours. The vehicle was a carryall drawn by two mules, and the company consisted of four passengers and the driver. Whenever we came to a long hill we got out and walked. At one particularly bad stretch of road we halted for half an hour, and at last succeeded in making a sputtering fire with wet rails. Then, each taking a couple of brands to light the way and waving them into a blaze when they went out, we picked our steps for a quarter of a mile along the edge of a miry pool, while the carriage was dragged through the middle of it. All my fellow-travellers were young men and had been Confederate soldiers, and the night was chiefly spent in talking about their campaigns and generals and companions in arms. In the midst of a story about old Jubal, who "certainly could just exactly swear," and who, if he believed there was a Providence, could never have expected to win a fight, the driver suddenly interrupted the narrator by stopping the mules and asking us in a low tone if we were armed. It happened that there was not a weapon in the carriage. "That 's bad," he said; "however, gentlemen, never mind; when I begin to talk about my pistols you must all say something similar. We 're coming to a pretty bad place here. On the next plantation the niggers are a very unruly set, and some of them have guns. We must look sharp." One of our company had several thousand dollars about his person, and, having a very bad opinion of free negroes, he evinced a good deal of anxiety and trepidation. It was to him, therefore, that we left the duty of responding to the driver. Soon the conversation between them began, the driver directing his voice towards the right-hand side of the road and the passenger towards the left.

"Yes, it 's the prettiest rifle powder you ever saw. I would n't take any money for it if I could n't get any more."

"I prefer the cartridges; they 're so much handier. A cartridge is always sitting up."

"Oh, well, I always can have twelve shots, you know, and there are always pistols in the coach."

"A man would be a fool to travel these times without his pistols."

"Should n't think of it."

"I say, driver, I would like very much to see any six men attack this coach to-night."

"Well, now, they would have a very sorry time of it, sir. But there 's no trouble of that kind on this road."

By-and-bye we were informed that the danger was past, and then for awhile the negro was the theme of discourse. My three companions and the driver represented four districts, and each reported it as an undoubted fact that the freedmen were forming themselves into companies and holding meetings at night for the purpose of drill. I enquired if many of them had arms, and was told that every nigger had a gun. The niggers round the driver's house could n't get ahead of him, for he had two that told him everything. Of General Ely, Acting Assistant Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau, who has charge of fifteen districts in Northern South Carolina, I made enquiries in reference to this matter. His attention, he says, has frequently been called to it. In one instance the assertions were so positive and seemed so well supported that he rode out himself to the plantation in order to make an investigation on the spot. Having been posted where he could see and not be seen, he was an eye-witness of the whole parade. Negroes to the number of thirty or forty men, women, and children had gathered themselves together near their cabins and were drawn up in line. Some shouldered sticks, some had gun-stocks, some gun-barrels, some guns, and some were empty-handed. They marched and counter-marched and halted, and marched again in straight lines and curves for nearly half an hour, their evolutions being interspersed with dancing and rough play, and accompanied by much laughter and noise. When he had witnessed these manœuvres for some time, the general went out and had an interview with the people. They said they were only having a frolic imitating the soldiers. None of the firearms were serviceable. In several other instances he had made an examination of the facts and had found them similar to these. Stories about negroes drilling are not worthy of serious consideration.

As we drove along, the driver pointed out a little hill which he said was the prettiest situation for a house in all Fairfield. In 1861 he had intended to build there, and had engaged the carpenter. "But the war came and broke me up, and then the Yankees done me so bad that when I came back from the army I had n't a bushel of corn nor a dime in the world. Yes, sir, the woods were just blue with them devils, my wife told me. One regiment from Pennsylvania, Col. J.'s regiment, camped on my place, and the old colonel made my house the headquarters. My wife thought the house would be burnt before he came. They took everything, even down to my little girl's doll-clothes; and they did n't leave the child a rag but what she had on her back. They took eleven mules and horses, and killed all the poultry and hogs. Just took everything. My wife begged they 'd leave her some fodder, but they told her she would n't have no use for it; and sure enough they carried off the animals. She told 'em that little corn would n't keep her and her family. 'Yes, I reckon—' no, 'Yes, I raythe guess it will,' the Yankee colonel told her. That G—d-d—d trifling old, cowardly—excuse such language, gentlemen; but it makes my blood boil to think of him. Oh, if I can ever come across that —, if I do n't shoot him! Yes, sir, I 'm going to seek a personal difficulty with that man. And, if you 'll believe me, he wanted to take my little girl to raise. He 'd educate her and bring her up, he said. Why, I 'd send her among the heathens first."

"No," said one of the passengers, "we do n't wish to affiliate with them I suppose it would be more Christian to forgive them, and to let all vindictiveness die out, but we never can forget how they have treated us."

"Well," said another gentleman, "I 'd like to make a New Year's call on old Sherman, and blow his brains out."

Not long after this conversation occurred, we turned from the main road and pursued our way through a large plantation. It was necessary for some one to take an outside place with the driver, for there were four field

gates to be opened, and I undertook the performance of that duty. Talking with him, as we sat together, he by-and-bye enquired where I lived, and so discovered that I was a Northerner. "Well, now," he said, "a great many of your people are perfect gentlemen. It was n't the real Yankees that did so much mischief in this country; it was them low-down foreigners and Irish. You know there 's mean men in all armies."

ENGLAND.

LONDON, Dec. 16, 1865.

OUR Government has acted with more promptitude in the Jamaica business than I was disposed to hope. Not only is Sir Henry Storcks sent out, by Monday's mail, as head of the Commission of Enquiry, but he is also to replace Eyre as Governor. Of course, the apologists of the present Governor try very hard to persuade the public that this measure is simply temporary, and that their hero is not prejudged. But, in reality, the blow is felt to be a very heavy one. Instead of receiving the thanks of a grateful country for having, in the words of his admirers, "saved Jamaica to the empire," the Governor finds himself deposed and ordered to remain in the island to furnish evidence to a commission appointed to enquire into his conduct. Personally, I own, I am hardly satisfied with this; there are cases, in my opinion, in which Jedburgh justice is really the most righteous; and I should have wished the Governor recalled to take his trial in England for the wholesale massacres he has ordered, or, at any rate, permitted. But such a course would not have been consonant to English feeling. Since the announcement of the intentions of the Government, the public meetings, summoned to meet in almost every town of England, have been adjourned, and the party which insisted on enquiry considers, and I think justly, that it has carried the day. In one respect I am glad of this cessation of the popular cry for justice. The rump of the old anti-slavery party had thrust themselves forward as leaders of the agitation, and had, as usual, done everything to render it absurd. This week London has been covered with placards with sensation headings, and announcing, amongst other startling facts, that in Jamaica there were "eight miles of dead bodies!" Such exaggeration as this simply helped the cause of those who sought to hush up the matter, and did more harm than all the anti-negro leaders of the *Times*.

I have reason to believe the resolution of the Government to displace Eyre was arrived at before the final outburst of indignation. Had it not, there would be very little credit to be ascribed to the Ministry. Very little political experience was required to perceive the symptoms of one of those political storms which no government in this country can ever resist. For once the religious world was united; and when united it is absolutely irresistible. The only joke I ever heard attributed to Lord Shaftesbury was not a good one, but conveyed a profound truth. It was at the time when Lord Llanover, then Sir Benjamin Hall, had induced the government of the day to allow the military bands to play in the parks on Sunday. Right or wrong, the Sabbatarian feeling of the country was outraged, and indignation meetings were summoned far and near. On this occasion somebody asked Lord Shaftesbury whether the Government would persist in its resolution. "No," he answered; "Exeter Hall is stronger than Ben Hall." So it has proved always, and, on the whole, it is good for England it should so prove. All the clubs in London, and all the newspaper writers, and all the governing classes, are powerless on those rare occasions when, as at the present time, the great Dissenting communities and the Evangelical party in the Church are decided upon action.

Of Sir Henry Storcks very little is known to the general public; but he has a considerable reputation amongst what I may call the administrative world. He has held a variety of subordinate Government appointments; the most important being the governorship of the Ionian Islands, after the embarrassments caused by Mr. Gladstone's ill-advised negotiations with the Phil-Hellene party in the Septinsular commonwealth. He is supposed to be a martinet, certainly not a man of very tender sympathies; but as long as he is just and fearless, as he is believed to be, the country has no cause to grumble at his appointment.

In politics there is very little stirring. The only noteworthy feature of the last few days has been Mr. Bright's speech in Birmingham, in which he went out of his way to express his confidence in the Ministry and to prophesy the success of reform. In the whole course of his life the great Radical orator never made a more brilliant speech than the one in question. The despondent tone which of late years has characterized his utterances was laid aside, and he spoke like a man who knew he was advocating a winning cause. And what is, perhaps, more significant, he alluded distinctly to the possibility of his some day being called to office. How far this confidence is justified, I cannot altogether tell. I know that during Lord Palmerston's lifetime Mr. Bright attached what I considered an exaggerated importance to his personal antagonism to reform; and I fancy that now he exaggerates the advantage to the cause of reform resulting from the fact of Lord Palmerston's removal from the stage of public life. My own opinion always has been that Palmerston was omnipotent not to any great extent from his personal qualities, but because he really represented the dislike of the governing classes to change. No doubt the party averse to interference with the established order of things has lost, in him, a most valuable supporter; but I am not sure at all that the ruling classes have become more enamored of liberalism, or the enfranchised classes more ardent in their desire for the suffrage, than they were during the days of the Palmerstonian Parliament. The Christmas holidays are now at hand, during which nobody has time for politics, and the interval between the New Year and the opening of Parliament is too short an one for any effective popular agitation to be set on foot. So we may, I think, safely reckon that the ministerial reform bill will be presented to Parliament unsupported by any strong outward excitement.

As a rule, the end of the year is a very active time in all literary and theatrical matters, but this year there is singularly little stirring. A new magazine has appeared, called the *Argosy*, of which Miss Isa Craig, the poetess, is editor, and wherein Mr. Charles Reade commences a new novel. It is the first experiment of a sixpenny illustrated magazine, and it is hard to see how there can be any margin of profit at such a price. Messrs. Moxon, the publishers, are said to be about to bring out a high-class magazine. In truth, if the present system goes on, it will soon be hard to find any large publishing firm without a magazine of their own. With the immense development of circulating libraries, and the extraordinary demand for novels at the present time, the publishing trade is, I suspect, changing its character. Nothing is so profitable to publish as a novel. Good or bad, it is run through the libraries as a certain sale; and if good or successful, it will run through edition after edition and fill the publisher's pockets. Moreover, experience has shown that the publication of a novel as a serial story in a magazine hardly, if at all, injures its sale as a complete work. The consequence is that publishers are anxious to realize the double profit, and start magazines for the purpose of bringing out the novels they have bought. Altogether this is a golden age for English novel-writers. Great as the supply of fiction is, the demand for it is still greater, and seems likely to increase. A thousand pounds is by no means an exorbitant price now-a-days for a novel from an author of any note; and far higher prices are frequently given. Miss Evans, for instance, is reported to have received £8,000 for "Romola," and possibly did receive at least half the amount. This popular passion for novels is leading to one odd alteration in our social literature. Signatures to magazine articles are already becoming more common. The competition between different magazines is so great that each wishes to attract the public by the names of its writers as well as by the matter written. The advertisement of a novel by a popular writer will send up the sale of a magazine at once; and, when the rule of anonymous writing is broken through in one instance, it is almost impossible to maintain it at all. Whether the change will prove altogether beneficial to literature I am not certain; but there is no doubt of its improving the prospects of the writers.

At the theatres the only Christmas novelty is the comparative decay of pantomimes and burlesques. For many years there has not been a Christmas when so few new pieces were announced as about to be brought out. At the Adelphi, Mr. Jefferson is still playing "Rip Van Winkle" with wonderful success. All the best judges agree that his impersonation is one of the finest pieces of acting we have seen for a great length of time in London. Whether, like Mr. Sothern, he is essentially a one-part actor, remains to be seen. Miss Bateman, after a fairly, though not brilliantly, successful provincial tour, appears in London next week for one farewell performance, and, I suppose, will not come back till "Leah" is forgotten and can be reproduced as a novelty. In any other character she has failed lamentably. Miss Adah Isaacs Menken's second season in London was a complete *fiasco;* and, after the "Child of the Sun" had been played for a short time, it had to be withdrawn for "Mazeppa," but without success. The "fair equestrienne," as the play-bills call her, is said to have gone to Paris to see whether the Parisians are as susceptible as Londoners and New Yorkers to the spectacle of a woman riding a horse without the usual conventional appendages of dress. Mr. Fechter, whose career has been one series of failures since he became sole manager and sole actor at his own theatre, is going to make another trial to secure the popularity he won so rapidly and lost so easily. He comes out at Christmas as Edgar Ravenswood, in the newly dramatized version of the "Bride of Lammermoor."

So much for the theatres, which have all been filled to overflowing this

week, owing to the cattle show which has been held at Islington. The papers are filled with doleful accounts of the cattle plague, but I never saw so many farmers in London as there have been this year, and the show itself is above the average.

THE UNSETTLED STATE OF EUROPE.

BELGIUM.

PARIS, Dec. 15, 1865.

I FULLY intended to add a letter concerning the state of Belgium to my recent ones on the general state of European affairs; but I did not expect that the death of King Leopold would give so much significance to the observations I was about to present to you on that little kingdom—small, indeed, by its size, but so important by its geographical position; by its ties with France on one side, and with Germany on the other; but, above all, by the nature of its political institutions. Belgium, since the revolution of 1851, which brought a Bonaparte to the French Empire, has remained an oasis of freedom between despotic and military governments; and no one can remain indifferent to the destinies of a nation which, since 1830, has proved capable of preserving its free institutions. The task was easy enough as long as Louis Philippe was on the throne of France; he had refused the crown of Belgium for his second son, the Duke de Nemours, in order not to alarm the jealousies of Europe; but the king chosen in place of the Duke de Nemours married one of his most accomplished daughters, the Princess Louise, whose memory is cherished in every Belgian heart. During the eighteen years of constitutional government which followed in France, Belgium remained, as it were, a satellite of its powerful neighbor; its liberties were the liberties which the French people then enjoyed; its constitution a copy of the French constitution; its parliament an obscure echo of that great parliament where sounded the voices of Guizot, Thiers, Barrot, De Tocqueville, and so many others now, alas! almost forgotten. After the convulsions of the revolution of 1848 and the usurpation of a new Bonaparte, Belgium found itself isolated, and imperilled by its isolation. It was only saved by the necessity under which Napoleon III. found himself placed of winning the alliance of England. The Crimean war gave a new lease of life to the little kingdom—the character of the king, not unjustly called the Nestor of European monarchs, was also a powerful obstacle to all schemes of French annexation.

I will not here attempt to describe this sovereign, who has succeeded in preserving his crown among so many perils. His political wisdom was great, but it was more founded on scepticism than on principle; his obedience to the will of the majorities ensured his power, but it was inspired by indifference and almost by contempt for the passions of those who surrounded him. A stranger among his people, imbued with all the prejudices of 1815, an English prince and a German prince at the same time, he preserved parliamentary institutions in his country while he despised parliamentary life; he cared more for England and for Germany than for the little country which had given him a crown; he was the voluntary and active servant of the treaties of 1815, and he owed his own aggrandizement to a violation of these treaties. He had no ambition, in a certain sense, and never tried to strengthen his prerogative. He had, at the same time, all the ambitions of a prince. He was proud of the importance he had acquired among the kings and emperors of Europe, and anxious to leave crowns to his children. It is not generally known that he took a great part in the preparations of the Mexican war, simply because his daughter was married to the Archduke Maximilian. He constantly remained one of the supporters of this unpopular enterprise. The Belgians knew him well; they knew that he looked upon them with the coldness of an astute and old diplomat; they knew that his mind was more often at Windsor or Coburg than at Brussels; they knew that, in the solitary palace of Lacken, surrounded by the walls of the most punctilious etiquette, he spent his hours in schemes which went far beyond the limit of their interests or their territory. But if they had but a cold sympathy for the man, they liked and respected the king who was the faithful guardian of their liberties and the impersonification of their nation. No sovereign in our times will have such a funeral as that which Brussels will witness to-morrow. The Belgians feel that they must stand around the memory of their first sovereign, if they wish to preserve their own independence. Already rumors are heard of French annexation; these rumors have excited great indignation in Belgium, and the enthusiasm which the people manifest at the present hour is mixed with feelings of fear and distrust. I do not think myself that the present ruler of France has any idea of annexing Belgium, to rob this small kingdom as a thief robs a traveller on the high road; he must wait. He will wait for the first blunders of the new King Leopold II., a young prince educated in aristocratic ideas, unpopular, in ill health, ill prepared for his new duties; he will wait till the actual fervor of enthusiasm is calmed; he will wait till the temptations offered to the Belgian army will have corrupted a part of it. This army, condemned to neutrality and to peace, is a source of weakness rather than strength to Belgium. If it should be merged in the French army, every officer would dream of great victories, of glorious expeditions—every soldier would feel in his knapsack that *baton de maréchal* which is said to be hidden in every French soldier's knapsack. He will wait, also, for the chances of the struggle of the two Belgian parties, the Catholics and the Liberals. Till now, the King has skilfully kept the political balance in perpetual motion, but if the royal prerogative is thrown altogether on one side, the other party may feel tempted to destroy the government. He must wait, also, till the working classes of Belgium feel interested in the suppression of all duties between the industrial districts of the little kingdom and the great consuming provinces of France.

Such are the elements upon which the ambition of the French Emperor can work, with the help of time and circumstances. For the present, he will do no more than to put them in action; he may, however, find himself obliged to act with decision, if his exterior policy and the general circumstances of Europe altered the present situation of France. Suppose, for example, that his policy should suffer a decided check in Mexico, that his army should be obliged to evacuate that territory after some reverses, he could not long remain under a sense of humiliation, and he would at once throw France into a great war and take Belgium as his first spoils. Suppose, also, that the policy of Bismarck should be triumphant—that Prussia should increase her territory and annex the greater part of Germany—France would probably be tempted to follow that example. The great danger of Europe lies in the fact that all suppositions are possible; the most foolish dream may be realized to-morrow, and the opinion of the wisest statesmen may be baffled. For there is no more any law of nations; the law of the strongest is the only law now recognized. Treaties are considered worthless the day after they have been signed. The cynical ambition and selfishness of the Second Empire has corrupted everything, nationalities as well as sovereigns. The only god now recognized is chance—a god which no honest heart ought to worship, for it helps the meanest as well as the noblest designs, and adds its irony to the bitterness of defeat. Montaigne speaks somewhere of the "âpre plaisir de braver dans son coin plus fort que soi." This pleasure even is refused, for we can despise, but we cannot brave, our tyrants. Belgium, in her little corner, can neither brave nor despise the man who, at two hours' notice, and without consulting any counsellors, can invade her whole territory and submit her to that intelligent, perfect, and crushing tyranny which has almost destroyed the intellectual and moral life of France.

Correspondence.

LOUISIANA LOYALTY.

BOSTON, Dec. 30, 1865.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I send you two more letters from our correspondent, in the hope that you will find them of sufficient importance to publish, in addition to those which I have already furnished you from time to time. E. A.

ALEXANDRIA, Louisiana, Dec. 6, 1865.

DEAR SIR: I propose, in this letter, to give you the result of my observations, and consequent impressions, regarding the opportunities and inducements for Northern men to engage in the culture of cotton. There is no lack of plantations in fair order, with fences up, quarters in good repair, gins, cotton-seed, fodder for mules, and, in many instances, abundant stock and agricultural implements, which can be had either by lease or purchase. Prices vary of course, very much depending upon the condition the place is in, its general locality, and proximity to market. Thus, the best places, those which are above overflow, and immediately upon the Mississippi or its tributaries, are held now at from sixty to one hundred dollars per acre, to sell; and for ten to fifteen dollars per acre, to lease. Back in the interior, however, places can be purchased for twenty-five, fifteen, or even ten dollars, when situated at some distance from a market, and where supplies are obtained with greater difficulty. The Northern man who engages in planting next season will have certain advantages of considerable importance over the Southerners, in the fact that the freedmen place far more confidence in the former; they will, almost without exception, trust a Northern man until he proves himself unworthy of the faith they place in him; their confidence once obtained is easily kept, and they will choose, everything else being equal, to work for and with the Northern man. Again, a very great advantage, so long as the military remain, is the fact that provost-marshals, their assistants and subordinates, will assist and protect a Northern man. This, however, will but prove a serious *dis*advantage if the soldiers are withdrawn. Against these advantages are to be set off the general and almost unanimous hostility of the natives. At present this is to a certain extent

suppressed and even disavowed, but it is none the less apparent to the most superficial observer that the Southerners, notwithstanding their professions, are, as a class, *exceedingly* hostile to "Yankees" intending to raise cotton, and Northern men must be prepared to expect obstructions of any kind that a jealous and envious malignity can suggest to be opposed to their success in planting. This opposition, however, can be overcome by perseverance and courage as long as the United States troops remain. The Northern man, however, will labor under a decided disadvantage in lacking experience in the raising of cotton, which, like everything else, requires years of practice to be perfectly understood. Those persons, therefore, who imagine that there is not much to be learned, and that they can master all difficulties in a single season, are very apt to find themselves mistaken, and in this matter of experience the Southerners possess an immense advantage. My own opinion is, that although considerable cotton will be raised next year, say a million bales (I do n't think it can exceed it), yet at least nine-tenths, and probably ninety-five per cent., will be raised under the supervision of Southerners. Many Southern men will make large fortunes next year without doubt. All those planters who were kind masters under the old system, and possess sufficient sagacity to take advantage of the surrounding circumstances, and by adapting themselves to the new order of things, and giving *their own personal* attention to the labor and welfare of their former slaves, manifest their hearty and willing approval, and honest and sincere adoption, of the new labor system now being inaugurated, have the greatest opportunity ever offered to mankind, I firmly believe, to enrich themselves beyond what they could ever have expected under the old system. There are many such men, and their number is being increased daily. The grand objection is the lack of adequate labor. There is an abundance of capital, but, at the outside, I calculate that not more than twenty-five per cent. of the negro labor available for cotton planting before the war can be got to work next season in the field. As a general thing the women will refuse to work in the field, which deprives the South of nearly half the labor it formerly possessed. Then among the young men (colored) so many have been killed, entered the army, and been drawn off into other fields of labor, that, as I said before, I cannot bring myself to believe, taking into consideration the desultory way in which the freedmen will labor under the new system, that more than twenty-five per cent. of the work done in the cotton-fields in 1860 will be accomplished in 1866. I have not alluded to the danger of a negro insurrection, which some people believe to be possible, because I am satisfied that there is no possibility of anything like an extended and organized plot among them. If they intended "to rise," they would be up to-day, so great are the injuries inflicted upon them in one or another manner.

Very respectfully yours,

A. W. K.

RED RIVER, near Alexandria, Dec. 1, 1865.

DEAR SIR: As an evidence of the state of feeling on the part of the people of the South towards Northerners, I desire to make known to you a circumstance which occurred in the city of New Orleans only last week. An officer of the United States Army went to the last new hotel opened in New Orleans—the St. James. Having occasion shortly after he had gone to his room to require the services of a waiter, he rang his bell; no one answering, he rang again and again, until, finding he could obtain no response, he went down and enquired the reason, when he was informed that the waiters had received orders from the steward not to wait upon Northern men or officers of the United States service. He demanded to see the steward, and asked if he had been correctly informed, and the steward replied that he *had* given such orders in obedience to instructions from the proprietors. He at once reported the case at headquarters, and a summons was issued for the proprietors of the St. James to explain their conduct. They did not *attempt* to conceal or deny the fact, but stated plainly and openly that they kept the hotel for *Southerners*, and did not desire or intend, if they could prevent it, to have any Northern men at the hotel. As might have been expected, and as the proprietors of the St. James undoubtedly expected, the St. James has become, in consequence of this event, the popular and fashionable hotel. It was certainly an admirable idea to obtain custom, but I mention it to show the public sentiment that will not only sustain, but defend and justify, such conduct. This is a *fact*, and is in every one's mouth. Mr. —— told me he had the particulars directly from one of the staff officers in New Orleans. The social ostracism which exists on the part of the people toward men from the North or officers of the army or navy, is perfectly well known, and a matter of frequent boast among the natives. Not a day passes but some Northern gentleman is grossly insulted; at all public meetings, places of amusement, etc., etc., they are sure to be marked as "Yankees," a term of opprobrium not to be equalled in the Southern vocabulary. In railway cars, on the steamers, everywhere, they are made to feel the hatred and detestation in which they are held. I rejoice heartily at the prospect of getting out of their miserable country, as I feel assured I could not remain here six months longer without being killed or killing some one myself; and as I do not desire either to have any one's blood upon my hands or to die down here, I am very glad to be able to get away.

I only repeat the language of nearly every United States officer with whom I have conversed, when I say that if ever the officers who have been stationed down South since the surrender (so called) have to do the work over again, they will go to work with a hearty good-will, and there will be none of the "rose-water policy" that formerly prevailed. They make us feel at every step that they are our bitter, relentless enemies, and most of the United States officers "accept the situation." The feeling of indignation among officers and men down here is very great and quite unanimous. Notwithstanding our army conducts itself with the utmost propriety, I sincerely believe that there is less of the Union sentiment among the leaders of society in New Orleans, Memphis, and in fact all their principal towns and cities, than when the war broke out. As for the country, Governor Brownlow's letter speaking of Tennessee will do as well for Mississippi or Alabama. I feel in as much danger as at any time during the war. Every one goes armed, even the brakemen on the railways wear revolvers. There is a smoldering volcano down here that needs a deluge of cold water before it will be safe to build upon. So far as the concession of negro suffrage from the people of the South is to be expected, there is quite as much chance of Massachusetts adopting slavery as a permanent institution. If these States are not held as conquered territory, they cannot be held beyond the next Presidential election, except the North be willing to receive them back again in the same character (omitting slavery alone) as they assumed before the war; that is, admitting the arrogant assumption of Southern superiority.

Very respectfully, A. W. K.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

MESSRS. MOXON'S elegant little series of "Miniature Poets" has met with great success in England. To this, perhaps, the attractive style of their typography and embellishment has much contributed. The feeling against selected portions of an author's works is very strong among book-buyers here. Probably in England, where the high copyright price of modern books generally limits their circulation among the masses, it has less weight; and any part of the writings of men like Tennyson, Browning, Wordsworth, and others is regarded as a boon, when offered at a moderate price, by those who have little chance of ever becoming possessed of the whole. The above-mentioned poets are included in the volumes already published. Browning's volume is accompanied by a fine portrait, showing a strongly marked and very characteristic head, though to a casual observer there are few signs of the poet visible in the sturdy and resolute countenance. The selections from Wordsworth are made with great taste and feeling by Mr. Palgrave (editor of "The Golden Treasury," etc.), who has prepared a memoir, sanctioned by the family of the poet. The next volume will comprise "Selections from the Poetical Works of Thomas Hood," edited by Mr. Samuel Lucas. Each work is issued in shilling numbers in the hope of reaching the less elevated classes, and in a handsome miniature quarto volume for five shillings.

—It is impossible to resist a smile at the advertisement of an auction sale for the 16th of this month in the London literary journals. It might appropriately be headed, "Disposal of the stock-in-trade of a would-be Diplomat no longer of any use to the owner," as it comprises "the important Documentary and other State Papers, the property of the Hon. J. Slidell, minister of the Confederate States, etc., etc., including United States Public Documents and State Papers (a most valuable series of public documents), 310 volumes, 1853–9; American Archives, 9 vols. folio, 1837–53; American State Papers (rarely to be met with in Europe), 21 vols., 1833–4; 'United States Statutes at Large,' edited by Peters and Minot, 11 vols.; 'The United States Debates in Congress' (the American 'Hansard'), 126 volumes; 'Jefferson's Works,' 9 vols.; 'President Adams's Works,' 10 vols., etc., etc." The selection of this valuable diplomatic outfit does credit to Mr. Slidell's taste. How much of it was honestly come by is another question; most probably Uncle Sam's money paid for the greater part of it.

—The new edition recently issued by Messrs. Routledge of "Men of the Time: A Biographical Dictionary of Eminent Living Characters," is the most successful attempt we have seen in England to furnish a record of contemporaries distinguished in the various ways that bring men's names before the public and excite curiosity respecting them, which it is the main object of a work like the present to gratify. Though not comparing in bulk or number of names commemorated with the great French work of a similar character by Vapereau, the list is extensive, and comprises in its eight hundred and fifty pages accounts of nearly three thousand English, Continental, and American celebrities—the latter treated with a precision and correctness unusual in English publications. Omissions of names in every department may, of course, be detected, as perfection is impossible. The sketches are well condensed, chiefly confined to facts, omitting unnecessary expressions of opinion, and consequently leave little room for criticism. As a specimen of the kind and manner of the information conveyed, we extract the notice of a gentleman who deserves well of Americans:

"Vernon Harcourt, William George, second son of the Rev. W. Vernon Harcourt, and grandson of the late Archbishop of York, was born in 1827. He was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, of which he was a scholar, and where he graduated in high honors in 1851. He was called to the bar at the Inner Temple in 1854, and goes the Home Circuit. He is a rising member of the parliamentary bar, and in December, 1863, he conducted the defence of Colonel Crawley when tried before a court-martial at Aldershott. He is known as one of the original contributors to the *Saturday Review* and as the author of various political pamphlets, and he is the writer of

'Letters on International Law' in the *Times*, published under the pseudonym of 'Historicus.' He married a daughter of the late Rt. Hon. Sir Geo. Cornwall and Lady Theresa Lewis."

—An examination of the one hundred and odd illustrated specimen-pages of the Christmas number of the London "Publishers' Circular" enables one to speak, almost as certainly as the books themselves could do, of the general aims and attractions of the embellished books produced for the usual purposes of the season. A few general remarks are suggested by them. The materials employed are exclusively wood engraving, photography, and color printing from stone or wood blocks, line engraving for all such purposes being practically dead. Never before in England has such varied talent been employed on designs for wood engravings. From the Royal Academician, Millais, downward, the best artists avail themselves of this medium without any of the sense of degradation that would have formerly been attached to the profession of a book illustrator. Every day, indeed, brings forward the names of new draughtsmen of merit who find an ample field for employment in the numerous illustrated works circulated through the country by myriads in penny numbers. While the drawing has improved, wood engraving is stationary, if not retrograde. A hard, scratchy style of affected realism, the corruption of Pre-Raphaelitism, has succeeded to the unmeaning prettinesses that adorned books a few years since, that will, if persisted in, soon grow disgusting to the public taste. As a few large establishments almost monopolize the business of wood engraving, there is too great a sameness of style and manner visible in the products. One concern alone, that of Messrs. Dalziel Brothers, executes more than two thousand of the cuts made use of in the illustrated books of the present season. In literature the old standards maintain to the fullest extent their accustomed supremacy. The "Pilgrim's Progress," "Don Quixote," "Robinson Crusoe," the "Arabian Nights," etc., "hold undisturbed their ancient reign," and the most eager rivalry of publishers is engaged in bringing out competing editions of them. Next to these, volumes of poetical selections are most in demand, and, for the young, books of natural history, adventure, travel, etc., in tropical and far-off countries. There is a comparative smallness about all English undertakings of this kind. The concentration of capital and energy that gives birth in France to the extensive and costly editions illustrated by Gustave Doré, and other similar books, seems entirely wanting in Britain, and a number of ephemeral works fritter away the means and talent that would, if united for the production of one grand object, produce something that might descend to coming ages.

—To the former varieties of European tourists in the United States is now added the graphic or artistic traveller, by the publication of "Transatlantic Sketches, or Sixty Days in America," a slim quarto, just brought out in London, containing thirty etchings of scenery, social life, and the closing incidents of the rebellion. They are connected together by a thin thread of journalism of no literary pretensions. The drawings show some talent, but the subjects are not selected with sufficient artistic skill to make them generally interesting. Two of them, representing the circumstances of the assassination of President Lincoln, have been deservedly censured by the London press. To judge from No. 7, "A New York Ferry-boat," their accuracy might be considered questionable, as the drawing entirely omits the paddle-boxes, paddles, etc., of the boat. Some of the scenes "in front," "in the trenches," etc., have more merit, and will acquire an historic value with time.

—That indefatigable man, Dr. Colenso, not satisfied with launching five solid octavo volumes full of abstruse arithmetical and philological criticism at the heads of his opponents in the space of three years, has signalized his departure from England by the publication of a learned work, "The Worship of Baalim in Israel," translated from the Dutch original of Dr. H. Oort, and enlarged with notes and appendices. Dr. Colenso gives as a reason for his book the want of familiarity of English students with the language and literature of Holland, and asserts, what will be new to many readers, that "some of the most valuable critical works of the present day on the Old and New Testament are only to be read in Dutch originals." The subject of the present book has great interest for all students of early Asiatic history from the light it throws on the pre-Mohammedan religion and state of Arabia. Its object is to prove that the ancient sanctuary of Mecca was founded about the time of David by a body of expatriated Israelites, who then established the great festival, etc., honored throughout the Eastern world when incorporated by Mohammed in his religion, the main object of which was to restore the ancient belief in Arabia, in opposition to the idolatry then current. It is unnecessary to say that the recognition of such a radical connection between Judaism and Mohammedanism would elucidate many phenomena now considered inexplicable, and open a new source for investigation. T whole subject is examined with great learning by Dr. Colenso, who maintains an independent position, occasionally dissenting from his author's conclusions.

—The second volume of a "History of the American War of the Rebellion," by Lieut.-Col. Fletcher, Scots Fusilier Guards, just issued in London, is occupied with the second year of the contest, 1862–3, ending with the campaign of Gettysburg—regarded by the author as the turning-point of the whole war. The book is well illustrated with maps and military plans, abundantly fortified with references to authorities, and has the outward appearance of a fair and unbiassed book, though in so extended a field for narration, where every incident has been subjected to microscopic scrutiny, many errors and misconceptions will undoubtedly be found. Col. Fletcher bears the testimony of a competent witness to the improvement wrought in the army by experience in the field. In reviewing the position at the close of his volume, he remarks that, at that time, "the young men who, at an earlier period of the war, had been promoted to high commands, had gained experience, their characters had become sobered, and after two years of training in the field, and in such rapidly recurring battle-fields as those two years had produced, they had acquired the gravity and *savoir faire* of older generals, combined with the strength and enterprise of youth. The staff had learned their duties, and in all the accessories of an army that of the Potomac offered a pattern which many military nations might do well to study."

—The author of "The Gentle Life" has just brought out a very prettily printed and embellished volume, containing the marrow of "Montaigne's Essays," in a style so similar to that in which his own lucubrations appear, that it would seem as if he desired to provoke comparison with the illustrious Gascon. The neat volume and beautiful typography will probably tempt many readers who might be repelled by the uncouth form of the old editions of Montaigne. The version given is that of Cotton, revised and corrected by the original. All the most interesting biographical essays are included, and all that come most nearly home to men's business and bosoms, and occasional notes by the editor help to free Montaigne from some of the obscurities that collect around an author of three centuries' standing. The attempt to re-introduce Montaigne from the study to the drawing-room is a laudable one, and will no doubt be successful.

—The rumor current in the newspapers respecting the last copyright decision of the English courts proves to be incorrect. No new principle was involved in the judgment of the Lord-Justices Turner and Knight Bruce, on the appeal from the Vice-Chancellor, who had decided that Miss Cummins's residence in Canada at the time of the publication of her book in England was sufficient to entitle her to the privileges allowed by the copyright act to an alien who first publishes his book in the British dominions when actually resident there. This action was confirmed by the Lord-Justices, and may be considered a fixed fact so far as any certainty can apply to this very cloudy subject. The copyright which an alien from any foreign country can thus secure is the same as a native enjoys, and the two are precisely on the same footing. Certainly, if summer travel during the next season sets towards the North, there will be a good and sufficient reason for it, as probably one man (not to mention women) out of every five has rushed into print on some occasion or other, and is good judge enough of the value of his own works to desire all lawful means of benefiting by them. Some acute Yankee might undoubtedly make money by the establishment of a new hotel or boarding-house across the frontier, specially adapted for the wants of authors. A sort of literary lying-in-hospital, well furnished with unlimited supplies of Maynard & Noyes's "best black," Gillott's pens, paper in large or small quantities, books of reference, and a few of the handy, indispensable men, publishers' hacks—never heard of, but whose work is everywhere visible—to assist in the final throes of composition, and ready to turn their hands to anything, from a title-page to an index. Seriously speaking, however, the advantages so easily gained have so much value that we imagine few books that bid fair for extended popularity will be issued without some attempts to secure them, when once the state of the case is generally known.

—The list of new periodicals started in England with the year still admits of extension. Two new ones are just announced, "The Household," a monthly magazine of domestic economy and home enjoyment, published by Messrs. Groombridge, and *The Working-Man*, a weekly, issued by Messrs. Cassel & Co., intended to form a record of social and industrial progress and a medium of communication between the thinkers and the workers of the present day who are now so prominently engaged in forwarding the true interests of the working-man. The leading idea of "The Contemporary Review"—which is to be a monthly, selling for half a crown, and a first-class magazine of criticism, theological, literary, and social—is that its contributors under the editor, Dean Alford, while holding loyally to belief in

the Articles of the Christian faith, are not afraid of collision with modern thought in its varied aspects and demands, and scorn to defend their belief by mere reticence or the artifices too commonly acquiesced in. Of the established magazines, the "Cornhill" will replace Mrs. Gaskell's nearly completed story with a new novel by Anthony Trollope. Mrs. Norton appears for the first time in the same monthly arena, a new tale by her, entitled "Old Sir Douglas," being announced as the chief attraction for "Macmillan's Magazine." "Good Words" depends on a story of modern English life by Mrs. Oliphant called "Madonna Mary." The newest venture of all, "The Argosy," puts forward Charles Reade's novel, "Griffith Gaunt, or Jealousy," reprinted here in the "Atlantic Monthly."

—Among the important enterprises silently under way among our publishers, demanding both time and large expenditures for their completion, Messrs. D. Appleton & Co. are engaged on one which, though not the greatest in bulk, has demanded a larger amount of editorial labor than any book previously undertaken in this country. It is not connected with their most successful "New American Cyclopædia," though it in a measure grew out of the former, as, unless the materials had been collected for that work, the design would probably never have been entertained. As "Webster's Dictionary" is a word-book of the language, so Messrs. Appleton's forthcoming work may be called a name-book, including under one alphabet every personal and geographical designation that the widest extent of reading could find occasion to refer to. From the great amount of matter, the explanations are condensed as much as possible, and it was intended to confine the whole in one volume similar in size to "Webster," but it is found, on trial, that two such volumes are absolutely necessary. The biographical portion will contain every name found in the great biographical collections of each nation, including every monarch that has reigned in any country or dynasty under the sun, and all the living celebrities of the world. In geography will be given every town in the United States, every English parish, and all the local names contained in the most extensive gazetteers, with innumerable additions and corrections in each department from private sources and researches. Repeated trials have led to the adoption of a style of typography admitting of a concentration of information on a single page really marvellous. In the smallest possible space the work will form a complete key to the past and present history of the world. Three years have already been employed on it by the editor and a competent staff of assistants; three more will very likely be required before it is ready for publication.

—Miss Catherine Macready, daughter of the eminent tragedian, will shortly appear as an authoress, with a volume entitled "Cowl and Cap, and Other Poems," dedicated to Henry Taylor. Mrs. F. A. Kemble Butler is preparing a collection of her poems, "with some never before published," in one volume. Miss Christina Rossetti's new volume of verse, "The Prince's Progress," will appear immediately, with designs by her brother, W. M. Rossetti, the Pre-Raphaelite artist.

—The list of announcements of Messrs. Hurd & Houghton, who are removing from Broadway to Broome Street, with the special object of concentrating their attention on their own publications to the exclusion of miscellaneous business, contains several new books in addition to the large number of illustrated Christmas and juvenile works just issued by them. The reprinted books are: "The Letters of Mozart," translated by Lady Wallace, in two vols. post 8vo; a "Brief Biographical Dictionary," by Rev. Charles Hale, with additions and corrections by William A. Wheeler, the American editor; "Essays on Art," by Francis Turner Palgrave, 12mo; and "Tales and Extravaganzas," by Thomas Hood. The works apparently original are: "The Poems of Miss Edna Dean Proctor," 16mo; "Driftings from the Stream of Life," a collection of fugitive poems, by Elizabeth Bogart, 12mo; "Poems of Truth and Affection," by Mrs. W. H. Milburn, 12mo; "Across the Continent," by Samuel Bowles, 12mo; "The Pilgrim's Wallet; or, Scraps of Travel gathered from Scotland to Switzerland;" and "Shakespeare's Mental Photography: A Companion for the Fireside," 16mo.

—That a man who for fifty years has occupied so conspicuous a place in public and private affairs as M. Dupin, *aîné*, the elder of the Dupins, should pass away comparatively unnoticed, is a proof how little men who outlive their contemporaries have to expect from the self-engrossed energy of the succeeding generation that knows them not. The successor to the chair of Cuvier in the Académie Française, one of the most distinguished orators of the day, a writer whose indefatigable pen attempted almost every branch of literature and produced works of distinguished merit in his own profession, an advocate and jurist of the very highest rank—the career of M. Dupin imperatively suggests a parallel with that of his friend, Lord Brougham, and it is impossible to avoid being struck with the many points of resemblance between them. M. Dupin was the junior by four years of Lord Brougham at the time of his recent death in his eighty-third year. Like him, his mental powers were enjoyed without perceptible failure to the latest moment, after an amount of labor—professional, political, etc.—perhaps never equalled by an individual. His capacity for work was enormous. Many years since the list of cases in which M. Dupin had been concerned in the law courts, most of them of great importance, exceeded four thousand in number, and his unpublished professional pleadings, opinions, etc., printed and manuscript, formed sixty large volumes in quarto. Though as ardent a politician as Lord Brougham, and richly gifted with an eloquence of the same species, fearful in sarcasm and rebuke, M. Dupin always subordinated politics to law in a greater degree, and thereby, possibly, showed the same prudence, in a country so unsettled in its government as France, that caused him to acquire the largest property ever amassed by a legal practitioner. His support was courted by all political parties, and was freely given to each as they gained the ascendency. He was a minister of the First Napoleon, the Restoration, Louis Philippe's Citizen Monarchy, the Republic, and the Second Empire, without compromising himself seriously as a partizan of either. His best known literary work, which was also of a professional caste, is his treatise on the legal aspects of the trial of Christ, "Jesus devant Caiphe et Pilate" (1855), written in answer to M. Salvador.

—Mr. Wm. J. Widdleton announces for speedy publication "Reminiscences of Printers, Authors, and Booksellers of New York," by Dr. John W. Francis—to be printed in uniform style with the author's "Old New York." It may be remembered that Dr. Francis was in his youth a printer, and one of his most favorite recollections was his professional connection with the then new art of stereotyping, for which, we believe, he claimed an American origin. The book will embody and preserve many fragments of the past that would, without it, soon perish from memory.

MILL ON COMTE.*

This book consists of two essays reprinted from recent numbers of "The Westminster Review," in which Mr. Mill, as one of the early English admirers of M. Comte, passes in review the two careers of this distinguished philosopher, re-stating and vindicating the fundamental doctrines of M. Comte's earlier work, the "Philosophie Positive," and breaking, for the first time, the long silence which his English admirers have maintained concerning his later performances.

Mr. Mill's judgment in regard to the "Philosophie Positive" is that, while it contains a few capital errors, its fundamental positions are essentially sound, and form a valuable original contribution to philosophy; but on the later speculations of M. Comte this judgment is reversed. These are regarded as in the main false and misleading, though filled with valuable thoughts and suggestions of thought in detail.

In Mr. Mill's first essay we have a very interesting discussion of the doctrines of positivism, both in the larger sense which this word has acquired since its introduction by M. Comte, and in the special sense in which it denotes what was original with M. Comte himself. The foundation of positivism was laid by M. Comte's predecessors in the school to which Mr. Mill himself professes allegiance, and, though now often referred to under the name of positivism, does not belong exclusively to M. Comte or his followers. This foundation is the doctrine of the relativity of human knowledge, which denies to human intelligence the power to know anything except phenomena and their orders of co-existence and sequence; which denies any other knowledge of causation than the facts of observed invariable and unconditional sequences in the orders of phenomena; and denies any other knowledge of substance than observed permanences in the groupings of phenomena. But M. Comte made this doctrine peculiarly his own by the use he made of it, and by the complete definition he gave of it in relation to older doctrines. This was done in his famous historical law, by which he traced the growth of the clear scientific or positive intelligence out of those earlier forms of philosophic belief which he called the theological and metaphysical philosophies.

Instead of using the term "theological," Mr. Mill would prefer to speak of the personal or volitional explanation of nature, touching those beliefs which ascribed the events of nature to the volitions of supernatural beings, and he prefers the term abstractional, or ontological, to the term metaphysical, used by M. Comte to designate those beliefs which ascribe the events of nature to the agency of essences, powers, forces, natures, and occult qualities, or, in a word, to "realized abstractions." And, instead of the term positive, Mr. Mill prefers phenomenal for its objective aspect, and for its

* "The Positive Philosophy of Auguste Comte. By John Stuart Mill." Boston: William V. Spencer. 1866. 8vo, pp. 182.

subjective the word experiential. But while he deems these changes of nomenclature desirable, he recognizes the right of an author to have his thoughts set forth by his critic in the terms he has chosen. Accordingly, in his further expositions, Mr. Mill adheres to M. Comte's nomenclature, but proceeds to set free the doctrine from certain misconceptions, which these terms have tended to confirm, not merely in the opponents of positivism, but in M. Comte himself.

Positivism is opposed to the theological conceptions of causation, not because these are proved false, but because they are neither self-evident nor capable of proof, and do not, therefore, involve in them any real knowledge. The volitional explanation of nature, whether in the form of fetichism, or under the more advanced conceptions of polytheism, or even under the final form of monotheism, must ever stand on conjecture and doubtful analogies, and can admit of nothing like proof or verification; and such conceptions are destined, M. Comte thinks, to die out with the advance and diffusion of positive science. With this latter opinion his critic does not agree, but, on the contrary, is anxious to free the essential positions of positivism from any such implication. In his inability to remain on the neutral ground of positivism, M. Comte lacked one of the virtues of a true philosopher, which his critic possesses in a marked degree—the power to maintain that commonly painful mental attitude, a suspended judgment. To entertain open questions was wholly opposed to M. Comte's tendencies as a thinker, and, accordingly, in his later speculations he does not hesitate to substitute a refined kind of fetichism in place of the current theism, not, indeed, as a true doctrine of science, but as a view of nature which we ought to entertain in our poetical and religious contemplations of it. The barrenness of science, its inability to satisfy the emotional side of our nature, is M. Comte's apology for the religious speculations to which he devoted his second career; but he is betrayed into calling his religious poetical views of nature by the name of "beliefs," thus sacrificing, at least in his language, the fundamental position of positivism.

In condemning the metaphysical or realistic explanations of nature, M. Comte excluded from legitimate science much that is called metaphysics, but which ought not to be regarded as such in M. Comte's use of the word. The science of logic considered as method, and the theory of association in psychology, are omitted from his classification of the sciences, though they do not fall under his description of metaphysical philosophy; that is, they do not suppose any abstract entities or independent realized abstractions as their foundation. Allowance being made for these omissions, his critic accepts his classification of the sciences, and defends its principle from the strictures of his opponents; this principle being to exhibit the sciences in the order of their dependence in their progress towards the positive or purely scientific state. Misconceptions of this classification have arisen, because this dependence does not exist while the sciences are in their empirical stages, and before they possess demonstrable truths.

The most admirable portions of M. Comte's earlier work, according to his critic, are those which trace out the historical development of society and philosophy. M. Comte's powers as an historian are second only to his philosophical powers as a systematizer. "Whoever disbelieves," says Mr. Mill, "that the philosophy of history can be made a science, should suspend his judgment until he has read these volumes of M. Comte. We do not affirm that they would certainly change his opinion; but we would strongly advise him to give them a chance."

But Mr. Mill "fails to see any scientific connection between M. Comte's theoretical explanation of the past progress of society and his proposals for future improvement." Excepting his analysis of history, "he has done nothing in sociology which does not require to be done over again, and better." M. Comte's attempts at a reformation of society belong chiefly to his second career, "in which the *savant*, historian, and philosopher of his former treatise came forth transfigured as the high priest of the religion of humanity." The essay in which Mr. Mill treats of this portion of M. Comte's speculations is one of the most admirable of his many admirable writings, and we earnestly recommend it to the serious attention of our readers. As keenly alive as any opponent could be to the ridiculous character in which M. Comte here appears, and really as much opposed to the general aims of his speculations, Mr. Mill does not, therefore, condemn or desert him; but, by an admirably just and discriminating analysis of his writings, seeks to trace his errors to their source, and to disengage from them the substantial merits of his views of social progress and religion.

A peculiar discipline, "*hygiène cérébrale*," by which M. Comte kept his mind isolated from the influence of other thinkers in this later career, and a "gigantic self-confidence" in which M. Comte surpassed even those philosophers whom he most nearly resembled, and another circumstance of a personal nature, his passion for Madame Clotilde de Vaux, and her influence in producing in him a "moral regeneration," explain in part the difference between his second career and his first. But the chief causes of his aberrations were philosophic. He fundamentally misconceived the proper office of a rule of life, an "error which is often but falsely charged against the whole class of utilitarian moralists; he required that the test of conduct should also be the exclusive motive to it;" that the good of others should be the sole aim as well as the supreme guide of conduct. This error arose from his passion for "unity," and his belief that all perfection consists in "unity" and "system;" and that the object of all morality is to reduce human life to a system in which there should be nothing arbitrary. All individualism was therefore to be sunk in duty, which should consist of complete self-devotion to the happiness of others; or, in M. Comte's language, egoism should give place to altruism. The Golden Rule was not enough for him. To do as we would be done by had, with him, the nature of a personal calculation. His morality had, therefore, all the austerity of asceticism, was as rigid as the Calvinism which teaches that "whatever is not a duty is a sin." Though adopting most of the features of his religious ceremonials from Catholicism, his morality was Protestant in its austerity, with no middle ground between salvation and saintship, no room for conduct which, without being obligatory, might be meritorious.

It is difficult to conceive how a religion which renounces all the common motives and incentives to a virtuous life could be efficacious in realizing any morality, even one less severe than M. Comte's; "but this is exactly the point," says Mr. Mill, "on which a doubt can hardly remain in an intelligent reader of M. Comte; and we join with him in contemning, as equally irrational and mean, the conception of human nature as incapable of giving its love and devoting its existence to any object which cannot afford in exchange an eternity of personal enjoyment."

The later portions of this essay are devoted to an account of the details of M. Comte's religious observances and rules of life. His love of "unity" and "systematization" and his "frenzy for regulation" carry him to the absurdest lengths; but, in spite of all this, Mr. Mill is willing to allow M. Comte's own estimate of his rank as a philosopher:

"M. Comte was accustomed to consider Descartes and Leibnitz as his principal precursors and the only great philosophers (among many thinkers of high philosophic capacity) in modern times. It was to their minds that he considered his own to bear the strongest resemblance. Though we have not so lofty an opinion of any of the three as M. Comte had, we think the assimilation just: these were, of all recorded thinkers, the two who bore most resemblance to M. Comte. They were like him in earnestness, like him, though scarcely equal to him, in confidence in themselves; they had the same extraordinary power of concatenation and co-ordination; they enriched human knowledge with great truths and great conceptions of method; they were, of all great scientific thinkers, the most consistent, and, for that reason, often the most absurd, because they shrank from no consequences, however contrary to common sense, to which their premises appeared to lead. Accordingly their names have come down to us associated with grand thoughts, with most important discoveries, and also with some of the most extravagantly wild and ludicrously absurd conceptions and theories which ever were solemnly propounded by thoughtful men. We think M. Comte as great as either of these philosophers, and hardly more extravagant. Were we to speak our whole mind, we should call him superior to them, not intrinsically, but by the exertion of equal intellectual power in a more advanced state of human preparation, but also in an age less tolerant of palpable absurdities, and to which those he has committed, if not in themselves greater, at least appear more ridiculous."

THE BELTON ESTATE.*

HERE, in the natural order of events, is a new novel by Mr. Trollope. This time it is Miss Clara Amedroz who is agitated by conflicting thoughts. Like most of Mr. Trollope's recent heroines, she is no longer in the first blush of youth; and her story, like most of Mr. Trollope's recent stories, is that of a woman standing irresolute between a better lover and a worse. She first rejects the better for the worse, and then rejects the worse for the better. This latter movement is final, and Captain Aylmer, like Crosbie, in "The Small House at Allington," has to put up with a red-nosed Lady Emily. The reader will surmise that we are not in "The Belton Estate" introduced to very new ground. The book is, nevertheless, to our mind, more readable than many of its predecessors. It is comparatively short, and has the advantage of being a single story, unencumbered by any subordinate or co-ordinate plot. The interest of Mr. Trollope's main narrative is usually so far from being intense that repeated interruption on behalf of the actors charged with the more strictly humorous business is often very near proving altogether fatal. To become involved in one of his love stories is very like sinking into a gentle slumber; and it is well known that when you are

* "The Belton Estate. By Anthony Trollope." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.

aroused from your slumber to see something which your well-meaning intruder considers very entertaining, it is a difficult matter to woo it back again. In the tale before us we slumber on gently to the end. There is no heroine but Miss Clara Amedroz, and no heroes but her two suitors. The lady loves amiss, but discovers it in time, and invests her affections more safely. Such, in strictness, is the substance of the tale; but it is filled out as Mr. Trollope alone knows how to fill out the primitive meagreness of his dramatic skeletons. The three persons whom we have mentioned are each a character in a way, and their sayings and doings, their comings and goings, are registered to the letter and timed to the minute. They write a number of letters, which are duly transcribed; they make frequent railway journeys by the down-train from London; they have cups of tea in their bed-rooms; and they do, in short, in the novel very much as the reader is doing out of it. We do not make these remarks in a tone of complaint. Mr. Trollope has been long enough before the public to have enabled it to take his measure. We do not open his books with the expectation of being thrilled, or convinced, or deeply moved in any way, and, accordingly, when we find one to be as flat as a Dutch landscape, we remind ourselves that we have wittingly travelled into Holland, and that we have no right to abuse the scenery for being in character. We reflect, moreover, that there are a vast number of excellent Dutchmen for whom this low-lying horizon has infinite charms. If we are passionate and egotistical, we turn our back upon them for a nation of irreclaimable dullards; but if we are critical and disinterested, we endeavor to view the prospect from a Dutch stand-point.

Looking at "The Belton Estate," then, from Mr. Trollope's own point of view, it is a very pleasing tale. It contains not a word against nature. It relates, with great knowledge, humor, and grace of style, the history of the affections of a charming young lady. No unlawful devices are resorted to in order to interest us. People and things are painted as they stand. Miss Clara Amedroz is charming only as two-thirds of her sex are charming—by the sweetness of her face and figure, the propriety of her manners, and the amiability of her disposition. Represented thus, without perversion or exaggeration, she engages our sympathy as one whom we can understand, from having known a hundred women exactly like her. Will Belton, the lover whom she finally accepts, is still more vividly natural. Even the critic, who judges the book strictly from a reader's stand-point, must admit that Mr. Trollope has drawn few better figures than this, or even (what is more to the purpose) that, as a representation, he is an approach to ideal excellence. The author understands him well in the life, and the reader understands him well in the book. As soon as he begins to talk we begin to know and to like him, as we know and like such men in the flesh after half an hour of their society. It is true that for many of us half an hour of their society is sufficient, and that here Will Belton is kept before us for days and weeks. No better reason for this is needed than the presumption that the author does not tire of such men so rapidly as we: men healthy, hearty, and shrewd, but men, as we take the liberty of declaring, utterly without mind. Mr. Trollope is simply unable to depict a *mind* in any liberal sense of the word. He tried it in John Grey in "Can You Forgive Her?" but most readers will agree that he failed to express very vividly this gentleman's scholarly intelligence. Will Belton is an enterprising young squire, with a head large enough for a hundred prejudices, but too small for a single opinion, and a heart competent—on the condition, however, as it seems to us, of considerable generous self-contraction on her part—to embrace Miss Amedroz.

The other lover, Captain Aylmer, is not as successful a figure as his rival, but he is yet a very fair likeness of a man who probably abounds in the ranks of that society from which Mr. Trollope recruits his characters, and who occurs, we venture to believe, in that society alone. Not that there are not in all the walks of life weak and passionless men who allow their mothers to bully their affianced wives, and who are utterly incompetent to entertain an idea. But in no other society than that to which Captain Aylmer belongs do such frigidity and such stupidity stand so little in the way of social success. They seem in his case, indeed, to be a passport to it. His prospects depend upon his being respectable, and his being respectable depends, apparently, on his being contemptible. We do not suppose, however, that Mr. Trollope likes him any better than we. In fact, Mr. Trollope never fails to betray his antipathy for mean people and mean actions. And antipathetic to his tastes as is Captain Aylmer's nature, it is the more creditable to him that he has described it so coolly, critically, and temperately. Mr. Trollope is never guilty of an excess in any direction, and the vice of his villain is of so mild a quality that it is powerless to prejudice him against his even milder virtues. These seem to us insufficient to account for Clara's passion, for we are bound to believe that for her it was a passion. As far as the reader sees, Captain Aylmer has done nothing to excite it and everything to quench it, and, indeed, we are quite taken by surprise when, after her aunt's death, she answers his proposal with so emphatic an affirmative. It is a pleasant surprise, however, to find any of Mr. Trollope's people doing a thing contrary to common sense. Nothing can be better—always from the Dutch point of view—than the management of the reaction in both parties against their engagement; but to base the rupture of a marriage engagement upon an indisposition on the part of the gentleman's mother that the lady shall maintain an acquaintance of long standing with another lady whose past history is discovered to offer a certain little vantage-point for scandal, is, even from the Dutch point of view, an unwarrantable piece of puerility. But the shabbiness of grand society—and especially the secret meannesses, parsimonies, and cruelties of the exemplary British matron—have as great an attraction for Mr. Trollope as they had for Thackeray; and the account of Clara's visit to the home of her intended, the description of the magnificent bullying of Lady Aylmer, and the picture of Miss Aylmer—"as ignorant, weak, and stupid a poor woman as you shall find anywhere in Europe"—make a sketch almost as relentless as the satire of "Vanity Fair" or the "Newcomes." There are several other passages equally clever, notably the chapter in which Belton delivers up Miss Amedroz to her lover's care at the hotel in London; and in which, secure in his expression elsewhere of Belton's superiority to Aylmer, the author feels that he can afford to make him still more delicately natural than he has made him already by contrasting him, *pro tempore*, very disadvantageously with his rival, and causing him to lose his temper and make a fool of himself.

Such praise as this we may freely bestow on the work before us, because, qualified by the important stricture which we have kept in reserve, we feel that it will not seem excessive. Our great objection to "The Belton Estate" is that, as we read it, we seemed to be reading a work written for children; a work prepared for minds unable to think; a work below the apprehension of the average man and woman, or, at the very most, on a level with it, and in no particular above it. "The Belton Estate" is a *stupid* book; and in a much deeper sense than that of being simply dull, for a dull book is always a book that might have been lively. A dull book is a failure. Mr. Trollope's story is stupid and a success. It is essentially, organically, consistently stupid; stupid in direct proportion to its strength. It is without a single idea. It is utterly incompetent to the primary functions of a book, of whatever nature, namely—to suggest thought. In a certain way, indeed, it suggests thought; but this is only on the ruins of its own existence as a book. It acts as the occasion, not as the cause, of thought. It indicates the manner in which a novel should *not*, on any account, be written. That it should deal exclusively with dull, flat, commonplace people was to be expected; and this need not be a fault; but it deals with such people as one of themselves; and this is what Lady Aylmer would call a "damning" fault. Mr. Trollope is a good observer; but he is literally nothing else. He is apparently as incapable of disengaging an idea as of drawing an inference. All his incidents are, if we may so express it, *empirical*. He has seen and heard every act and every speech that appears in his pages. That minds like his should exist, and exist in plenty, is neither to be wondered at nor to be deplored; but that such a mind as his should devote itself to writing novels, and that these novels should be successful, appears to us an extraordinary fact.

BUCHANAN'S POEMS.*

One has not to read far in this collection of Mr. Buchanan's poetry to see that he is a poet, but one should read it through before deciding on his defects and merits. This is due to him as well as to most young poets, the present transition school of verse reflecting so positively the characteristics of two or three of its masters that originality is about the last thing we look to find in a new disciple. Mr. Buchanan is an original poet, the reader will discover, but not to any great extent in his first volume, "Undertones," which contains nineteen poems on what may be carelessly considered classical subjects, exclusive of the poet's prologue, "To David in Heaven," and his epilogue, "To Mary on Earth." The former of these superfluous productions is commemorative of David Gray, the young Scottish poet, who came up to London with Mr. Buchanan some half-a-dozen or more years ago, with the wildest notions of what he would accomplish, looking for nothing less than immediate reputation, and, finally, a monument in Westminster Abbey, but who, poor fellow, soon died, leaving his unpublished verse to the tender care of Lord Houghton, Mr. Buchanan, and the pity of the English public. As a tribute to the memory of his friend, the prologue does honor to Mr. Buchan-

* "Poems. By Robert Buchanan." Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1866.
"Undertones. By Robert Buchanan." Second Edition, enlarged and revised. Alexander Strahan, London and New York. 1865.
"Idyls and Legends of Inverburn. By Robert Buchanan." Alexander Strahan, London and New York. 1865.

an's feelings; as a poem, it is scarcely more than a bad compound of the mannerisms of both the Brownings, particularly of the peculiar cadences and rhythms of Mrs. Browning, the jarring imperfection of whose double rhymes it caricatures. What can be worse, for instance, than such rhymes as "also" and "falls so," "you thought" and "truth ought," and "silence" and "mile hence?" The enthusiasm of the poem is of a cheap order, and, of course, vastly overrates the dead poet who is its subject.

About one-half of the classical poems are on mythological themes, and it is not so much the fault of the poet as of the time that they are not informed with the true Greek spirit. A good deal of supposed Greek poetry has been written in England within the last forty or fifty years, but we can recall only two poets who seem to have been Greeks by nature—John Keats and Walter Savage Landor, the latter a perfect pagan in more senses than one. We should include, perhaps, in this catalogue the Tennyson of "Enone" and "Ulysses," Mr. Matthew Arnold, whose little-known tragedy of "Merope" is a noble antique, and Mr. Algernon Charles Swinburne, whose "Atalanta in Calydon" is a notable production for a young man. As these poets, however, and others who might be named, have achieved their greatest successes in the school of romantic art, they can hardly be added to the list of really Greek poets. What the present rage for Homeric translation will end in cannot be foreseen, but hardly, we conjecture, in a new race of Greek poets in England. The defect of most of the modern attempts at Greek poetry comes from what may be called the reflective character of the modern mind, which is not content to exercise itself upon the simply sensuous element of Greek literature—the beautiful fictions of its divinities and the more or less historical legends of its heroes—but is fain to find something deeper in both, to impart some of its own tendencies to them; in short,

"To point a moral and adorn a tale."

This is a grave mistake, however skilfully it may be concealed, and, of course, Mr. Buchanan shares it in common with his contemporaries. The first of his semi-mythological poems, "Proteus," is not an endeavor to embody the old Greek ideal of a for ever changing deity, as the reader might naturally expect from its title, but an attempt to indicate on a broader scale the play of the eternal law of change, especially as shown in human creeds. Even in this it is not successful, since it is too brief to touch upon even the strong points of the ancient and modern mythologies. The theme of the next poem, "Ades," is much finer, but its execution is in no sense Greek, though it is certainly meritorious from the stand-point of the present schools of verse. Its chief faults are an entire absence of the dramatic, and an overwhelming presence of the descriptive, faculty—Ades, the speaker, never for a moment reminding us of himself, but always of the poet, whose puppet he is, and who makes him describe, in detail, his subterranean kingdom, the appearance of Persephone above him, how the earth looked around her, how he felt, what she did, etc., etc., through forty pretty stanzas. So abundant, indeed, are the details that the poem, as a whole, leaves no definite impression on the mind.

"Pan," which is in a higher mood, is a fair specimen of Mr. Buchanan's blank verse, which flows smoothly, after the luxuriant models of the day. It is picturesque as a matter of course. "The Satyr" would be a genuine Greek poem but for an occasional gleam of the over-refining modern element. The wild, rambling melody of its verse is well handled.

"Polypheme's Passion" contains some very clever writing, but can hardly be considered successful. The trivial part of Silenus is much better done than the more ambitious one of Polypheme, who may have been "spoony" on Galatea, but not to the extent that Mr. Buchanan portrays when he makes the grim old Cyclops say:

"That I have learned to tremble and to blush,
To drop this eyelid modestly, to flush
All over at the tiniest whispering sound,
To pick small dainty steps upon the ground,
As if I saw, and, seeing, fear'd to crush
Some crawling insect or the crimson-crown'd
Small daisy-flower that, wheresoe'er I pass,
Shuts up its little leaves upon the grass,
And thinks the shadowy eve has stolen down."

This is pretty poetry, certainly, but it does not suit the mouth of Polypheme even in love. Note, too, the excessive detail of this description of himself, which illustrates a vicious species of elaboration now very much in fashion:

"Unto the beach
I wearily strode, with great head bowed, and dragg'd
Foot echoes after me; and with no speech
On yonder shore, weedy and wet and cragg'd,
I stood, and in an agony of pain,
Look'd out with widening eyeball on the main."

Equally false and absurdly Gothic for a Greek poem is this picture of a sea-nymph, who is clearly the modern mermaid:

"I saw, far down upon the brown sea-strand,
A nymph, who held aloft in pearly hand
A white-toothed comb, and comb'd her locks of gold
Over a dank and shipwreck'd sailor lad."

"Penelope" is, perhaps, the best sustained of all Mr. Buchanan's would-be classical poems. The blank verse is often majestic, though it lacks compactness, and occasionally lets the reader down with such atrocious lines as these:

"Grown like the sampler coarse-complexionéd."
"Of tannéd haycocks and of slanted sheaves."
"And not a marinere, or man, or boy."

And such patent Tennysonisms as these:

"The ships
Have dipt up moistly from the under-world."
"Hast pluckt upon the windy plain of Troy."

Excellent as "Penelope" is, on the whole, an American poet—Mr. E. C. Stedman—has managed the same theme more artistically in a volume of "Lyrics and Idyls," published by him some five or six years since, and to which we refer the reader who may wish to compare his mode of treatment with Mr. Buchanan's.

"The Siren" is the most melodious piece of versification in the "Undertones," its minor ditties being as perfect of their kind as the exquisite little lyrics which Shelley seemed to write so easily. The conception of "Pygmalion the Sculptor" is, in some respects, fine, but the execution is quite bad, suggesting the earlier poetic writings of Mr. Alexander Smith. The fourth section, which depicts the awakening of the statue unto life, is much the best portion of the poem. "Fine Weather on the Digentia" is a rollicking bit of heathenism, which is very pleasant reading, though we are not certain that we like its over-fluent measures.

Enough, however, in the way of quotation from, and quotation upon, Mr. Buchanan's "Undertones," which we leave to his readers for whatever they choose to think them worth; except as poetical promises they have no value in our eyes. Very different are his "Idyls and Legends of Inverburn," a series of short pieces, mostly in blank verse, and on the commonest of themes, pages and chapters selected almost at random from that large and never-finished volume of tears and smiles,

"The short but simple annals of the poor."

We can recall nothing precisely like them in English poetry, and we have not forgotten the early idyllic flights of Wordsworth in such poems as "The Brothers," and one or two episodes in "The Excursion," the few good blank verse pieces of Coleridge, as "The Nightingale," "Frost at Midnight," etc., and the idyls of the Laureate, who has surpassed both these poets in idyllic writing, as he has most of the singers of his time, delineating the ordinary life of the English people with Flemish fidelity in "Dora," and that of the upper classes with almost an Italian richness of color in "The Gardener's Daughter." To say that Mr. Buchanan's idyls can be read with pleasure after Tennyson's, is to bestow high praise upon them. It speaks well, too, for his poetic growth since the "Undertones," and for the native strength of his genius, that his manner of handling his subjects is entirely his own, and generally just what a correct artistic taste would have dictated. His verse is fresh, natural, and apparently unstudied, flowing along as musically as a country brook. A slight flavor of his native tongue, in the shape of a few expressive Scottish phrases, which hardly need the glossary that he has given, adds, we think, to its charm, and imparts an air of reality to his creations, the best of which are invariably those which are the least ambitious. "Willie Baird," for instance, the story of an old Scottish schoolmaster whose favorite pupil, Willie Baird, was lost in the snow, is a model of the simple and pathetic in narrative verse; as is likewise "Poet Andrew," a touching idyl on the life and death of David Gray; and, better still, "The English Huswife's Gossip," a bit of cottage-chat about a weak-witted, tender-hearted natural, crossed in love. As a faithful study of character, we know of nothing finer in the whole range of English poetry. Admirable, also, is "The Two Babes," in which we have a glimpse of the canny side of the Scottish character, and "The Widow Mysie," which is the best thing in the way of humor that Mr. Buchanan has yet done. The more romantic pieces—as "Lord Ronald's Wife," "White Lily of Weardale Head," "The Fairy Foster-mother," "The Green Gnome," "The Legend of the Stepmother," "The Minister and the Elfin," and "The Legend of the Little Fay"—please us less, partly because they do not seem to have come so naturally as the idyls, and partly because they suggest other poems and poets. They are better, however, than any of the rhythmical pieces in the "Undertones," and show that Mr. Buchanan is learning the musical part of his art with commendable rapidity. "A London Idyl," which the American publishers have added to their reprint from the pages of the "Fortnightly Review," is a remarkable poem, in which the poet has completely triumphed over the difficulties of his subject—the vexed question of "the social evil"—producing a worthy companion-piece to Hood's famous "Bridge of Sighs," if not, indeed, surpassing that pathetic work of art,

That we think highly of Mr. Buchanan the reader may, perhaps, infer from what we have written, despite the fault which we found with him at the beginning. He seems to us one of the few young singers of the day who is really a poet, and who has a future before him.

THE ENGLISH REFORMATORY SYSTEM FOR CRIMINAL CHILDREN.*

It is one of the evidences of that slow-working but profound influence which Christianity exerts on the world, that such care and thought and effort have been bestowed on what once appeared the most worthless class of society—the abandoned and orphaned children of the street.

If one would best gauge the progress of mankind under the inspiration and teachings of the divine life passed eighteen centuries ago in the hills of Judea, he must compare the public market of Trajan, where the children of the street were exposed to sale to pimps and witches and slave-dealers, with the "colony" of Mettray, the Rauhe Haus of Hamburg, the Reformatory of Bristol, and the elaborate and kindly charities for children of New York and Boston. For the little outcast and vagrant, who was only thought good enough in Rome for the brothel, and the witches' cauldron, and the slave-market, there are now stately asylums, pleasant little cottages, carefully devised machinery for his improvement and health, and a devotion and effort which have scarcely a parallel in modern benevolence. The rich offer their means, and those of moderate incomes their time and thought, to redeem a class which at first sight appears hopeless and worthless.

Two conceptions naturally underlie the manifold efforts of modern society for the children of the poor—one the Christian idea of the value of the individual, and the other the democratic sense of the importance to all communities of raising up the lowest class. In England, the danger to society from the utterly degraded and vicious and destitute classes outweighs all other dangers, though the British public itself seldom regards it thus, and in all probability will be entirely inapprehensive of any explosion until the moment in which it breaks out.

The problem in Great Britain of treating the outcast and criminal children has far greater complication than it has here. The incredibly vast numbers of these unfortunate creatures, the close competition of labor, the little space and abundant supply of workers, and the constant danger of nurturing paupers, or of injuring the honest poor by helping the dishonest, are incessant obstacles in the way of a complete national system for improving the children cast out, vagrant and street-wandering. Then the sectarian differences come in—different creeds not being able to work together, as they do here, for practical ends; and, more, there comes the indifference which fixed distinctions of classes are apt to breed toward those at the bottom.

Still, an immense deal has been attempted and successfully accomplished in Great Britain for this class. In the efforts there as here there may be said to be two different schools or methods of treatment: one the congregated system, and the other the individual. The one, for convenience, encloses a large number of these children in a building, teaches them in mass, and supplies them by machinery (as all large establishments must be supplied), practising them usually in some very common industrial branch, and giving them common religious instruction; after eight or ten years, turning them out to such trades or places as they may be able to find for them. This may be considered to be the most convenient system. A greater number of children can be brought at once under its influence; but the effects are not so happy. The children have not what they demand most of all—*individual influence;* they are managed in mass; their virtues, like their teaching, become mechanical; they have not strength of character when they come forth, and are very open to temptation. Being supplied by machinery, they do not acquire the experience in the details of common households (the bringing water, cutting wood, taking care of lights, etc.) which they will need hereafter. Then such masses of little ones teach each other many things which had better never be known, and thus counteract the influence of teachers; they communicate, too, many physical maladies.

The other plan makes small households of children, under the close direction of teachers, who watch each child, adapting every method to the nature of the pupil, and who can put together those best fitted to influence each other favorably. Such a system naturally leads to small houses and gardens and to agricultural or garden work—the best of all for a poor child. Instead of being taught a trade which, like shoe-making or chair-bottoming, can never be of the least use to the boy, he is trained in the care of a farm or a garden—in which in all countries he easily obtains employment. Open-air life brings a healthier mind as well as body; the lad's temptations are less; he is allowed to earn and encouraged to save; he can, to a degree, choose how he will spend his money, and thus is really exercised in virtue. He grows up more as other boys do, under individual influence; his associations are better, and he has acquired the practical experience belonging to a small house or garden, which will be invaluable to him.

A girl is placed similarly in a small circle, and is taught plain housework—to wash and scrub and sew and dust and cook, and possibly, also, garden labor.

We need not be surprised that the family system, whether in Germany, or France, or England, works far better than the other.

In Great Britain the large refuges and asylums for poor or criminal children are decreasing, and smaller ones are being instituted, though the change is not going on as rapidly as could be desired. There are in England, in the country districts, 32 certified reformatories for boys, in each of which the average number of children is 80; and 13 for girls, in which the average number is 58. There are 21 certified "industrial schools" (where destitute children are lodged and supported) in which the average number is 52.

In London, the average is much larger, being in 25 boys' reformatories and industrial schools, 120; though in 24 similar institutions for girls it is only 49. It is worthy of notice that in one district of London (Middlesex) the congregated system is carried to its extreme—there being 800 boys in one institution (at Feltham). But on turning to the report for 1865 of the Inspector of Reformatories in Great Britain we note an instructive fact bearing on this. Though the number of adult offenders had decreased in 1864 as compared with 1863, being 116,149, against 121,068, the number of juvenile offenders for the kingdom had increased, being 8,857 in 1864 against 8,459 in 1863, and the increase is mostly made up in Middlesex and other portions of London, the increase in the former being 438 of boys, while the decrease is usually in those counties where the family system is most used.

This report gives the result of the whole system for Great Britain during 1861, '62, and '63. Out of 2,515 boys and 601 girls on the list of the reformatories, 52 boys and 18 girls have died; 538 boys and 92 girls are returned as unknown; of the remainder, 1,513 boys are doing well, 141 are of doubtful character, and 271 have been convicted. Of the 491 girls remaining, 358 are doing well, 90 are doubtful, 43 are convicted, or are known to be living in vice. The statistic results are thus stated: Boys from Protestant schools—Doing well, 68 per cent.; doubtful, or relapsed, 16 per cent.; unknown, 12 per cent. Girls from same—Doing well, 61 per cent.; doubtful, or relapsed, 18 per cent.; unknown, 18 per cent. Boys from Catholic schools—Doing well, 51 per cent.; doubtful, or relapsed, 30 per cent.; unknown, 16 per cent. Girls from same—Doing well, 55 per cent.; doubtful, or relapsed, 34 per cent.; unknown, 7 per cent.

In general, it may be summed up that about *seventy per cent.* of the criminal children brought under the influence of the English reformatories are saved to society. Greater results than these will, we believe, be obtained here when we abandon our stately buildings and machinery and masses of children with unprofitable trades, and erect little cottages on large farms, with small groups of children engaged in gardening and agriculture after the manner of the Hamburg Rauhe Haus, and under the great Christian principle of *individualization* of treatment.

The French are introducing the family system, or, as they call it, "agricultural colonies," in the treatment of all their youthful offenders. Why should not we in America recognize and adopt this reform?

* "Eighth Report of the Inspector for Reformatory and Industrial Schools in Great Britain." London. 1865.

THE MAGAZINES FOR JANUARY.

The passages from Hawthorne's note-books, given in the "Atlantic," form a deeply interesting study of the character and operation of great genius. It cannot be strange to any acquainted with the lives of men distinguished in the imaginative arts that Hawthorne should have sought constantly among ordinary men and things about him for the materials of his wonderful creations; but, after all, the effect upon us who behold the revelation of the simple means of magic is startling. As we read these passages, written with too great absorption in the final purpose to be consciously eloquent, and yet touched into beauty by the hand of one who could do nothing ill, it is as if one entered the laboratory of an alchemist and beheld the charcoal and the base metals he had chosen and prepared there for transmutation into gems and gold. Of course, the mysterious process cannot be revealed; the secret of that died with Hawthorne; but it is much to know how humbly and diligently he strove to master the knowledge of his craft by mastering the knowledge of his own life and other men's, and endeavored to find under the vulgarity of everyday appearances and things the viewless and subtle relations of humanity to nature and the supernatural.

Like Da Vinci, he went about the streets, studying the types of men he encountered, and swiftly and strongly sketched them in his book when he returned home; this would do for the face of a tormenting demon, and should grow after awhile into Roger Chillingworth; that woman's eyes, rich and passionate, would serve to express the sensuous delight and anguish of some such nature as that of Hester Prynne, or Zenobia, or Miriam; yonder visage, rapt and remorseless, would answer well as the guise of a blind, unconscious egotism like Hollingsworth's. Among the sketches of life in the note-book are indicated, without order or sequence, such plots and ideas for fiction as suggested themselves to the mind of the writer, and again there are fragments of reminiscence, and here and there an isolated thought or reflection. In all these is that tone of gloom which is characteristic of Hawthorne's books, and the germ of that peculiar incident, fantastic and inexplicable in one light and commonplace in another, which may be called the invention of his genius, while gleams of his tricksy and pathetic humor, more heart-breaking than the tragedy of other men, play over the sadness of the whole. We are beginning to arrive at some faint sense of Hawthorne's greatness—immeasurably vaster than that of any other American who ever wrote; and the day will no doubt come when these notes of his will have that supreme value which should attach to the records of a man as little likely to be reproduced in literature as Shakespeare is.—We take the Russian story of "Beauty and the Beast" to be Bayard Taylor's, and we think it one of the best things he has written. The introductory part is not graceful, but the story itself is admirably told, and the character which it develops is doubtless true to the last-century life of a people as yet only corruptly civilized on the surface.—There is no recent intelligence in "The High Tides of December."—There is little event and little development of character in the second part of Reade's story of "Griffith Gaunt," but the reader's interest is sustained by skilful artifices, and his animation is suspended for another month, before the lapse of which time he cannot know whether it is Gaunt or Neville has fallen in a duel.—We have not found either the remaining articles or the poems in this number of the "Atlantic" very interesting.

Imprimis, the verses in "Harper's" are, one and all, rubbish, including those "Five Minutes' Late" taken from "London Society," and printed, according to an amiable custom, without acknowledgment of their origin. "The Wishes Shop" is appropriated on the same principle, and it is hard to say whether "Fated Words" is or is not also borrowed. At any rate, it does not amount to a great deal; nor does a kindred essay on "Typographical Errors." The best original article is "Mr. Dod's Six Shots," which is written with a good deal of quiet humor, and concerns a variety of American life (that of the South-west) which we have always thought would be found most available for the purposes of an American novel, should an American novelist ever be born to write it. "An International Affair" is cleverly written, and there is some success in the way Captain Trevannion's character is indicated as that of a race of men almost unknown out of England:

"Trevannion was one of those anomalous men who exist elsewhere as curiosities, but whom the philosopher must visit England to see in their full development and possessing a normal status among mankind—not wondered at because they are universal. Nobody is surprised at elephants in Africa; nobody would look twice at Captain Trevannion in England.

"With us ignorance of everything beyond the blissful scope of one's own clique stands the outward and visible sign of thorough meanness of nature; enormous self-complacency, without the slightest effort to hide it or the least suspicion that it is a perpetual challenge to ridicule, is, *prima facie*, inconsistent with one's being an accomplished man of the world. But the average high-born Englishman lives in a portable and impenetrable Grosvenor Square. Its railing is not cracked by the summit frosts of Mount Blanc nor melted by the sun of the equator; the Grand Lama himself, without an introduction, cannot speak to him through its bars. He goes down in a diving-bell and wonders what 'our fellows' would say if they were there.

"All this seems episodical, but is not; for it has amounted to a generic description of the typical Englishman Trevannion, and leaves me nothing to describe save his *personnel*.

"He was six feet high. His hair was a handsome wavy blonde, parted in the middle. His moustache was yellower than his hair, his military whiskers a modulatory tone between the two. His manners were those of a great, green, conceited boy, 'brought up by hand' by the relentless Mrs. Joe Gargery, of British tradition. His life was one long chronic sin against the canons of natural good-breeding; but he would sooner have been unjointed alive than to have offended against those artificial regulations which proved his blood, gave him his entrée at Almack's, made him liked in his club, or secured his position in his regiment."

The story does not end in this number, and it has the fault that so far the author does nothing to solve the doubt whether he is telling a horse-story or a love-story.

We learn from the title-page of "The Catholic World" that it is a monthly eclectic magazine of general literature and science, as far (we observe in looking at the selections) as these may be studied in agreement with the principles of Romish belief. These selections, we must say, are judicious and interesting, and what original writing there is in the magazine—it is all confined to the notices of new publications—might be far worse in temper and something better in literature than it is. In fine, "The Catholic World" is liberal to Protestantism, considering that the editor believes we are all justly doomed to perdition; and as a literary magazine it is respectable, and all the more respectable because it is very handsomely printed.

A curious error in the title of "The Old Guard" will suggest itself to any one turning over its pages and observing the character of its contents. It gives a steel-plate engraving of the likeness of General Robert E. Lee, a man who has endeared himself to the nation by doing more than any other to destroy it; and, after the engraving, the magazine contains nothing but vulgar ribaldry concerning whatever is best and purest in our national life. In a word, the thing is Copperhead, and is all the more virulent because there is no longer any vulnerable part in the body politic for it to strike. As literature it is not to be considered, having no existence in that sense.

The "United States Service Magazine" opens with an article by Gen. T. J. Wood, entitled "Military Organization," in which we understand the writer to argue in favor of an effective system of conscription instead of voluntary enlistments for recruiting our army hereafter. He also advocates the strict observance of routine in the management of the military service, and declares that those who cut red tape during the war were not the great leaders, like Grant and Sherman, but the smaller sort who succeeded in nothing. The article on "Soldiers and Suffrage" opposes the voting of the military, on the ground that improper influences can be made to affect the soldiers' use of the franchise, and that the army, becoming accustomed to cast its vote in a body, would acquire a balance of power, and familiarize itself with a strength which it might, on some fatal occasion, be tempted to assert by violence. An officer, late of the Prussian army, contributes a paper on "New Military Organization in Prussia." The remaining papers are only military in their character in so far as they relate to incidents of the war. Oddly enough they outnumber the martial articles in a periodical peculiarly devoted to the interests of arms as a profession. Even a military magazine is not safe from the literature of the ladies, and one of the best of these secular articles in the publication before us is from the pen of a woman.

Of "Hours at Home" we scarcely know how to speak, further than to say that there is an evident purpose in the conductors of the magazine to improve its quality, to which we wish all success.

Obscure Diseases of the Brain and Mind. By Forbes Winslow, M.D., D.C.L., etc. (Henry C. Lea, Philadelphia.)—*On Wakefulness.* With an Introductory Chapter on the Physiology of Sleep. By William A. Hammond, M.D. (J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.)—Dr. Winslow's object in publishing his treatise was to call the attention not only of practitioners, but of the public, to a much neglected branch of practical medicine. Diseases of the brain, though apt to manifest themselves suddenly, are generally found to have been long developing, and to have been early attended by symptoms which, if they had been understood by the intimate friends of the patient, would have given timely alarm and warning, and permitted measures to resist the growth of the malady. It is these incipient signs of the fatal disorder which ends in insanity, paralysis, apoplexy, or death which the author undertook to describe, with the motto *Principiis obsta*. His invaluable work has reached in England a third edition, and the second American is before us. This fact is proof of his success in making popular a subject which, spite of special effort to the contrary, is still invested with more or less of technicality. The order of treatment is as follows: 1. Morbid Phenomena of Intelligence; 2. Morbid States of Motion; 3. Morbid Conditions of Sensation; 4. Morbid Phenomena of the Special Senses; 5. Morbid Phenomena of Sleep and Dreaming; 6. Morbid Phenomena of Organic or Nutritive Life; 7. General Principles of Pathology, Treatment, and Prophylaxis. Under these heads is included almost every species of cerebral derangement, which is, whenever possible, compared with exceptional phenomena to be met with in healthy bodies. The discussion involves a mention of many important physical, psychological, and social problems. In chapter 19 is considered the question which divided MM. Bouillard and Velpeau last summer in the French Academy—Does the control of the organs of articulation reside in the anterior lobes of the brain; and can there be a lesion of these lobes without any impediment of speech? The authorities cited by Dr. Winslow seem to disprove the connection which M. Bouillard, in common with Gall, Combe, and other phrenologists, affirms. The loss of memory suggests the manner in which it may be strengthened, and also the disastrous consequences of overtaxing it, as is frequently the result of an unwise school discipline. Citing Emerson's pleasantry, that he "knew a witty physician who found theology in the biliary duct, and used to affirm that if there was disease of the liver the man became a Calvinist, and if that organ was sound he became a Unitarian," Dr. Winslow observes:

"Many a man has considered himself spiritually lost whilst under the mental depression caused by long-continued hepatic and gastric derangement; and instances occur of persons imagining themselves to be condemned to everlasting punishment, subjects of Satanic presence, and to hold *personal* converse with our Saviour, owing to the existence of visceral disease, and a congested condition of some one of the great vascular or nervous centres."

The painful character of the theme proposed fails to rob it of decided interest for the reader, and is offset as far as may be by the humanity of the writer, his agreeable style, and learned breadth of illustration. In the concluding chapter he has shed all the light now possible on the means of preventing and curing the insidious diseases already defined. The book ought to be in the possession of every intelligent family. It solves many a dark domestic mystery, and relieves of moral culpability the actions of a large class of irresponsible unfortunates.

Dr. Hammond's modest work is an elaboration of an essay published in the "New York Medical Journal" for May and June, 1865, afterwards circulated as a pamphlet, and now, deservedly, preserved in the form of an elegant book. It might properly be mainly incorporated under the fifth of the heads enumerated above. The purpose of the introductory chapter is to show that in sleep the brain is comparatively destitute of blood; whence it follows that the immediate cause of sleeplessness is an excess of blood in that organ. The treatment depends upon the nature of the cerebral congestion, whether it be active or passive; in the former case sedatives, in the latter stimulants, being employed. Dr. Winslow's treatise is often cited, and it is remarkable that, in the preface to the latter, Admiral Fitzroy is instanced as a prophet of the weather, whom the philosophical physician should imitate in announcing the premonitory symptoms of brain-disease, while Dr. Hammond's last word adduces the same distinguished personage as a solemn warning against disregarding the laws of our being. The admiral committed suicide last May under the depression caused by sleeplessness consequent upon overwork.

Richard Cobden, the Apostle of Free Trade. His Political Career and Public Services. By John McGilchrist. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—This little volume affords a very good outline of Mr. Cobden's life, and, while satisfying the immediate desire of the general reader in this country, will prepare a welcome for the grander biography, the truer study, which we may reasonably expect from some of that great man's associates and admirers. It is not simply as a friend of America, still less as an apostle of free trade, that the Sussex farmer's son invites our careful regard. The story of his progress to wealth and political influence, which he never abused, has an inestimable moral value for the young men of every land. The record of the Anti-Corn-Law League, which he inspired and sustained so liberally, contains the secret of all popular reforms for all time to come. We must not measure the achievements of that body twenty years ago, and in a country where newspapers were subjected to the burthen of stamps, by those of our own anti-slavery and loyal associations during the past five-and-thirty years. Thus it is not contemptible that in 1843–4 the League "had held a hundred and fifty meetings in parliamentary boroughs, and fifty in other places; fifteen thousand copies of the *League* newspaper—a most potent agent in the agitation—had been published weekly; more than two millions of tracts had been distributed; and in one year thirty thousand letters had been received, and three hundred thousand despatched." Chapter 7 sets forth Mr. Cobden's position in regard to the ten-hour bill, and deserves to be read by the advocates of the present eight-hour movement. Other chapters treat of the Crimean war, the China war, and the French treaty. To a great extent Mr. Cobden is made to speak for himself by extracts from his speeches, as was evidently judicious in Mr. McGilchrist, who seems to have had no access to private materials.

The Resources of California. By John S. Hittel. Second Edition, with an appendix on Oregon and Washington Territory. (A. Roman & Co., San Francisco; W. J. Widdleton, New York.)—The high-sounding, Virgilian preface in which Mr. Hittel tells us what he undertakes to write—meaning write about—must not prejudice the reader of this compact and useful volume. The wonders and the natural advantages of California, and its incalculable resources, may well lend an air of enthusiasm to a really business-like enumeration of them. At any rate, the author means clearly to state the sober truth, being very conscientious in referring to his authorities, and displaying an experience of the State which he describes that invites, and will secure, confidence. He treats, of course, of her topography, climate, geology, scenery, botany, zoology, agriculture, commerce, mining, and other industrial pursuits. He has not omitted, besides, to sketch her constitution and laws, and the present condition of her society. These latter chapters will be found as curious as that in which the attractions of the Yo Semite Valley are set forth. They show how the heresy that ours is a white man's country has vitiated the legislation and corrupted the manners of the Californians, placing negroes, Indians, and Chinamen under a social ban scarcely less grevious than that which rested on the free people of color in the late slave States. It is proper to remember, however, the peculiar circumstances in which the territory was settled, and to allow for the unprecedented immigration of a vast male population not yet nearly balanced by the opposite sex. If we find there great looseness of morals, we must attribute it not to the fact that marriage requires neither priest, magistrate, witnesses, nor consent of parents, nor to the ease with which a divorce can be obtained. The inequality of sexes is the chief and primary cause, both among the white and the other classes. As, in Cuba, there are 34,046 male to only 24 female Chinese, so in California there are 50,000 male to only 1,000 females of the same race. What wonder that "nine-tenths" of the latter "are prostitutes of the lowest class?" What wonder that every part of society is affected with a dearth of virtue proportioned to the dearth of women?

The Martyrs and Heroes of Illinois in the Great Rebellion. Edited by James Barnet. (J. Barnet, Chicago.)—*The Patriotism of Illinois.* By T. M. Eddy, D.D. Vol. I. (Clarke & Co., Chicago.)—Mr. Barnet's compilation, we infer from the preface, is composed of biographical sketches furnished at his request by the friends of the deceased, and obtained little more "editing" than the corrections of an intelligent printer. There is, therefore, no gradation of narrative, eulogy, or length of notice, and the coarse portraits on wood display no enterprise either in collecting or executing them. Apparently those only were engraved which were sent to the editor, or were easily procurable because of the notoriety of their originals. There are other evidences of a want of care and taste, but we need not dwell on them. President Lincoln and Gens. Farnsworth and Ransom are the three most distinguished personages on the roll; but it is worthy of remark that not one of these was a native of Illinois. In fact, less than a quarter of those enumerated were born within the State.

Much broader is the scope of Dr. Eddy's work, which awaits completion in another volume. He undertakes the civil and military history of Illinois during the war, comprising the relation of the State to the federal Government and a general survey of those campaigns in which her soldiers participated—chiefly, as it happened, in the West and Southwest. Narrative, biography, and obituary are thus blended. The author's plan of not confining himself strictly to chronology involves some repetition, but was perhaps the only practicable one, and might even be preferred from deliberate choice, as the scenic artist may for effectiveness prefer the diorama to the panorama. Eight chapters suffice for the first division of the subject, and the remainder treat either of battles or of heroes. It is the latter which have an especial local interest, and are, doubtless, the freshest and most valuable portions of the work, being based on official documents. The carefully composed and clearly printed text is accompanied by steel portraits which speak well for the Western Engraving Company of Chicago. Occasional typographical errors imply haste in publishing—*formerly* for formally, *explosives* for expletives, *our's* for ours, etc. But the volume as a whole is creditably issued.

Dynamic and Mechanic Teaching. By Wm. P. Atkinson. (Sever & Francis, Cambridge).—The pamphlet before us is, in substance, the lecture delivered by Mr. Atkinson before the American Institute of Instruction, at New Haven, last August. It arraigns the present mode of teaching—so largely from books, so little oral—as a sort of mechanism which tends to suppress the native instincts of childhood, its admiration and curious investigation of nature, and makes the study of science in later years repulsive and difficult. As opposed to this, the lecturer advocates the dynamic theory, best exemplified in the so-called object-teaching, which is now beginning to find favor. Here the instructor begins "the right end foremost," introducing ideas before the signs of ideas, and stimulating thought before loading the memory. This system, as Mr. Atkinson observes, is quite old, though but just obtaining recognition. It is Socratic in its operation. Rousseau embodied it in his "Emile," and it has had many supporters from his day to the present. We noticed not long ago Mr. Warren Burton's excellent treatise on this subject. To Mr. Atkinson we can cheerfully accord a high place among the reformers. He constantly reminds his hearers that his views will, probably, be considered utopian, but he as constantly shows that he is a very practical thinker, and is not so enthusiastic as to lose his footing on the earth. Every conscientious primary-school teacher must have felt how superficial are his qualifications for his profession, even judged by a much lower standard—botanist, naturalist, physiologist, physical philosopher, artist, religionary—than Mr. Atkinson's; and none but will be grateful for the wise suggestions and lofty encouragement of this admirable discourse.

An Address on the Limits of Education, read by Dr. Jacob Bigelow before the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, in November, has been printed by E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston. The lecturer glances rapidly at the prodigious development of the natural sciences during the present century, and concludes that the sphere of individual knowledge has been proportionally contracted, and will continue to grow less every year. The value of a collegiate education has consequently been greatly diminished, while the precious time consumed in just affording a glimpse of the vast field of human investigation might have been profitably devoted to a thorough and practical acquaintance with some part of it. The study of Greek is especially condemned as unserviceable, though not, as it seems to us, quite aptly before an institute of *technology.* Dr. Bigelow agrees with Mr. Atkinson about consulting the natural talent of every human being before deciding what his or her training shall be. His idea of general education is, that it should resemble that now furnished in our common schools, immediately after which should follow the peculiar education that is to prepare the pupil for his professional career. In other words, he would anticipate by one stage, at a saving of several years, the selection which usually succeeds the college course. The argument is a strong one, and is forcibly stated in the pamphlet before us. We notice a few inaccuracies, and one conspicuous example of bad taste. Not even a physician of the old school at the present day can courteously class homœopathy and Mormonism together, as is done here on page 12, under the head of "pseudo-sciences"—certainly as unphilosophical as insulting co-ordination.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Rebellion Record. Parts LII.–LIV. D. Van Nostrand, New York.

The Belton Estate. By Anthony Trollope.—On Wakefulness. With an Introductory Chapter on the Physiology of Sleep. By William A. Hammond, M.D. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

Dynamic and Mechanic Teaching. A Lecture. By W. P. Atkinson. Sever & Francis, Cambridge.

The American Republic: Its Constitution, Tendencies, and Destiny. By O. A. Brownson, LL.D. P. O'Shea, New York.

Sermons of the Rev. Francis A. Baker. With a Memoir of his Life. By Rev. A. F. Hewit. Lawrence Kehoe, New York.

DR. MARIGOLD'S PRESCRIPTIONS. Charles Dickens's New Christmas Story. Harper & Bros., New York.

THE WORKS OF THE RIGHT HONORABLE EDMUND BURKE. Revised Edition. Vol. III. Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Saturday Evening, Dec. 30, 1865.

The year closes on dull markets in general merchandise as well as produce and stocks. Prices show no material decline, but there is little disposition to purchase on speculation, and, were sales forced, current quotations would hardly be maintained. Without exception, the leading articles of general merchandise show a marked decline from the close of last year—when gold was nearly 100 per cent. higher than it is. The following table is interesting:

Articles.	Dec. 31, 1864.	Dec. 30, 1865.	Decline.
Hay, per 100 lbs	$ 85	$ 1 65	$ 80
Mess Pork, per bbl	40 50	31 00	9 50
Prime " "	35 00	24 00	11 00
Lard, per lb	22	17½	4½
State Butter, per lb	54	40	14
Cheese	19	15½	3½
Iron (Scotch), per ton	62 50	54 00	8 50
Copper, per lb	49	42	7
Cotton (Middlings), per lb	1 18	54	64
Crude Petroleum, per gal	50	40	10
Tobacco (Ky.), per lb	26½	18	8½
Sugar (Cuba), per lb	19¾	12	7¾
" (refined) "	26¼	16¼	10
Coffee, Java, per lb	48	37	11
" Rio "	43½	23½	20
Coal (anthracite) per ton	10 50	11 50	$1 advance.
Tea (Oolong), per lb	1 40	1 30	10
Wool (American Fleece), per lb	1 00	70	30
Shirtings, bleached, per yard	57	36	21
Flannels, per yard	70	46	24
Oak Leather, per lb	51	39	12
Hides (Buenos Ayres), per lb	35	18	17
Tar, per bbl	5 05	3 75	1 30

As a general rule, there has been a decline in dry goods during the year. But the rates of duty are so high that several classes of goods are nearly as high as they were. Owing to the influence of New England members, who are charged with being directly or indirectly interested in factories, the tariff has been so arranged as to exclude foreign competition altogether in several important branches of dry goods, and the consequence is that the price of these fabrics is nearly as high as it was when gold was 225, and the New England manufactories are declaring dividends of from 50 to 80 per cent. per annum. Woollen clothing, carpets, and druggets are named as articles which are still maintained at unnaturally high prices, through the protective operation of the tariff. As a general rule, the domestic dry goods interest is in a highly prosperous condition, and could well afford to confront competition from abroad. Some complaints are made of the harassing nature of the internal revenue system, and it is possible that by simplifying the arrangement of the taxes, and imposing one tax on the fabric manufactured instead of half a dozen on each process employed in the manufacture, the manufacturer might save time as well as money, and the revenue might not lose. The subject is already under the consideration of the proper committee of Congress.

Navigation on the canals ceased with the second week in December. The receipts of wheat and flour at tide-water for the year show a heavy falling off from previous years. The figures are:

	1863.	1864.	1865.
Flour, barrels	1,560,800	1,198,000	1,014,000
Wheat, bushels	22,206,900	15,916,700	10,579,200

Reducing the wheat to flour, the deficiency this year is rather over 1,250,000 barrels as compared with last year, and 2,872,340 barrels as compared with 1863. This is the result of speculation at the West, generated and fostered by the paper-money issues of the Government and the national banks. Formerly, the West sent its produce forward to tide-water as fast as it could be carried; now, farmers are rich and hold off for high prices; and at Chicago and other cereal centres speculation in food is rampant, and national banks grant speculators the means of holding back produce for a considerable time. It must be remembered that wheat is very much higher, in gold, at New York at the present time than it was a year ago. The receipts at tide-water of corn this year were 18,699,900 bushels, against only 10,352,400 bushels in 1864, and 20,693,600 bushels in 1863. It will be remembered that in many parts of the West the corn crop was a failure in 1864. This year the crop is believed to have been a full average. Of barley and rye alone the receipts this year have been in excess of those of 1864 and 1863. Oats, like wheat, show a deficiency. In provisions, cheese shows an increase; other items a deficiency.

In consequence of the accumulation of money at this point for the January dividends, the banks made an excellent report last Monday, showing an increase of $5,000,000 in legal tenders, and over $2,000,000 in deposits. The consequence has been a further relaxation in the rate of interest, and call loans must now be quoted at 6 per cent., with exceptions at 7 on miscellaneous collateral, and at 5 on Governments. Money is offered to the brokers at 7, with the condition that it shall lie two or three months. The idea is generally entertained in banking circles that we shall have very low rates for money in January and February; but should the Secretary avail himself of the advance in 5-20 bonds to float new "funding loans," these expectations would be very quickly disappointed.

Gold continues to flutter between 145 and 146¼, without animation. The Sub-Treasury is understood to have sold some parcels early in the week, but its operations have not been noticed since. It is probably calculated that the payment of the January interest will suffice to prevent a scarcity of

specie. Exchange remains about 109¼ for bankers' bills, and 108¾ to 109 for good commercial signatures. Notwithstanding the heavy importations, the demand for bills continues light, partly in consequence of the continued export of securities, and partly from the feeling among importers that, sooner or later, gold must fall materially.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, exchange, gold, and money markets:

	Dec. 23.	Dec. 30.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	107⅛	108¼	¾	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103¼	105	1¾	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	100⅝	102	1⅜	....
10-40 Bonds	92¾	93⅝	1⅛	....
7-30 Notes, second series	98	97⅝	⅝	....
New York Central	95⅛	96¾	⅞	....
Erie Railway	95¼	97⅛	2	....
Hudson River	108⅜	109	⅝	....
Reading Railroad	107⅛	106⅝	....	1
Michigan Southern	74⅝	74⅝	....	....
Cleveland and Pittsburg	84⅜	84⅛	....	⅜
Chicago and North-Western	35⅜	35¾	¼	....
" " " Preferred	61⅝	61⅞	¼	....
Chicago and Rock Island	107	108⅛	1⅛	....
P., Fort Wayne and Chicago	105¼	106	¾	....
Canton	45⅜	45⅞	⅜	....
Cumberland	44⅜	45	⅝	....
Mariposa	14¾	14¾	....	....
American Gold	145⅜	144¾	....	¾
Bankers' Bills on London	108¼	109¼	1	....
Call Loans	7	6	....	...

There was no material variation in prices till Friday, when a general upward movement was inaugurated. Governments took the lead with a general advance of 1¼a1¾ per cent. This was in part due to the advices, per *Australasian*, of an advance of 2½ per cent. in 5-20 bonds in London, consequent upon the receipt of the President's Message. It seems that our British friends—like some people here—took it for granted that the President would berate either England or France, or both, and had sold 5-20 bonds short in anticipation of a decline. When they discovered their error, they became buyers, and ran up the price nearly 1 per cent. a day for three days successively. A further advance is predicted in the private letters from England, and indeed it is reasonable to suppose that as Europeans come to understand this country, our bonds will not continue to sell at a price which yields the buyer thrice as large an increase as the same investment in consols. In the railway share market, dulness has been the rule during the week. On the regular Stock Exchange the bear interest predominates, and the theory is that the decline in railway earnings (of which the receipts of the Rock Island and Michigan Southern already show proof), combined with the actual commencement of contraction, must sooner or later lead to a heavy fall in prices. Among the Street speculators, and in the Open Board, the bull interest seems to be in the ascendency. These operators rely for success upon the actual expansion of money, which they consider more important than theoretical contraction in the future; and likewise upon the excessive sales of the bears. Every prominent railway stock is being "over-sold," and the chances are fair that the worse a concern's prospects are, the higher its stock may rise—in consequence of the "over-sales" of the bears. Erie was made scarce again on Friday, and the prices are now advanced to 97 in consequence. To-day the deliveries have been very slow indeed; perhaps not over one-fourth of the stock contracted to be delivered has actually reached the buyers' hands. Cash stock has been worth ¼ per cent. till Tuesday. Under these circumstances, higher prices are expected next week, which may enable the bull clique to dispose of some of their stock. No one believes that Erie, with its floating debt and enormous expenses, is worth 97. But if people will sell stocks which they have not got, and cannot get, intrinsic value will cease to govern market price. Pittsburg sold down to 81⅝ on Thursday, rallying to-day to 84½. The clique which put this stock up to 99 is understood to have sold out. A new party is understood to have been formed in Rock Island, and the price, which was 106¼ on Thursday, is now 108½, in the face of a decline in the earnings equal to $100,000 for the month. Michigan Southern is dull and neglected. New York Central has been manipulated with vigor; sales were made on Thursday as high as 97 per cent. No dividend of over 3 per cent. is expected. A movement—the usual winter movement—in Cumberland is predicted in certain circles; the company is not, however, in any better condition than formerly, and the stock, if it rises, will probably fall before long to the old figures.

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WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
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BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

GIFTS FOR CHRISTMAS AND NEW YEAR'S.

The interchange of presents among friends is the very surest cement of friendship. To confer a gift proves forethought, a desire to please, to serve, to be useful to a friend. Every one desires to be thought of by his or her friends when absent. To provide a present for a friend who is at a distance, is the most certain proof that you are thinking of that person.

If to think of our friends' present tastes, when at a distance from them, is to show a sincere concern for them, how much more strongly would this concern be manifested if we showed that our interest in them extended away into the future, and provided not for their mere personal gratification, but for their permanent welfare.

No better time could be chosen for advancing the generous principle of Life Insurance as applied to a provision for a wife or family.

If you stand in the relation of parent, can you manifest your affection for a married son or daughter better than by presenting him or her, as a gift, with the means of effecting a Life policy, for the protection of the young family?

If you stand in the relation of a wealthy brother or friend, can you not find an opportunity of making such a gift in a manner that will render it an acceptable compliment and an enduring benefit?

THE UNION MUTUAL

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom, and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-insuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy-holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies, by receiving a note for one-half, when the premium amounts to over $30.

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This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the policy-holders.

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HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
Office, 135 Broadway.

Cash Capital,	**$2,000,000 00**
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865,	**3,765,503 42**
Liabilities,	**77,901 52**

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INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

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WHAT I CAN ENSURE AGAINST,

AND

WHAT IT WILL COST ME.

I CAN ENSURE IN THE

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OPPOSITE CITY HALL PARK,

Authorized Capital, - - - Half a Million,

AGAINST EVERY DESCRIPTION OF ACCIDENTS that can happen to me on Sea or Land.

I can ensure my life on the purely Mutual Plan, either by an Endowment, or a Life Policy, or a Ten-year Non-forfeiture Policy.

$25 secures a General Accident Policy for $5,000, with a Weekly Compensation of $25.

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$167 35 per annum secures an Endowment Policy for $5,000, with profits payable at the age of 50, or at death to a person 25 years of age.

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NO MEDICAL EXAMINATION REQUIRED for General Accident Policies.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS	$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

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H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

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NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865,	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

B. C. MORRIS, President.

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PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

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OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President

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A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, or body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features; and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

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with the recent improvements of Mr. J Carhart, is, without exception, *far superior* in QUALITY, POWER, SWEETNESS, VARIETY and EXPRESSION OF TONE. DURABILITY OF CONSTRUCTION, ELEGANCE OF CASE—POSSESSING IMPROVEMENTS APPLIED BY US ONLY.

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OTIS BISBEE, A.M., PRINCIPAL.

"The Poughkeepsie College Military School paid a visit to this city yesterday (April 3). The pupils were uniformed in blue military style, and numbered between fifty and sixty in line. It was a beautiful affair, witnessed by thousands, many of whom are of the opinion that the cadets are under better discipline, and, in the military exercise, far superior to the celebrated Chicago Zouaves who visited our city some years ago."—*Albany Express.*

"Yesterday afternoon (April 3) the College Hill Cadets, of Poughkeepsie, visited our city on a pleasure excursion, and for the purpose of paying their respects to the Governor. After the review the Governor briefly addressed them. He said he was glad of the opportunity to welcome the company to the Capital of the State, and thank them for their visit. He was glad of this evidence of the success of the teachers, and the proficiency of the taught."—*Albany Evening Journal.*

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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 28. THURSDAY, JANUARY 11, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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The Week.

ALMOST every governor of a loyal State whose message to the Legislature has thus far appeared, has favored a change in the basis of national representation from population to the number of legal voters. Governor Andrew, in his very fresh and original argument for reconstruction embodied in his valedictory last Thursday, takes ground against it. He holds that it would be to surrender our right to urge the voluntary enfranchisement of the blacks upon the white men of the South. Nor does he believe that the monopolists would prefer a larger representation for the State to complete control of the little that they have. Meanwhile the freedman would be an anomalous encumbrance, being *in* the community, but not *of* it. He would be in the way of white immigration, which would increase the political power of the State. Hence the present animosity against him is likely to be deepened, and his sufferings to be indefinitely prolonged. This view, it seems to us, is sound, and ought to be regarded. The proposed measure may be a clever political expedient for the present emergency, but it lacks the foresight of statesmanship, and does not deserve a place in the Constitution.

PROVOST-MARSHAL GENERAL FRY has furnished Congress with certain tables, in which he undertakes to show the number of men enlisted from each State under the several calls of the President. His figures are of little value. The absolute number is not known, nor will it ever be. The various terms of service allowed of re-enlistments to an indefinite extent, and no pains were taken to distinguish on the records the raw recruits from old campaigners. Neither is it possible to credit every State exactly with the total of her proper citizens who entered the army, owing to the latitude with which regiments were filled from any quarter of the country. Bounty-jumpers and deserters add to the confusion. In the latter months of recruiting, when money took the place of enthusiasm, one out of every three enrolled, in some places, cheated those who hired him, and escaped with his plunder. Between seven and eight hundred million dollars were expended in bounties by states, counties, cities, etc., and it is seriously proposed that the nation shall adopt this indebtedness. It would be a singular piece of economy in the Government to add to its present load of three thousand millions another thousand, incurred in avoiding the draft which it lawfully imposed.

FEW deaths of public men have been more sudden than that of Henry Winter Davis on Saturday week, and few have more to be regretted. He was of a very intense and resolute nature, well fitted to lead, but not always safe to follow. His successes while in Congress were brilliant, and generally by *coup de main*. He was the most devoted advocate of the Monroe Doctrine, and his views on reconstruction were no whit behind those of the foremost radical in Massachusetts. Differing from them as we did in some respects, we were glad to present them recently to the public through the columns of THE NATION, for they were those of an able, conscientious, patriotic man. They would, perhaps, have been little changed in expression if their author had foreseen that they were to be his last testament to the country, but they now have a value because of this fact which they did not have then.

THE message of Gov. Anderson, of Ohio, is chiefly remarkable for its onslaught upon the Monroe Doctrine. The governor objects to the retention of Ohio troops in service along the Rio Grande, now that the end of the war has been reached in the overthrow of the Confederacy. He has a very poor opinion of Mexico, and a very considerable respect for France; he thinks "Mr. Monroe was doubtless a very good, sensible, honest, old-fashioned sort of a President, according to the measure of his abilities;" while Washington was "the only really and truly grandly great man" that ever filled the same office. We are also told that "the age of American statesmanship has passed." There are worse historical and rhetorical mistakes than these. The authorship of the Monroe Doctrine is erroneously ascribed to Mr. Canning, and the argument against a war with France reposes on the assumption that the Doctrine binds us "to establish and usurp the office of a universal wet-nurse to all the orphan republics in the world." It is tolerably well understood that Mr. Monroe's intention was not republican propagandism, but resistance to despotic interference of the Old World with the New. It was a defensive policy, of which the motives were, nationally speaking, selfish and not philanthropic. Its strength consists not in any absurd notion of honor about standing by the declaration of a former President, but in the wisdom and logic of its conception. For all that, it is a grave matter to determine when attack is the best or the only defense, and the thoughtless will gain some instruction from Gov. Anderson's discussion.

MR. TIMOTHY DAVIS writes to us to say that if the "whitewash piece" (meaning our comments on Mr. Sumner's attack on the President) "cannot be washed or whitewashed so as to appear very different," he must give up reading THE NATION; which we consider an excellent illustration of the spirit in which large numbers of people read and think upon nearly all public questions. They not only do not want to hear, but carefully avoid hearing from any quarter, anything which does not exactly accord with their own previously formed opinions, and treat the expression of any such views in a newspaper for which they have subscribed as either a fraud or an insult. The state of mind into which men get by long persistence in this course, we consider most unfortunate, both in its influence on politics and on the national character; and one of the great objects of THE NATION is to do this very thing which Mr. Davis finds so objectionable—namely, to present him and others with the conclusions of writers whose first object in the composition of their articles is the expression of their honest thought, and not the concoction of doses to "suit" subscribers.

OUR readers will remember the surprise of the London *Spectator* at the pains our Southern correspondent has taken to describe the habits, manners, and scenery of the country through which he has been jour-

neying. The reason of Northern ignorance of the South, albeit a fragment of our common country, was in part the existence of slavery, and in part the vast extent of the region, with its comparatively few facilities for travel. How much we have to learn concerning other sections is shown in Mr. Bowles's account of his tour across the continent. The Mississippi River, even, has but just begun to be surveyed in an authentic manner. The Coast Survey improved the opportunities of the war to map about ninety miles of its course, from Cairo up to St. Mary's, and about forty-five miles above and below Vicksburg. The Tennessee River was mapped from its mouth to Muscle Shoals, and the lower Ohio from Paducah to Cairo.

A LARGE meeting was held on Saturday night at the Cooper Institute for the purpose of pressing the Monroe Doctrine on the attention of the Government—a very desirable thing to do, but one which needs to be done with great care. The pressure of public opinion is, in free countries, a most useful force; but then the Mexican question is in a stage when dexterity is of even more importance than strength. The meeting was in every way a most satisfactory one, or would have been, if Mr. Tomlinson had not allowed his rhetoric to run away with him, by prescribing for this republic the little job of preventing the establishment of monarchies on this continent under any circumstances. We should like to know what becomes of "the sovereignty of the people" if they may be restricted by foreign force to one form of government.

JEREMIAH QUINN, the clerk of the House of Delegates of the Irish Republic, has written a note to the daily papers which furnishes another striking indication of the scarcity of grammar amongst the Fenians. He says, "*All* reports appearing in the papers are not authorized by this Congress," meaning no reports, etc., are authorized by this Congress; and then gravely adds, "Nor will this House of Delegates recognize any such reports." We are informed, too, by one evidently sympathetic reporter, that the report of the Secretary of the Treasury was highly "sarcastic."

EDWARD B. KETCHUM was sentenced to the State Prison, last week, for four years and a half—an absurdly mild sentence compared either with the gravity of the offence he committed, or with those passed on criminals whose temptations were far less and ignorance far greater. The incident, however, would not be worthy of much notice, if it were not for the extraordinary motion made in arrest of judgment on behalf of persons whom Ketchum's evidence would save from considerable pecuniary loss. We are informed that an application for his pardon has been made, or is about to be made, on the same ground, the idea of its supporters evidently being that the public has no interest in his punishment whatever, and that if he can be made to save a few speculators a few thousands of dollars, all the ends of justice will be satisfied. We hope Governor Fenton will treat the petition, if it is ever offered to him, as it deserves; though the reasons he assigned for granting a commutation of punishment in a recent murder case indicate that he is in rather a bemuddled state of mind as to the nature of the pardoning power.

THE skating season has set in with all its rigor, the winter having tardily fulfilled its promise by giving us weather cold enough last week to freeze all the ponds in Central Park and out of it. As our friends the reporters have justly and gracefully said: "The ice-god's freezing kisses on those placid waters required to be frequent, and his embrace strong, to prison them up in their glassy bounds;" but the ice-god (whoever *that* deity is) having complied with these requirements, the sport of the skaters has begun. Naturally, there is burning of calcium lights, and on one of the ponds, near the Park, a band makes music to skate by until a late hour at night.

MR. INGERSOLL, of Illinois, has moved for a committee of enquiry, to find out whether any, and if so what, legislation is necessary to put down polygamy in Utah. Polygamy is, we believe, a common law offence, and if so, no legislation is necessary to warrant the prosecution and punishment of persons guilty of it wherever United States courts sit and have jurisdiction. The toleration which has been extended to it in Utah has been a scandal to our civilization, as well as to our jurisprudence. It cannot be attacked too soon, and in fact there is every reason to believe that it is rather to our indifference than Mormon tenacity that it now owes its existence.

THE chief-engineer of the monitor *Monadnock* reports that she is a perfect success in every respect. She is seaworthy, as impregnable as any of her class, and leads them all in point of speed. Lately she visited Havana, but so complete is her ventilation that the thermometer never ranged above a hundred degrees, and generally averaged three or four below. Her constructor was Mr. Hanscom, whose resignation is said to be now in the hands of the Navy Department. It ought hardly to be accepted.

ON New Year's Day, for the first time in the history of the Government, colored citizens of Washington paid their respects to the President.

THE Southern golden age, having suffered a temporary eclipse by the cloud of war, seems to have dawned again upon Richmond. The editors of the *Examiner* and *Enquirer* met in the hall of the State capital, and arranged a little difficulty concerning the public printing by an appeal to their revolvers. Six shots were exchanged, and the tassel of the cane carried by the marble statue of Washington was shot off. Except this damage to the fine arts, there was no harm done.

SOME unscrupulous persons have been offering to collect the "extra bounty," amounting, as they say, to from two to three hundred dollars, for soldiers who enlisted in 1861 and 1862, and at all other times when only one hundred dollars were paid. Comptroller Broadhead warns soldiers who enlisted before June 25, 1863, not to part with their discharges under this delusion. Addition legislation is necessary before the payment of any extra bounty can be authorized. A petition to that effect is in circulation in this city; but to ask is one thing, and to receive, another.

THERE is the same dismal outcry about houses in Boston as in New York. The scarcity is great, and the ordinary law of supply and demand does not seem to work. We are surprised there has been as yet no outcry raised against the "speculators" for keeping the price of houses up. If there be any truth in some of the politico-economical disquisitions to which the public has been treated during the past year, the capitalists must have refrained from building houses during the past year from a malignant desire to see rents high. Possibly, however, the high price of materials and the prevailing uncertainty as to the future of the currency may have had something to do with it.

MR. ROMERO has called the attention of Mr. Seward to a decree issued by Maximilian, establishing a system of peonage in Mexico, as part of a scheme for inducing Southerners to migrate to that country. Mr. Seward has called the attention of the French Government to it. It does not differ in principle from the laws which are being passed in most of the States of this Union, lately in rebellion, for the government of the freedmen and the regulation of labor.

IT is hard to surrender Mr. Ruskin to the company of Carlyle and Brougham, but his latest manifesto about Jamaica shakes our remaining respect for his moral vision. It is dreary enough to read the antitheses in which he pronounces happier the black slave in America, whose wife and children are torn from him, than the white Englishman who is prevented from marrying because he cannot support a wife. And there is something sadly ludicrous in his climax:

"Of all dishonorable and impious captivities of this age, the darkest was that of England to Russia, by which she was compelled to refuse to give Greece a king, when Greece besought one from her, and to permit that there should be set on the Acropolis throne no Governor

Eyre, nor anything like him, but such a shadow of a king as the black fates cast upon a nation for a curse, saying, 'Woe unto thee, O land! when thy king is a child.'"

THE English papers are becoming quite philosophical over the progress of events in America. The *Pall Mall Gazette* reads many of the others a lecture for not seeing things as they are sooner. But this is hardly fair. The writers in the *Times* really said, in 1860, as true things about the state of affairs in America as they say in 1865. The blindness which followed was wilful.

THE disaffected portion of the French Canadians are, it seems, about to follow the example of the Fenians, and establish a "Canadian Republic" in the State of New York, making Elmira the capital. This plan of setting up people's own republics, monarchies, and so forth, in foreign countries, will hereafter rank, next after the representative system, as the greatest invention of the political art made in modern times. Until now persons whose country was pining under a foreign yoke, or suffering from the rule of a tyrant, had either to suffer on in silence or else commit themselves to the dark and dangerous ways of conspiracy or revolt. But hereafter all they will have to do, not only to procure relief from their sufferings, but to restore their nationality, will be to move to the United States, hire a house, hoist a flag, and buy an assortment of office furniture. It makes one very sad to think how many patriots during the last eighty years have gone down to the grave broken-hearted through ignorance of this simple and cheap device. At present it seems likely that the American people will shortly have an opportunity of studying all forms of government at their own doors. Unless we are greatly mistaken, the various ousted monarchs will not allow the republics to monopolize the advantages offered by this country, and we may expect to see the King of Naples, the young Duke of Modena, Henry V. of France, all living in palaces in Fifth Avenue, with Swiss guards at the door, and the whole machinery of their governments in full operation. And we take the liberty of saying that it will reflect little credit on the Orleans princes if they suffer this opportunity of restoring the throne of their father to escape them, as we believe several furnished houses with all the modern conveniences, and suitable for any form of government or size of nationality, are still to be had on application to Homer Morgan or any other prominent real-estate agent—rent, of course, payable quarterly, in advance.

THE last news from Jamaica proves the accuracy of the accounts which we published in the earlier numbers of THE NATION of the political condition of the island. The late massacre resolves itself more clearly, the more that is known of it, into an attempt on the part of an unscrupulous oligarchy to monopolize the government of the island in form as well as in fact, and make the bondage of the lower classes hopeless as well as grievous. The Home Government has now at last taken the island into its own hands, and the blacks will have a tribunal to appeal to over which religion and humanity still retain some control.

THE commercial treaty recently concluded between Austria and England will take effect on the 1st of January, 1867. The two powers agree to treat each other on the footing of the most favored nations, and the Austrian tariff is to be gradually modified according to the principles of the Anglo-French commercial treaty. It is supposed that the new treaty will give particular satisfaction in Hungary, where the ideas of free trade prevail, and where most of the Austrian wines are grown, which will now be introduced into England.

A MURDER inspired by religious scruples has lately taken place in Paris. The head cook of a restaurant, named Domec, was stabbed to the heart by one of his assistants, who immediately called the police and gave himself up, saying that he had no motive in killing Domec, but that he had long been haunted by a desire of suicide, and that he had done this murder that he might be condemned to death, and be brought to repentance. This circuitous route to a contrite spirit will doubtless suggest the Chinese mode of roasting a pig by setting fire to a house in order to cook the suckling in the adjoining sty. The murderer of Domec was condemned to twenty years' imprisonment.

ALEXANDRE BIXIO, a well-known French statesman, is recently dead in his fifty-sixth year. He was a man of liberal views and strong character, and of such singularly good health that, until his last sickness, no malady had ever prostrated him, though he was obliged to keep his bed after receiving, in the June battles of 1848, a shot that entered his stomach and came out of his back.

LAMARTINE is again passing round the hat for help towards that "definitive settlement" which so persistently eludes the embarrassed poet. This time he attacks the subscribers to his *Journal pour Tous*; but there is no probability that it will be *une fois pour toutes*.

MADAME LOUISE COLET writes to the *Journal des Débats* rather more particulars concerning her troubles at Ischia than people generally will care to read. Madame Colet's trouble arose through the suspicion of the natives that she had brought cholera into their island by her love for poisoning. This was rather cruel to Madame Colet, for she was far more inclined to praise than poison Italians, and the worst thing she ever did was to write the silliest imaginable book in their honor, which was called "L'Italie des Italiens." She had come to live in Ischia because she adored the Italian character, and at the moment the mob summoned her to leave the island, she was writing verses in celebration of its beauty and her life there. Being a Frenchwoman and an authoress, she refused to stir, and was besieged in her house two days by the superstitious and furious populace, who threatened her life. At length succor arrived from Naples, but only to bring Madame Colet away from Ischia, where she could not be safe. How the suspicion against her arose is not known.

THE *Correspondencia* newspaper of Madrid declares that the Queen of Spain has no idea of asking the Cortes to take the oath of allegiance to the Prince of Asturias, with a view to possible abdication. Majesty in this case forms no exception to the rule by which office-holders are governed: "Few die and none resign."

THE trial of the brigand chief Ciardullo, and several members of his band, took place at Salerno, in Naples, on the 10th of November, and on the 12th the wretches were all shot. The testimony developed horrors of crimes not unfamiliar to those acquainted with the history of brigandage, but such as we hesitate to recount here. Some of the witnesses against the robbers were men who had once been their prisoners, and who exposed in court the mutilations they had suffered; cropped ears, amputated fingers, and the like. Three women appeared against the brigands, who had killed their sons by throwing them upon the ground and dancing upon their abdomens, till the entrails burst forth. Other witnesses had seen women ravished by the whole band of robbers, and then put to death. Ciardullo alone questioned the testimony against himself and his fellows, who remained perfectly mute and impassible in the midst of the furious people. According to the Italian military law against brigandage, the robbers were shot in the back.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Jan. 6, 1866.

THE thin aspect of both Houses of Congress yesterday gave token that the holidays are not yet fairly ended. Not more than seventy-five out of one hundred and eighty-two representatives, had returned to their legislative duties. After a brief session, rendered still briefer than customary by the inexorable Thaddeus Stevens, who holds the business of the House in the hollow of his hand, and who stopped the running fire of resolutions, bills, and motions by moving to go into Committee of the Whole, the House adjourned (as the Senate had already done) till Monday. No business, in fact, could have been done without a quorum.

There are some indications that the President is about to follow up the blow he has struck in behalf of a speedy restoration of the South by turning the powerful engine of federal patronage in the same direction. This would tend to complicate the issue, and some predict that

it would at once lower the tone of leading Congressmen were they to find their interests arrayed against their principles. But, however great the temptations of winning or keeping federal office for their political friends, there is little prospect of a majority being found fickle enough to surrender their deliberate convictions to such considerations as these.

It is very true that the President has the power to make a most sweeping and proscriptive attempt to overcome the opposition in Congress. He can begin by reconstructing his Cabinet to-morrow, and in a few weeks he could have all the offices under the Government, except the elective ones and those held during good behavior, filled by men of his own way of thinking. The only check upon this lies in the modicum of executive power confided to the Senate, of confirming or rejecting the appointees of the President. The patronage which is virtually at the disposal of the Executive is prodigious, and is far greater now than at any former period.

The Treasury Department is having much trouble in finding Southern revenue officers who can take the test oath of 1862. It appears from Secretary McCulloch's reply to Mr. Sumner's resolution of enquiry, that many of these offices are vacant, and that about fifty officers who have received their commissions have not taken the oath, or have subscribed to it with omissions or qualifications. No salaries, however, have been paid these recusants, except, inadvertently, in a single instance; and, indeed, the act expressly prohibits any such payment. The Secretary asks for an immediate modification of the act, so as to remove this disability, as he "has not supposed it would be the policy of Congress to subject the people of the South to the humiliation, or the revenue system to the odium, of employing Northern men to collect federal taxes in the Southern States." This presents an embarrassing question to the body which so recently voted, by an immense majority, that this obnoxious oath ought to be maintained in its full force. On the one hand, the difficulty of finding men of any standing in the South who have had no share in the rebellion to fill the various federal offices is insurmountable; on the other hand, the repeal of the law would render it extremely difficult so to discriminate as to avoid bestowing office upon the bitter enemies of the Government.

There is one aspect, the importance of which cannot be overrated, in which the speedy re-admission of the Southern States might have a disastrous result. It is the united testimony of observers and travellers in that region that the people everywhere are against any taxation for the payment of the Federal debt. Now it is neither very unnatural nor very wicked that these people, who have so lately been forced to succumb to a power they have been fighting against for four years, should object to being taxed to pay the cost of their own defeat. But, viewed as a practical matter, what would be the effect upon Government securities of the immediate admission to Congress of 58 Southern Representatives and 22 Senators, nearly all of whom could be counted on as determined repudiationists? It would hardly be a safe thing for the national credit to have such a body of men in Congress, reinforced, as they would probably be, by a considerable number of Northern men ready to go for at least qualified repudiation.

DIARY.

Friday, January 5, 1866.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented petitions from colored citizens of Alabama and Mississippi, praying for protection and the right of suffrage. Also a petition from colored citizens of Colorado, remonstrating against the admission of that territory as a State with a constitution disfranchising negro men. All were referred. Mr. Lane presented resolutions of the Legislature of Indiana against foreign interference in Mexico. Referred. Mr. Sumner offered a bill to provide for the revision and consolidation of the Statutes of the United States into a single volume. Referred. Mr. Trumbull offered a bill to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau, investing its officers with judicial functions in certain cases. Referred. Also, a bill to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights [in pursuance of the second clause of the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery]. Referred. Mr. Sumner offered a proposed amendment to the Constitution, for the protection of the national debt and the rejection of the rebel debt. Referred. Also, a resolution enquiring of the President respecting Provisional Governors in the rebel States, their instructions, salaries, and oath of office; also, asking for copies of all communications to and from them, and of all constitutions, etc., purporting to have been adopted in such States. Passed. Adjourned to Monday, January 8.

In the House of Representatives, Mr. Ingersoll offered a resolution looking to further legislation for the suppression of polygamy in Utah. Referred. Resolutions were offered looking to the continuance of the Veteran Reserve Corps, and its attachment to the Freedmen's Bureau; also for the extension of the provisions of the Homestead Law to all the public lands in Mississippi, Alabama, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Florida. Referred. Mr. Spalding, of Ohio, spoke in favor of universal suffrage, expressing confidence in the President, but regretting that he had dismissed his provisional governors without waiting for the action of Congress, and claiming for that body the sole power to admit new States into the Union, and to guarantee to them a republican form of government. Adjourned to January 8.

THE FREEDMEN.

Gen. Gregory, just returned from a tour of seven hundred miles, most of which was performed on horseback, into the interior of Texas, reports as follows:

"I believe we have an abundant supply of subsistence to meet the demands of all, white and black, for the coming year. The cotton crop, although not probably more than half as large as it has been some previous years, was so well gathered, and demands such high prices, that it will bring more wealth into the State than any which has heretofore been thrown into the market.

"This has been accomplished principally by the labor of freedmen, and at a time, too, when under the excitement incident to their transition from bondage to freedom, and while they were more or less unsettled and undecided in their purposes. If such results have been produced by free labor, trammelled as it has been during the period of its inauguration by innumerable adverse interests and prejudices, may we not reasonably expect from it, when fully and thoroughly established, still greater and largely increased crops, and a corresponding increase in the wealth of the nation? Many schools have been opened in Texas, and they are all self-supporting. The health of the freedmen is generally good. There are no cases of small-pox reported.

"In some portions of the State, and especially is it the case where our troops have not been quartered, freedmen are restrained in their liberty, and slavery virtually exists the same as though the old system of oppression was still in force."

General Strong, Inspector-General, has newly arrived from Texas, and gives a deplorable account of the state of things in the interior. Armed men, wearing the late Confederate uniform, are wandering about the country, robbing and plundering. In a great majority of cases there is no change whatever in the condition of the negro from that before the war. The negroes do not understand their status, and their masters do not care to inform them. This, of course, is where our troops had not been stationed.

The attention of the Bureau has been called to the reports of outrages practised by the Indians upon the negroes formerly held as slaves by them in the Indian Territory. These reports are becoming numerous, and already Gen. Reynolds has sent a force of men to repress the violence complained of.

In Alabama it is estimated by the "Committee on Destitution and Supplies" of the State Legislature that there are 130,000 destitute persons amongst the whites alone. They are not fed by the Bureau. Gen. Swayne thinks a better feeling for the freedmen is taking root in many portions of the State. Some outrages are, however, committed in rare instances. He is seeking out the perpetrators, and will have them brought to justice if found. He says, "Christmas has passed without the slightest difficulty being reported so far."

Officers are now engaged in taking the census of the colored population of Washington.

Col. Brown's "Summary Report of Virginia" is a very clear statement of what has been done under his vigorous administration from June 15 to Dec. 1. Operations have been much embarrassed by the frequent changes of officers detailed to serve the Bureau, "few assistant superintendents having occupied their positions for three consecutive months." Full protection has been accorded to the freedmen, and "it is believed that there is not within the State a person who does not understand and successfully assert his rights to freedom." The irritation between whites and blacks has greatly abated, and instances of personal violence are becoming rare. The freedmen are laying aside their disposition to roam about and to seek the towns and camps. In South-eastern Virginia they have shown remarkably their capacity to take care of themselves. Out of 70,000 gathered there in extreme destitution, less than 4,500 are now receiving Government aid, and about one-half of these are soldiers' families. Comfortable homes have been rented and purchased, and about 5,000 children attend school, neatly clad, and owning their books.

Circular No. 22, issued by Gen. Howard Dec. 22, calls the attention of Assistant Commissioners to the evils complained of in General Grant's report of Dec. 18. The Bureau has never been made "inde-

pendent of the military establishment." On the contrary, the Commissioners must act in subordination to, and co-operation with, the Department commander, keep him supplied with such information as they possess, and obtain his formal approval, when possible, of all orders and circulars issued by them.

—Gen. Fisk issued, Dec. 26, an address to the freedmen of Kentucky, informing them of their emancipation under the Constitutional Amendment, and exhorting them to industry and sobriety, to make contracts if possible with their former masters, and to avoid flocking in to the cities. On the same day he issued a circular (No. 10) in which he formally extended the charge of the Bureau over the same persons, and invited the co-operation of the civil authorities and all good citizens in the work of re-adjustment. There has been trouble in Christian County, and Gen. Palmer ordered thither the 2d Battalion of the 2d U. S. I. The blacks, alarmed by the numerous deadly assaults upon them, have fled into Tennessee in great numbers.

—Gen. Gideon J. Pillow was among the earliest of the few Southerners who cheerfully met the Bureau half-way, and promised to support its measures for the welfare of the colored population. A letter which he wrote to Gen. Howard, Dec. 22, is worth reproducing entire:

"It affords me pleasure to inform you that I have been successful beyond my most sanguine expectations in engaging labor for all my plantations in Arkansas and Tennessee. I have already engaged about four hundred freedmen, and have full confidence in making a success of the work. I have given in all cases the freedman a part of the crop of cotton, and I allow him land for the cultivation of vegetables and corn for his own use, without charge therefor. I could have engaged one thousand laborers if I had needed that number. My brother, who adopted my plan of work, succeeded in engaging laborers for three places he is working. I have put one large plantation under white laborers from the North upon precisely the same terms I engaged freedmen. I feel anxious to try the system of white labor of that character for the plantation. Knowing the interest you feel in the success of the system of the freedmen, and feeling grateful for your kindness to me, I feel it to be a duty to communicate the result of my work thus far."

Gen. Fisk, in forwarding this letter, states that he has abundant testimony to the same effect from intelligent, wealthy planters who have ceased to kick against the pricks, and have undertaken to deal justly with their laborers.

Minor Topics.

In "Punch's Almanac" for the present year of grace a broken-hearted beauty with dark hair is represented as saying to her hair-dresser: "Oh, Mr. Irons, can nothing be done for my unfortunate black hair?" "Well," replies the artist to whom she appeals, "we might wash it red, miss, but what 's the use of 'aving the c'rrect colored 'air, if you 'ave n't got the c'rrect horder of feature?" The idea is worth the consideration of American loveliness, to which the present Parisian passion for blonde hair has only come as yet in vague newspaper rumors, and has not taken any authentic shape here from fashion. Each lady who does not happen to have been blessed by nature with correct colored hair, should reflect seriously whether her face would go well with violet locks, and decide, before the mode reaches our shores, whether she shall take any measures to dye her tresses red, or boldly defy fashion, though, of course, we do not expect her in any case to do the latter, but do expect her to color her hair, whether it becomes her or not.

There is no doubt that yellow hair is very beautiful. All ladies who have it will agree with gentlemen whose wives and sweethearts are blondes, that it is infinitely lovelier than black hair, though The Nation is not prepared to take this uncompromising ground. However, it is known that in all ages blue eyes and golden hair have been chosen by the arts to represent celestial beauty. The Greeks loved the violet hair which has saved so many sonnets from despair, and the sculptor Gibson, who loves the Greeks, stains the marble locks of his statues to that tender hue with such ravishing effect that to look upon his Hebe is to be taken with shortness of breath and palpitation of the heart, and the other symptoms of a disordered digestion. In the exquisite frescoes at Pompeii (about which a contributor has already told the readers of The Nation something) the pretty goddesses and nymphs and heroines are all painted blondes; and in the Museo Borbonico, at Naples, you may see in old fragments of sculpture how our classic friends used to stain the tresses of their statues yellow. Reviving art refused to color the statues, but we all know how the Italian masters painted the sweet Madonnas and charming Magdalenes with golden hair, until at Venice the ladies themselves took a hint from Titian, and invented a yellow hair-dye. At this period a lady, famed in the annals of love and passion, was famous also for the golden hair which nature (tender in Italy of lovers and poisoners) had given her. They keep some long strands of it in the Ambrosian Library, at Milan, where you may look at it, lying in a sunny coil across the page of an old missal, and figure to yourself what must have been the dangerous beauty of Lucretia Borgia.

The Venetian method of dyeing the hair yellow was simple enough, and has been many times described. The illustrissima of that day, when she would be blonde, dipped her hair in a certain solution, and combed it out carefully over the broad brim of a crownless straw hat, and then went to the roof of the palace at noon-day, and, removing the trap-door, sat there and broiled her delicate brain in a sun which knows how to shine with fervor. Repeating this expiation several days, her hair became of that rich ruddy yellow which we admire so much in the paintings of Titian and Paolo Veronese; no doubt the Bella of Titian herself, the fair Violante Palma, had been thus dyed and grilled before she sat to her father for Santa Barbara, and to her lover for his ideal of lovely woman. No doubt—

"But the certain solution—the certain solution! What was the solution in which the Venetians dipped their hair before broiling?" demands the multitudinous treble of the fair who hang upon these words, already resolved, if blonde hair becomes the mode, to undergo any degree of broiling to achieve it. And here, if we were cynical, we should refuse to tell; and if we were sensational, we should coolly write

"To be Continued,"

and leave the whole subject to another week. But we are neither cynical nor sensational, and we have happily found in a French journal the recipe of the solution in question. Beauteous beings, desirous to have the heavenly-golden hair, must stoop to facts and apothecaries, and take three drachms of rock-alum, three of sandarac, one of saffron, four of madder, and two of grape-vine ashes. Let them then pulverize the ashes and the madder together, and boil them to one-half their bulk in water, and mix the residue with the alum, the sandarac, and saffron. The precious mixture must then be applied with a sponge, and when the hair is dried (in the Venetian manner), let it be washed with a decoction of trefoil, barley, cummin, and soap. So shall the most midnight beauty surprise the secret of the noon, and wean away the captive sunshine in her radiant locks.

In the age of its invention the mode of dyeing the hair yellow spread from Venice to Rome, to Naples, to Paris. Now it is revived in Paris, and its approach to these shores is as little to be doubted as that of the cholera itself. When it really comes to be the fashion, we should all adore it, as we should powder and patches if they became the mode again. We shall soon find something to admire in the artificial *blondissance* of the fair who have not the correct order of features for that style. Calm, sweet Dashinda, having availed herself of the secret revealed by a too-indulgent Nation, appears with violet tresses floating above her dark, dark eyes and jetty brows and lashes; shall we not be reminded of the like type of Irish loveliness? And even if her sister, whose eyes tend in hue from

"Green to gray, from lively to severe,"

comes forth in yellow hair, we shall doubtless find something to praise in her resemblance to the Spanish blondes (who have likewise

"*Los hermosos ajos verdes*")

and to Becky Sharp.

But, while we have nothing to say against the yellow hair of art, we beseech the ladies not to suffer themselves to encourage a fashion which, it is said, a foolish hair-dresser has sought to introduce in New York, by striping the natural dark hair with locks of yellow, and blonde with locks of black. Better that all hair should be black for ever than that this grotesque fancy should prevail; for, as Mr. Browning says:

"Yellow or black may be better or worse
In the human head; but the mixture of each
Is a marvel and a curse."

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

OUR MINERAL RESOURCES AND TAXATION.

The great development which has taken place in the mining industry of the country since the outbreak of the war, and the great influence which it is likely to exert, not only on our own trade but on the currency of the world, will make it a very prominent topic of discussion for some years to come. Its importance has been already recognized by Congress in the introduction of a bill for the establishment of a much-needed Mining Bureau, and by several of our principal colleges in the establishment of schools of mines, in which engineers can be trained in sufficient numbers to meet the probable wants of the great mining regions, without resorting to the European schools. And what is more, a very large portion of the public, including many who ought to know better, are flattering themselves that in some mysterious way, it has never been clearly explained what, the gold and silver mines of the West will largely help to pay off the national debt —that is, will do far more towards it than any other branch of the national industry.

But we cannot help thinking that it is now high time for everybody who desires to see our financial system placed on a permanent and sure basis, and regulated by clear and sound ideas, to do what he can to dissipate the current delusions as to the probable influence of our mines upon the national wealth. We shall not resort for this purpose to the historical argument, much warning of the most impressive kind as we might draw from it. It would be easy enough to make out a strong case against gold and silver mines, by calling attention to the fact that every country in which they have abounded, and which has relied much on them as sources of wealth, has eventually become impoverished both physically and morally. The economical facts now presented by our own experience are amply sufficient for our purpose. Our attention has been strongly called to them by the very clear and useful letter recently addressed to Mr. Bowles, of the *Springfield Republican*, by Mr. Ashburner, the mining engineer of the California State Geological Survey, and printed by the former as an appendix to the second edition of his book, as well as by the other facts bearing on this subject collected in the work itself. There is no question whatever—the figures leave room for none—in the minds of practical men familiar with the risks of mining enterprises, either here or in Europe, that the profits on the total amount of capital invested in mining are, to say the least, no greater than on capital invested in other branches of industry. Of the incorporated gold and silver mining companies whose central offices are in San Francisco, we believe that not one-tenth of one per cent. have ever paid a dividend from actual earnings, and at this time not two dozen of them are of sufficient promise to be ordinarily recognized in the Stock Exchange of that city. Of these the majority are based on the silver mines of Nevada Territory. The actual outlay upon several of the non-dividend paying mines has been from half a million upward. One, at least, has cost over two million dollars.

If it be asked how it happens that, under these circumstances, so much capital flows, year after year, into mines, the answer is simple enough. Great hits are sometimes made and enormous profits realized, and the effect produced on the popular imagination by these is, of course, far greater than that of three times the same number of failures. Few people hear anything of the mines which fail. The unlucky projectors generally keep the story of their misfortunes to themselves, while the fortunate ones are never weary of publishing the news of their success. It is not only pleasant to make money for the money's sake, but because it raises one's character for foresight and sagacity. So that it may be stated, as a fair deduction from the history of mining enterprises, that the aggregate wealth of the country has not, and is not likely to be, materially increased by them, although the quantity of the precious metals undoubtedly is increased—the larger portion of the labor and material invested in them being irretrievably lost. Those who think silver and gold the principal and, in fact, only kind of wealth will probably not be affected by this argument, but to them we have here nothing to say. We, for our part, doubt very much whether either a gold or silver dollar is now added to the currency which does not cost the nation two or three dollars, though, of course, the individuals who dug it out may have made a profit on it. The country, in counting up its profits, however, has to take into consideration the labors of those who dig and find nothing, or too little to pay for their labor, as well as of those who dig and find much.

Out of the popular delusion on this subject has grown another, which might, at one time, when we were running up debt very fast, have proved very mischievous, but which, now that we are retrenching, may perhaps be somewhat less dangerous, though if our Southern brethren should, as seems not unlikely, take it into their heads to ask us to pay for all the damage done to their property during the war, and should receive the support of their Democratic allies at the North in doing so, it might be again revived for our confusion or ruin. We allude to the wide-spread reliance on the mines as a means of paying off the national debt. There could hardly be a better proof of the haze through which many sensible, and otherwise well-informed, men see questions of political economy, than the jubilation there has been in the press and on the platform over our mineral wealth as a means of discharging our national liabilities. We have seen elaborate calculations in print, from the pens of "statisticians," showing the probable yield of the Western mines in a certain number of years, from which, added to the total amount of the national wealth of other kinds, the total amount of the national debt was gravely deducted, and the very respectable balance joyously held up as proof of the folly of those who were troubled by the amount of our burthens.

Now, no kind of national wealth is of the slightest value for the discharge of public debts, unless there be some way of getting it into the public treasury. There are three ways by which the property of individuals can be transferred to the public treasury, and three ways only—lawful taxation, loans, and plunder. For the purpose of paying off our liabilities only the first of these, it will be generally admitted, is now open to us. Government can only get hold of the gold and silver of California, Nevada, and Colorado as it gets hold of other portions of the national wealth, by leasing the mines, working them itself, or lawfully taxing the earnings of others who do. Now, if it works them itself, it does so under the same conditions, or rather under worse conditions than private persons or companies. It would certainly work them more wastefully, and whether the aggregate profits of individuals engaged in this species of industry are greater than, or not so great as, those of persons engaged in others, we may be quite sure those of the Government would be very small, if there were any whatever. It might better attempt to raise revenue by farming or cattle-breeding or running railroads.

If, on the other hand, it relies on getting its share of the gold and silver by taxing the earnings of the miners, it must regulate its scale of taxation by the average rate of profit, or it will drive capital completely away. The element of uncertainty enters so largely into the miner's calculations, that it would be an act of gross injustice to claim a large sum from the yield of a vein which, on any particular month, happened to yield well. No mine known yields remarkably well over a long series of years. In hundreds of cases during the last two years, mines which have been yielding a fair profit one month have come short of paying expenses the next; and in taxing the capital engaged in the business account has to be taken of this uncertainty. If any large portion of the products of lucky hits were carried off by the tax-gatherer, there are very few men who would encounter the manifold risks of mining. Government will, in short, have to content itself with about the same rate of revenue from mines as from other branches of industry, and the mineral wealth of the West is not one whit more valuable for the payment of the national debt than the corn of Illinois, or the strawberries of New Jersey, or the cotton of the South. Many of the calculations which have been put forth on this subject have been the product of an excited imagination, combined with considerable ignorance of economical laws.

Nor can we too carefully guard against that other wide-spread de-

lusion, that all the property of the country can be drawn on to meet the public liabilities. The figures one sees so often paraded on this point are pleasant but delusive reading. No people ever yet submitted to the appropriation of all their goods and chattels to the payment of their creditors, or ever will. Nor is it right that they should. Considerable inroads on their annual profits is all that the most upright (commercially) nation the world has yet seen—the Dutch—has allowed the tax-gatherer to make. Every people's first duty is to take care not to lose its own place in civilization; to preserve the means of continuing its progress, material as well as moral. No people which handed over even half its property to its creditors could do this. Any people would repudiate long before its capital was touched. And, in fact, a little consideration of things and less of words would set this matter before everybody in its true light. One question dissipates the whole illusion. How is the property of a whole people to be seized? Who will be the sheriff? who the auctioneer? Where will the buyers be found for it? How, in short, could its creditors turn it to account were its debtors ever so willing to sacrifice it?

MORE FETTERS TO BE BROKEN.

It is to be hoped that the Senate will, without unnecessary delay, confirm the action of the House in regard to railway monopolies. *Teucro duce*—since the President has taken the initiative—there is no tolerable excuse for hesitating in a measure of such urgency and importance. Between the cry of the people for relief, and the voluntary encouragement of the Executive, what have our legislators to fear? Nothing so much as their own procrastination. Soulless as corporations proverbially are, they are still too nearly immortal; and the particular one whose discomfiture and abasement are sought, remembering the peril which it barely escaped at the hands of the last Congress, and having had the double warning of the President's message and the House bill of the present session, has assuredly not wasted the holidays in feasting or slumber. It will be active to the end in the only kind of tactics it ever employs, not doubting, till it is beaten, that with corruption, as with calumny, if one is only prodigal enough, there will something stick.

The case is really too plain for argument. The grievance is national, and so must the cure be. Everywhere it is manifest that the railroad interests are the most formidable in any community, and that they tend to poison the politics and control the government of the State. So vast is the host of employees and dependents, so extensive the tract of which the railroad is the artery or nerve-trunk, that the president and directors are unavoidably invested with a power which they would be simple not to perceive, and less than human if not tempted to exercise, and by which they can marshal at a moment's notice the largest and best disciplined body of subservient voters, to whom their will is law. It is small consolation to point to the present condition of New York and New Jersey, for example, which neither the Central nor the Camden and Amboy road now controls at the ballot-box. The recent triumph of good morals in these States rested on the general question of loyalty to the cause of the nation, and was not a final proof of the ability of either State to free itself unaided from the coils of an open or a virtual monopoly. But it must not be forgotten what and how long we suffered before achieving this precarious victory; how the principles which had to be fought out and established on the battle-field were early obstructed in their peaceful dissemination along the lines of our great thoroughfares; how mobs were organized successively, with all the appearance of a spontaneous epidemic of violence, from Boston to Albany, and from Albany to Detroit; and how conventions that licked the feet of slavery were packed by the same contrivance of a free transit, and the same signal from the managers of railroads and caucuses. It was with the railroads that the contest was carried on, and is still to be carried on in more States than one, concerning the rights of colored passengers. It was owing to the cupidity and exclusiveness of some of them that the operations of the late war were hampered, and ultimate federal triumph postponed, at immense cost to the whole country.

New Jersey is at once the strongest instance of the impotence of a State in the clutches of a monopoly, and the physical and moral detriment resulting from such a humiliation. Everybody knows that the reason why she lingered so long in the unclean bosom of the Democracy was not the failure of fair argument in a free discussion to convince and convert her population. It was because the animating spirit of that party was in harmony with that of the chief railroad corporation of the State—because monopoly, in choosing sides and supporters, could not espouse liberty, which is competition itself. Hence, to speak against the party or the institution which nursed it, was to speak against the corporation; and the public conscience which consented to the privileges of the latter, was easily pacified with a profuse dispensation of passes and offices. There was, therefore, little or no independent thought or utterance in New Jersey, nor was it welcomed from any quarter; and her reputation justly deteriorated, to a degree, we suspect, not commonly appreciated in its influence on her material welfare and advancement. The war inserted the lever which was to pry up the old incubus. Our

> ——"great cause, God's new Messiah,"

like the Revolutionary struggle, parted the sheep and the goats—showed the foremost of patriots, bravest of soldiers, and meanest of tories. The consequence has been that the good and upright citizens have learned their strength and numbers, banded them together, and redeemed the reputation of the State by the rout of their adversaries. Whatever of native manliness protested against imposing on the citizens of other States who crossed the New Jersey border the civil burthens that ought to have been borne at home, will now be strengthened by her compulsory share in the national load. Expensive and demoralizing as is a wide-spread, ever-present system of direct taxation, it conveys more forcibly than any other to the citizen his obligations to the Government, and excites, in turn, a wholesome scrutiny of official and legislative economy.

The liberty of the person was a principal object in the formation of our Government. This liberty does not exist apart from the freedom of locomotion, by which the freeman is distinguished from the serf attached to the soil. In the interest of trade, the Constitution carefully prohibited any regulation bearing unequally upon the several States, and by confining duties to foreign importations declared the essential unity of the nation. That reciprocity of communication which it contemplated it was unable to secure. "The citizens of each State" never had "all the privileges and immunities" of their fellow-citizens in other States. The labor monopoly at the South turned away the streams of immigration, domestic and foreign, and contributed to the uneven growth and imperfect settlement of the republic. It established a passport system more odious than that of any European despotism, for it compelled the traveller to renounce every sentiment that was at variance with its own iniquity. It thus effectually obstructed the circulation of ideas, gave one hue to thought, one aspect to society, and fastened upon the aspiration of the North, all alive with the vigor of the age, the ignorant and contented conservatism of a semi-barbarous period. What happened there on a grand scale has been observed also in New Jersey, in consequence of its short-sighted policy in cherishing a monopoly of transportation between the first two cities of the Union. While inflicting incalculable annoyance on its neighbors, the State itself has incurred the natural penalty of its selfishness. Its physical resources have been retarded in their development, its enterprise been repressed, its intelligence restricted, and its political morality so badly damaged that it will long remain a reproach upon our democratic experiment. To save the State from itself, to emancipate it from a self-imposed bondage, and at the same time to guard every other State from a similar subjugation, is the province and duty of Congress. One thread runs through all the proposed amendments of the Constitution—equality, of States and citizens. We invoke the same principle in demanding the overthrow of railroad monopolies, for which no amendment is needed. We ask that the common domain shall be open to the free play of all the forces that give character to our civilization; that no countenance be given to local greediness or meanness in opposition to the clear advantage of the rest of the country. If strait-jackets are necessary for those who still think that they can injure others without injuring themselves, we ask, in their behalf, for strait-jackets. Above

all, we ask for the promptness which befits the case of an admitted, indefensible evil, in the presence of a power not more adequate to remove it than confessed to be adequate and lawful.

NEW YORK AND THE CHOLERA.

As it is generally expected by men of science, as well as by the public at large, not only that we shall have a visit from the cholera during the coming spring, but that it will first show itself in New York, and commit here its worst ravages, and from this spread itself over the country, along every line of railroad, it may be interesting to our country readers to get a glimpse of the preparations which are being made for its reception in this city.

The existing authorities upon the subject of public health in New York derive their power from the 275th chapter of the laws of 1850. These are full of confusions and contradictions. Paragraph 1 confers all *legislative* power relating to health upon the Mayor and Common Council. Paragraph 2 makes the Mayor and Common Council a Board of Health, any ten members forming a quorum; but as there are two branches of the Common Council, amounting to at least twenty members, there are material and authority for two Boards of Health, equal in power. Another paragraph creates a distinct board, known as the "Commissioners of Health," whose duty is defined to be to "advise the Mayor and Board of Health;" this board is to meet daily, while the former board meets only at the call of the Mayor. A health officer is created, who is to perform the duties which the Mayor and Commissioners of Health *or* the Board of Health shall order. The City Inspector may appoint, with the consent of the Aldermen, "so many Health Wardens and other officers" as the Common Council *or* Board of Health shall direct. The law of June 14, 1857, increases the confusion by making the City Inspector's power "pursuant to the ordinances of the Common Council and the lawful requirements of the Commissioners of Health and of the Board of Health;" and the 37th and 38th sections of the City Ordinances of 1859 declare that the Superintendent of Sanitary Inspections "shall, in all matters, be under the direction, control, and supervision of the City Inspector," and (in the same breath) that the Superintendent "shall also have, exercise, and possess all the powers and duties by law or ordinance conferred on the City Inspector."

It is not surprising that this double-headed arrangement, required to move in opposite directions, fails to move at all, and that the City Inspector has practically wielded for years, and still continues to wield, all powers relating to public health. The result of the system is seen in the past and present sanitary condition of the city; but before dismissing the present organization from discussion, let us make a brief synopsis of its component parts:

(1.) Any ten of { 17 Aldermen, 24 Councilmen, and the Mayor, } make a "Board of Health."

(2.) The President of the Aldermen,
The President of the Councilmen,
The Health Officer,
The Resident Physician,
The City Inspector,
} make "The Commissioners of Health"—the two Boards having equal power, and any ten members forming a quorum.

Then there are the City Inspector, the Health Officer, the Resident Physician, the Health Commissioner, the Agent of the Board of Health, the Superintendent of Sanitary Inspection, the City Registrar, twenty-two Health Wardens, and twenty-two Assistant Health Wardens. The cost of all this machinery may be deduced from a single partial annual estimate:

Salaries of City Inspector, and officers, clerks, and others connected with his department, ...	$138,160
Salaries of Resident Physician, Health Commissioner, Clerk of the Board, *et al.*, ...	5,345
Advertising, office expenses, etc., ...	20,000
Resident Physician, as Agent of the Board of Health, etc.,	5,000
Total, ...	$168,505

The Health Bill now before the Legislature is substantially the same as that of last year, except that it includes Brooklyn. All the above-described cumbrous organization is swept by it out of existence at a single stroke, and the following is substituted: The four Police Commissioners and four physicians are to form a Metropolitan Board of Health, the members serving—after the first board—eight years, and all serving as such without compensation. There are to be a Sanitary Superintendent and Sanitary engineer, whose salaries may not exceed $5,000 each; a Secretary, whose salary is limited to $3,500; and Inspectors, not to exceed ten, with salaries limited to $1,500 each. No member of the Board may hold, or be a candidate for, any political office or public trust. This Board shall perform all the duties of the present health officers, and the aggregate compensation of its members cannot exceed two-thirds what is now paid to those officers. Over against the table of expenditures above quoted place the fact that the annual expense of the Board of Health under this bill cannot exceed $46,000, and that the number of its employees cannot exceed twenty.

A very brief comparison will serve to show the gain acquired in other cities by improved sanitary administration. In Macclesfield, England, the adoption of sanitary measures reduced the annual mortality rate in ten years from one in thirty to one in forty of the inhabitants, the average of life being increased from twenty-four to twenty-nine years. At the end of the first five years, the Earl of Shaftesbury stated that "1,015 lives have already been saved, and 28,300 cases of sickness prevented." In Liverpool, where the mortality rate was one in thirty in 1847—at which time the Public Health Act went into operation—the rate, in 1860, was one in forty-one, representing for the last year alone a saving of 3,800 lives. London, whose Metropolitan Board of Works has, during the past year, completed a gigantic system of drainage, and is now preparing to utilize the vast body of *excreta* thus removed from the city, has a Central Board of Health, under which is a body of sanitary police, composed of a principal medical officer, subordinate to whom are forty-eight physicians. Paris has a "Council of Public Health and Hygiene for the Department of the Seine," consisting of twenty-nine persons, fifteen being physicians, six pharmaceutists, and the remainder engineers or architects. The London *Times* declares that the average of health in London is higher than that of all England, the mortality in England being 22.8 per 1,000, and in London 22.3.

The rate of mortality in New York is about half as large again as in London, for all ages; while for children under one year of age it is a little more than twice as great.

To sum up the argument for a measure like the Health Bill is a difficult matter—something like seriously arguing that a permanent society is impossible without the restraints of law. To tell men that any business should be managed by those who have made that particular business a study, is to insult their good sense; and yet people who, as individuals, would think themselves insane if they were to give their watches to blacksmiths for repair, or the curing of their physical ills to hod-carriers, will yet, when organized into a city community, stupidly permit the conditions of their health to be controlled by politicians. It is only, however, the usual political contradiction of the rule of mathematics, in this wise: the whole is less than the sum of all the parts. The health authorities of New York are practically the City Inspector's Department; and that is, and will be, notoriously a political machine, in spite of press, public meetings, public suffering, and public wrath combined. Anti-republican as the fact may be deemed, New York City has as yet obtained from the Legislature all her valuable public institutions. The Park, the Croton Water, the Police, the Paid Fire Department, all came through the Legislature; while for samples of the city's own work, take the Williamsburg Ferries, the Markets, the Harlem Bridge, the Custom House, and the Battery Enlargement.

The city has appealed to the State, through the Legislature, many times already for this measure, and now appeals once more. *Granted*, that public health is desirable, that we have not yet attained it, that the existing system will not give it, that the pending Health Bill will—these propositions, which no thoughtful person disputes, ought to be sufficient, but they are not. The great political engine which the bill will overthrow will contest its passage as heretofore, and every abuse, from actual municipal robbery down to the nuisances that nauseate the avenues, will strive, through its own representatives, to maintain the existing order of things. To counteract these, and to avert the dangers of another year's delay; to be ready for the probable germination, next spring, of the seeds

of cholera brought by the *Atalanta;* and to settle, in this crucial test, the question whether the moral elements of a great city can perpetually be overruled by those of misrule, New York appeals for the action, more than to the sympathy, of the intelligent classes of her population.

LEOPOLD, KING OF THE BELGIANS.

The centre-stone of an arch is not, necessarily, stronger than its fellows, but its absence entails the overthrow of the edifice of which it is the key. Leopold of Belgium was, to a great extent, the key-stone of the existing European fabric; and, therefore, his death possesses an importance scarcely due to his intrinsic merits. Few men have led more eventful lives, or have played a greater part in the world's history, with less, one would think, of individual power or capacity. If fortune had placed him in the ordinary ranks of life, he would have pursued his trade or profession, whatever it might have been, with energy; and his good sense, good conduct, and activity could not have failed to secure him fair average success. It was, as Joseph II. of Austria said of himself, his trade to be a king, and he succeeded in his trade. He was not a great man, he was not a very good man, he was not a man of any signal ability; and yet he was a leading actor in the chief events of the last sixty years. The story of his life is contained in the two facts that he was born a poor cadet of an obscure German house, and that he died uncle of the Queen of England, grand-uncle of the King of Portugal, father-in-law of the Empress of Mexico, kinsman by marriage of nearly every royal house in Europe, son-in-law of an ex-King of France, and King of Belgium. In truth, he was the impersonation of the Coburg race—a race which has risen to greatness not by any innate power, but by the genius of commonplace good sense. At the time of his birth the one noteworthy feature of his family consisted in the circumstance that the head of his house was the friend and patron of Goethe. Born in 1790, almost on the morrow of the great French Revolution, his youth was subject to all those vicissitudes which the Napoleonic wars inflicted on the minor princes of Central Europe. When almost a boy he served in the Russian armies, both when the Czar was allied with the great Napoleon and when he was fighting against him; he lived at Paris, by order of the Emperor, during the period when the first Empire was at the height of its glory; he applied for permission to enter the French service and was refused; then applied again for employment under the Czar, and was again refused; then lived in retirement till the outbreak of the German war of independence, when he threw in his lot with the allies. He fought at Lützen and at Leipzic, and, after his wont, acquitted himself creditably, not brilliantly; he entered Paris with the conquering armies in 1815, and came over to England with the allied sovereigns.

During his visit he won the affections of the young Princess Charlotte, the only child of the then Prince Regent; and after some opposition, on account of the inequality of his position to her own, the Princess carried her own way, and Leopold was offered the hand of the heiress to the British throne. The offer was accepted at once, and the Prince was deemed the most fortunate of men. From all accounts he was as deeply attached to his royal bride as it was in his somewhat cold nature to be attached to any one. At any rate he made her an excellent husband. Whether from inclination or judgment, he practised all those domestic virtues on which so much value is placed in England, and which were especially valued at a time when the private life of the Prince Regent was a scandal to the country. The good Princess Charlotte was the popular idol of the day, and the Prince shared in her popularity. He was made Duke of Kendal, with an allowance of fifty thousand a year, which was paid to him till the day of his death; though, after he became King of Belgium, he regularly repaid the amount to the English treasury, deducting, however, the expenses incurred in keeping up his residence of Claremont. The sudden death of the Princess, in her first confinement, destroyed the prospects of her husband, and from 1817 to 1830 he took no prominent part in public life.

At the age of forty he found himself once more within reach of a crown. The throne of Greece was offered to his acceptance, and, subject to certain conditions, he consented to become the sovereign of the kingdom so lately freed from the rule of Turkey. The conditions were not carried out, and the monarch-elect, whose ambition was never of an ardent character, grew alarmed at the representations made to him by Capo d'Istrias about the unsettled state of the Hellene kingdom, and declared his resolution not to leave England for the Hellespont. Within two years another crown was offered to him. After the vacant throne of Belgium had been proffered in turn to well-nigh every available candidate for royalty, and after each candidate in turn had been declared disqualified by some one of the great European Powers, Leopold was taken as a sort of *pis aller*. Belgium was, so to speak, a far better investment than Greece, and as such Prince Leopold regarded it. He had hardly, however, ascended the throne before Holland made one last vigorous effort to recover its lost provinces. The Belgian armies, under the command of the King, were utterly routed by the Dutch at Louvain, and the Prince of Orange would, probably, have driven the new sovereign out of his territories if Leopold had not appealed to France for aid. The appeal was responded to; the Dutch forces were obliged to quit the territory of Belgium; and, in return for this service, Leopold consolidated his alliance with France by marrying *en secondes noces* the Princess Louise, one of the daughters of Louis Philippe. Of his subsequent life as King of the Belgians there is not much to say. The internal feuds and dissensions of the Flemish kingdom are absolutely uninteresting and nearly unintelligible to a foreigner. The two great parties in the country are the Ultramontanes and the Liberals, the former being supported by the rural districts, in which the priests are omnipotent; the latter by the towns, where the commercial element is growing daily more and more powerful. Faithful to the constitutional maxim, that "the King reigns but does not govern," Leopold refrained from identifying himself with either party, and worked frankly with any ministry which for the time commanded a majority in the Chambers. Unlike Louis Philippe, he took no active interest in ministerial intrigues, and therefore no party regarded him as an obstacle to their success. On the other hand, he did a great deal to develop the material resources of the country, and always gave liberal principles and policy the benefit of his sanction and support. On the whole, Belgium has enjoyed an unusual share of freedom and prosperity during the three-and-thirty years of Leopold's reign; and the country, not without reason, felt that considerable gratitude was due to the wisdom and good sense of their sovereign. Moreover, the loyalty felt towards him was, doubtless, enhanced by his avowed indifference to the possession of royalty. With an almost cynical frankness, he lost no opportunity of assuring his subjects that he was perfectly ready to resign his claims on the throne if they desired any other occupant. As long, too, as the old King lived, it was deemed that Belgium was comparatively safe against foreign aggression; and thus the feeling of Belgian nationality, such as it is, became identified with Leopold.

Personally, however, he was never popular. A Protestant, he had to reign over one of the most devout of Catholic populations; a German, he had to rule a nation in whose veins there is no small portion of Celtic and Spanish blood. His cold, stiff manners repelled his Flemish subjects, and his vices were not of a kind to win popular affection. In fact, he had all the defects which rendered his nephew, the late Prince Consort, so uncongenial to English sympathy, while he had not those high moral excellences which, in the case of Prince Albert, commanded the involuntary respect of those who liked him the least. After he became a king, the sometime husband of the Princess Charlotte did not maintain the reputation of private morality he had earned in England. The second marriage was not a happy one, and the life of the Queen of the Belgians was said to have been embittered by the open preference shown by her husband to other women. Indeed, public feeling was so strong on this subject, that after the Queen's death the Brussels mob broke the windows of the house where the King's mistress was said to reside. Yet, in the ordinary sense of the word, it would be unfair to say that Leopold was a profligate man; he was too prudent ever to run to excess in anything, and even his bitterest opponents never accused him of prodigality.

His chief reputation, however, was better abroad than at home. Partly by age, partly by position, above all by temperament, he had become a sort of European arbiter. His advice was asked by kings in difficulty, and, what was more, was often acted on. He had fewer, probably, of the illusions of royalty than most sovereigns; he had no

great love for liberalism or popular progress, and he had a deep conviction that in the long run the popular side was always the winning one. He had little faith in abstract principles, but he believed firmly in accomplished facts. Of England and her royal family he was, probably, as fond as he was of anything in the world, except himself. He was a constant visitor at her court, and went to and fro without any state or ceremony. His last visit was only a few months ago. There can be no doubt that his loss is a severe one to all interests connected with the welfare of Belgium, and it may be doubted whether his kingdom will long survive his death. His eldest son, Leopold II., is a man of very feeble health and no great intellectual capacity, and is supposed to be completely in the hands of the priests. If this is so, there is trouble in store for Belgium.

WHERE WILL THE POPE GO?

It is growing daily a more and more curious problem to consider what is to become of the Pope when the last French soldier has turned his back on Rome. Will he consent to accept the succor of his disobedient and disinherited second son, Victor Emanuel, and receive earthly protection from one in whose face he has double-locked the gates of heaven? or will Austria despatch its two-headed eagle to perch as a bird of good omen on the triple crown of the successor of St. Peter? And if she be so minded, will Victor Emanuel consent to such hostile augury of the future of his coveted capital? In Spain the Holy Father has a devout and dutiful daughter, to be sure, but her own uneasy seat on her throne may well hinder her most pious dispositions to help hold him on his. The Pope is, indeed, fallen from his high estate when kings and emperors knelt at his feet and held his stirrup, and when he gave away the kingdoms of this world which did not belong to him with all the liberality of the devil himself. He can no longer command the public sentiment of the countries which acknowledge his spiritual domination; he is forced to obey it. Victor Emanuel is excommunicated, but regards the commination no more than if it had been a benediction that His Holiness had bestowed upon him. The excellent predecessor of the present Pope, Gregory XVI., issued a bull condemning and forbidding slavery, but no priest had stomach enough for martyrdom to try and carry it into effect in New Orleans. And at this moment, in the most priest-ridden country in Europe, the Irish Catholics give to the Fenian Brotherhood the fealty due to the Church, and that in the very teeth of the priests.

It is a painful contingency to contemplate that of the Head of the Church being forced to fly in fear of his life from the metropolis of the true faith. But as it is one which seems to be taken for granted on all hands as sure to happen as soon as the French bayonets are removed from under the Papal throne, it is a curious speculation to consider whither he will betake himself for safety. Italy and France seem to be out of the question. To accept the hospitality of the King of Italy would be to discredit the thunders of the Vatican and to abdicate the temporalities, and to resort to that of the Emperor would be a humiliation the Sovereign Pontiff could hardly stoop to without damage to what is left of his spiritual prestige. In the present state of the Italian question, it is doubtful whether Austria would choose to encumber herself with a guest whose presence might give not unreasonable umbrage to Italy and a possible occasion to France. Spain itself would not be a desirable abode in the present unsettled condition of its affairs, politically, and even ecclesiastically. It were odd, but by no means an impossible event, if the Head of the Catholic Church should have to accept the hospitalities of the successor of Henry VIII. as the Head of the Anglican Church! Stranger things have happened than that, strange as it would be. England has been the refuge of runagate kings ever since the trade of kingship has been subject to bankruptcy. Louis XVIII. at Hartfield, Charles X. at Holyrood, Louis Philippe at Claremont, not to mention Louis Napoleon in Leicester Square, have all sheltered themselves from the storms of fate under the wave-ruling trident of Britannia. It were no more strange that the Pope of Rome should seek the protection of the arch-heretic than that the King of France should flee to that of his natural enemy. What a spectacle would he be for the populace, and what a lion for May Fair!

There is yet another choice left to His Holiness which, if he will have the discretion to take our advice, he will do well to make. He can come to the United States, where he will be sure of protection and civil treatment. We can offer him the advantage of a country with no religion at all to perplex him as a city of refuge. Catholics and Protestants, Jews and Mohammedans, the worshippers of Fo and of Buddha, all stand on absolutely equal footing. He would be just as good as the Grand Lama of Thibet, and no better. But, for all that, what a reception he would have, especially should he select this city as his landing place! What committees of the Aldermen would wait upon him on board ship! What a procession would accompany him through the streets! Of what oceans of turtle-soup, and of what floods of champagne, would he be the occasion! The Governor's Room would be offered to him for the reception of his friends, and what hosts of friends he would have! We doubt whether the Japanese ambassadors or the Prince of Wales could boast of more. General Grant's hydraulic pressure at the Fifth Avenue Hotel were inappreciable alongside of it. We only fear that this new form of martyrdom might qualify him for the honors of canonization before his due time. But whether any or all these things come to pass, whether he be kept at Rome by foreign troops or driven out of it by his own subjects, whether he find shelter —in such case—under Catholic or Protestant or latitudinarian auspices, he will be, as he is indeed, a monument of the change which time works in the most inveterate ideas.

STRUGGLES FOR LIFE.

I STARTED up one winter's night,
All in a mighty flutter,
And vowed that I thenceforth would earn
My salt and bread and butter.

And *first* I thought I 'd keep a school,
And *then* I thought I would n't;
For cause I hate to try to rule,
And cause I knew I could n't.

And then I thought I 'd keep a store
In some great town or city;
For if I could n't measure silks
And laces 't was a pity.

But standing on my feet all day
Was more than pleased my fancy;
I feared to sink into my shoes,
Like Reuben's sister Nancy.

So then I thought I 'd write a book,
And be a famous poet;
This was the maddest scheme of all;
But then I did n't know it.

I went and bought a pound of tea,
Green as I could desi-re,
And made it strong, and drank it hot,
My genius to inspi-re.

It scalded as I forced it down,
But I was bent on trying
My project through, though it was hard
To keep myself from crying.

But when the hot and bitter dose
Was resolutely swallowed,
I sat all night with pen in hand,
And not one stanza followed.

Oh, it was hard! and on the theme
I do not dare to tarry;
My hopes were crushed, my courage gone—
What could I do but marry?

And so, when Reuben asked again
If he his wife might make me,
I really felt relieved, and said,
"Oh! yes, I thank you; take me."

AUGUSTA MOORE.

ELOQUENCE AT SECOND-HAND.

THERE is an amusing story of an Irish reporter who, having fallen asleep while Mr. Wilberforce was upon his thin legs in the House of Commons, was told by his mischievous companions that the philanthropist had been sounding the virtues of the potato and lamenting that he had not in his youth been nourished upon that homely vegetable. The poor man fell plumply into the snare, and the next morning he amused the British breakfast-table by printing the kindly gentleman's praises of the great Hibernian root. We may well believe that Mr. Wilberforce was surprised, perhaps even into a doubt of his personal identity; for many American speakers have found themselves in a similar dilemma, and have feverishly hesitated between an acquiescence in their destiny and a letter to the editor. The late Mr. Edward Everett, who was the nicest of rhetoricians and as finical in the construction of his speeches as Beau Brummel in the plaits of his cravat, endured so much anguish from slovenly reports that he adopted the expedient of sending fairly written copies of his chief orations in advance to the newspapers. Mr. Webster was frequently annoyed by the blunders of the reporters. He was fond of ornamenting his speeches with an occasional scrap or two of Latin, and classical quotations in the newspapers are always at the mercy of chance or ignorance. Thus, when he made his celebrated speech in Faneuil Hall, defending himself against those Whigs who censured him for remaining in place under Mr. Tyler, he exclaimed, very forcibly, "*Adsum qui feci—in me convertite ferrum!*" This was printed, "*Assum que face imo convert fere,*" and in every other possible way except the right one. Imagine the wrath at Marshfield! Mr. Choate once made a happy allusion to *Iago*, which a phonographer, relying, as the custom of his craft is, altogether upon his ears, wrote down and printed "I argue," thus turning into the forlornest nonsense one of the gayest of Mr. Choate's purple patches.

Very few public addresses are made of which the managers of newspapers care to furnish verbatim reports, partly because the columns of a metropolitan journal are always crowded, partly because printing-presses are like time and the tide, and partly because most speeches are of such quality that nobody can read them. Public palaver and private chat are of equal importance; and those who do not consider the views of the Honorable Smith to be any newer or sounder than their own would be, are naturally indignant to find six columns of Smith served with their early toast and tea. While the talk of the platforms is limitless, the area of the printed sheet is fixed, and only the great notables, upon great occasions, can hope for the honors of a broadside. The consequence is, that reporters give what it pleases them to call "abstracts" or "sketches." In the arrangement of an epitomized selection of the sublimities, the beauties, and the facts of a discourse, they are guided by their own notions, and these are not always either judicious or severe. Frequently they bring away only what they can readily remember, and what is not worth the pains of remembering at all. But their surest refuge is in the commonplaces of compliment. Mindful of the weakness of human nature and of their own, they merely present their confectionery of compliments to the speakers. Thus, "Mr A. followed *in* a few eloquent remarks, which brought down the house;" or, "Mr. B. in a short, humorous speech convulsed the audience;" or, "Mr. C. made the concluding address, which was well received." If A. and B. and C. are greatly pleased with this, there is reason in their rapture. *Omne ignotum pro mirifico.* The reader must take it for granted that A. was really eloquent, that B. was droll, and that the concluding C. was somewhat more than barely tolerated. A faithful report of what these speakers did say might bring them into swift, sure, and abiding contempt.

But if many are treated with unmerited kindness, there are others who have an indisputable right to complain. A clergyman, for instance, has preached a sermon which cost him many days and nights of patient thought and investigation. It is the elaborate product of his mind and skill; its method, manner, and proportion are necessary and not fortuitous; its parts are mutually dependent; it is a structure of which no specimen brick can give adequate testimony, and if it is to be criticized by those who did not listen to its delivery, its author may well protest against a judgment bottomed upon a crude conception of his theme, and resulting only in a desperate and abortive effort to reproduce fragments of his language. It requires a finer appreciation of his meaning and method to give simply a naked skeleton of his discourse than to furnish a mechanical and phonographic report; yet, in most newspaper offices, the task of providing what are called "abstracts" or "sketches" is committed to the cheapest and least practised hands. The result is unpleasant to contemplate. The most irritating nonsense is attributed to men notoriously sensible, the grossest error to the most accurate, petty vulgarity to the fastidious, damnable heresy to the orthodox, and Scriptural misquotation to those who know the Bible by heart. The only solace, under this grievous burthen of misfortune, is a declaration by the erudite reporter that "the reverend gentleman preached with his usual eloquence and ability," and even this is coupled with compliments to the choir, or, possibly, with a puff of the "gentlemanly and obliging" sexton. The meekest parson in all the churches may be allowed a little irascibility when this insulting draft is made upon his stock of forgiveness, for he is led captive, the victim of shameful calumny, into a limbo of dubious notoriety, that he may point a paragraph or adorn a column. We can imagine him shedding natural tears in the seclusion of his study, and privately bewailing the discovery of the typographic art.

But the clergyman is not, by any means, the only martyr. The judge upon the bench who never committed a legal blunder in his life is made responsible for law erroneous enough to evoke the ghost of Sir Matthew Hale. Lecturers who are prudish in their choice of language are held up to the world as recklessly and insanely defying the shade of Lindley Murray, and tempting it to revisit the world without its Quaker coat. Prodigies of science, capable of reconstructing from the smallest toe-joints a whole menagerie of antediluvian monsters, are represented as propounding physical theories which, if they should suddenly become true, would be followed by the immediate dissolution of the universe. Unhappy poets, who recite the prominent decasyllabics at the college festivals, are pilloried as rebels against the venerable and immutable statutes of long and short. Jokers of jokes read the reproductions of their drolleries only to find, with melancholy eyes, that the point has been taken out of this carefully constructed impromptu and the salt out of that. It is all a very dreary piece of business!

It is easier to point out an evil than to prescribe a remedy. It may not, however, be impertinent to suggest, unless a speech or sermon is to be elaborately reported, that nothing is gained by any pretence of literally reproducing the language employed. All orators whose fame is anything more than traditional have carefully written out their speeches for publication. Lord Macaulay, after a slovenly and inaccurate volume of his speeches had been published, was obliged either to print them himself, or go down to posterity as an utterer of nonsense, a blunderer, and a vulgarian. The preacher's fame, if he cares for it, must be protected and prolonged by the same expedient. The public, it is true, will grudgingly wait for the slow process of revision and of publication, but it might be less impatient if reporters would content themselves with an unadorned and coherent statement of the facts and opinions contained in a discourse. If speakers themselves would or could furnish to each reporter a brief and modest abstract of their remarks—although this is a trouble which we have no right to oblige them to take—they might save themselves from misrepresentation and mortification; but brevity, in such cases, would be the rarest of virtues, and the modesty of many would be severely tested, since few would doubt their right to at least one of the sorely-cumbered columns. Intelligent reporting is the only remedy, and we would fain believe that it is not an impossibility.

Reporting will not be improved, however, unless it is brought more under editorial supervision than it is at present. Great masters of English or able *précis* writers cannot be got to take reporters' places, and in most cases would be unfit to fill them, so that it will, probably, be a long time before reporters' contributions will be fit for publication, without revision, in any newspaper laying claim to be well edited. The fact is that the newspaper business in this country, like many other things, has grown up so rapidly that it is still in rather an unorganized condition. The editor is still largely engaged in doing things which other people ought to do, and he leaves undone things which nobody but he himself can do. Many of the subordinates have more scope than is good for either themselves, the English language, the press, or the public. Much of this will, no doubt, be mended in time; but there is one practice of the reporters which ought to be mended now, and that is the practice in which those of nearly every paper indulge of garbling and caricaturing and misrepresenting the speeches of political opponents under pretence of reporting them. Most reporters sent to attend a meeting of the opposite party feel called upon to make fun—and such fun!—of the whole proceeding, ridicule the speakers, put absurdities in their mouths which they never uttered, and, in fact, say everything that seems likely to bring them and their audience into contempt. The result is generally, in a literary point of view, disgusting, and, in a moral one, worse than disgusting. It is a deliberate fraud on the public, which pays its money to learn what happened, and not what reporters would like to have happened; and yet editors let it pass as if it was none of their business

ACCIDENTAL INSURANCE.

ONE of the most wonderful phenomena of this wonderful age is the progress of insurance. We may now ensure our houses against fire, our bodies against disease, and our shins against abrasion. How many human beings are, at this very moment, in receipt of an income, free of Government tax, from that most novel of modern conveniences—the "Accidental Insurance?" We recal the names of at least a dozen of our acquaintances who, as policy-holders in the new companies, are in the full enjoyment of a most remunerative convalescence. For the small sum of ——— dollars we may ensure, at our option, our lives against death by violence, or our persons against accident, at a weekly compensation of fifty dollars, for every week that through bodily injuries we may be incapacitated from performing our usual duties. To the ensured a broken finger is as good as a certified check for two hundred and fifty dollars. Taking this as a basis of calculation, what amount is represented in a broken arm, a dislocated shoulder, or a fractured thigh?

We Americans are ever quick to encourage and adopt what is practical, though with respect to the accidental insurance we have been several years behind France and England. Is it surprising, therefore, that the holders of policies in accidental companies should desert the city as a place of residence, when the profits of a commutation ticket on a dangerous and ill-managed railway are offered in competition with the stupid security of a city car? It must be allowed, however, that the exodus from the city is as yet confined to those men of small means who owe it as a duty to their families to add, in any legitimate way, to a scanty income, even if it be accomplished at the risk of a compound fracture of the *os coccygis*. Perhaps the day is near at hand when ensurers in accidental companies will look upon a railroad accident or a steamboat explosion as the El Dorado of their hopes.

When Tompkins—a holder of policy A. I. Co. No. 209,367—arrives at his home as one of the seriously injured in a terrible railroad accident, is he received by his wife with cries of lamentation and despair? Not at all. The admirable woman cautiously examines the person of the suffering Tompkins, and, satisfying herself that he is good for at least a dozen weeks of careful nursing, she hastily multiplies twelve by fifty, which gives her the amount due from the "Accidental Company." With this sum Mrs. Tompkins hopes to eclipse Mrs. Whopper, whose husband has come out of the smash-up with the unremunerative casualties of the loss of four front teeth and a slight wound on the nose.

Arthur Whackle—policy A. I. Co. No. 773,047—occupies a cottage on the line of the Borris and Fessex Railroad. The connubial veteran will readily divine that Whackle is but recently married from the fact that he still addresses his mother-in-law by the fond and endearing title of "mamma." Mrs. Whackle is an eminently just and careful woman. Mrs. Blodger is of the same persuasion as her daughter. Between the two poor Whackle is reduced to a condition which suggests precautions on the part of his persecutors. Mrs. Blodger, for the sake of Amelia, insists that the unhappy husband shall ensure himself in an "Accidental Company." The hope of peace induces the miserable being to consent, and a policy for ten thousand dollars is made out in favor of "mamma." A sleepy engineer does the rest. Whackle is returning to his home; the night is foggy, and the train pitches through an open draw-bridge into the river. Our friend is in the smoking-car, engaged with about twenty others in the ascetic occupation of coloring a meerschaum. Of course they are all drowned. Poor Whackle's remains are forwarded to their destination, with his pipe, two brass keys, seven dollars in national bills, and twenty-four small buttons—the accumulated evidence of Mrs. Whackle's neglect. On the arrival of the effects, the nasty meerschaum is tossed out of the window, and the defunct son-in-law is transferred to lot No. 37 in the village cemetery. The last offices having been performed, Mrs. Whackle and her mamma prepare to enjoy, less commissions, the fruits of policy No. 773,047.

Here is the experience of Jeremy Diddler—policy A. I. Co., No. 22. We all know the unfortunate Jeremy. We fancy we see him now, as he enters our office and whispers nervously in our ear: "I say, Tom, lend me five dollars; I'll pay you in three days." The plausible fellow secures the amount and joyously departs. Four hundred and thirty-five days elapse, but Diddler does not appear. We have given up all hopes of ever seeing him again, when we suddenly encounter him as we turn the corner. "Tom, old boy," says he, "I have just taken out a policy in an 'accidental company;' lend me ten dollars more, and I'll pay you in a few days." We advance the sum on the possibility of remunerative bodily injuries.

Poor Diddler borrows small amounts here and there until he achieves a total of seventy-five dollars. With the proceeds of his successful raids he ensures himself in the "Fearnought Accidental Insurance Company," and pays fifty dollars for the policy. With twenty-five yet at his command, he carefully studies the most noted and dangerous routes of travel. The I. O. U. RR. offers the advantages of a single track and sharp curves. The U. O. Me. RR. traverses a long, black tunnel, full of horrors and profits. Jerry is about to trust his fortune to this line, when the newspapers announce the completion of a telegraph connecting both ends of the subterranean thoroughfare. The B. & F. RR. is out of repair, the engines are unsafe, and the conductors have a habit of racing with a parallel road. Acting upon the advice of interested parties, Jerry selects this route. He buys a ticket on the night express. The train starts thirty-five minutes behind time, and the maximum speed is soon attained. Diddler, with an eye to a remunerative crush, places himself near a stout, elderly female. The train rushes on, the lights of the opposition are close in the rear—a wild crash ensues. The concussion evokes the following phenomena: Jeremy is shot out of his seat, and finally lodges on the back of a gentleman who, being asleep at the moment of collision, is unaware that instantaneous death has overtaken him. The stout, elderly female, being of greater bulk, attains an immense momentum, and, after a flight singularly full of catastrophic successes, settles upon the fragments of the red hot stove, the victim of many burns and much internal discomfort. The agents of the insurance company, who are on the train, having disentangled our friend of policy No. 22 from the spine of the person on whom he has fallen, proceed to an examination of poor Diddler, and compute his injuries as follows:

1. Broken collar-bone, four weeks, ...	$200
2. Compound fracture of the fore-arm, five weeks more, . .	250
3. One deep wound in the chest—from which is extracted, by an obliging surgeon who happens to be present, a paper collar, the carte de visite (vignette) of the deceased gentleman's wife, and a brass suspender buckle—ten weeks more, . .	400
Grand total, ...	$850

Eight hundred and fifty dollars, exclusive of physician's fees, from an outlay of fifty dollars for a policy of insurance, and three dollars and forty-five cents, the price of a ticket on a judiciously chosen railway!

Ten days since, Jeremy Diddler entered our office, his face beaming with smiles, his arm in a sling, and his body enveloped in two flannel waistcoats. From the outside pocket of an expensive coat he carefully extracts a porcelain slate. "Dear Tom," he writes thereon, "my voice is lost to me for ever, my left arm is useless, but I'm a happy man. I start to-night by the lightning express on the B. & F. RR. In view of possible contingencies, I return the amount due you." The hardened adventurer takes his departure, wheezing as he passes into the street a joyful anthem through the hole in his chest.

If we look at "Accidental Insurance" from a social point of view, we may take the cases of young Tom Mallett, policy No. 73,777, and Harry Ball, policy No. 73,778, who are over to play a game of croquet with Miss Geraldine Hooper. It must be allowed that this amiable young woman is a cause of jealousy between the young men. What is more natural, therefore, than for Harry, while raising his mallet to "croquet" Tom, to deal his adversary a tremendous blow over the eye. Young Mallett drops to earth without uttering a sound. His lips move! Does he ask for water, or is he heaping curses upon Harry? How little do we understand the nature of insurers in an "Accidental Company!" Although Tom is suffering intolerable pain, he neither calls for refreshment nor execrates his rival; but, with a financial acumen that does him credit, he is calculating, as far as his muddled intellect will allow, the amount of compensation he will be entitled to upon his policy, provided he may manage to be laid up for three weeks. As Tom lapses into unconsciousness, he whispers in Geraldine's ear the words, "One hundred and fifty." Need we add that young Mallett received a check for the amount mentioned in his confidential communication to Miss Hooper?

The wonder is not that people can ensure themselves against accidents in travelling, but that the system has not been carried further, and that we have not been provided with means of ensuring ourselves against every other risk in life, against the occurrence of every event of an unpleasant nature which it is not in our own power to prevent. The field offered to enterprise in this whole business is really immense, and yet only a very small portion of it has been explored. For instance, why cannot young ladies ensure themselves against failure to get married before a certain age? Most single women want to be married if they can find a suitable husband, and there are only very few to whom marriage is not an object in a pecuniary point of view. There is, undoubtedly, something indelicate in claiming damages for breach of promise, but what possible objection could

there be in claiming compensation of an insurance company for never having received any promise at all?

Then why should not men be able to ensure themselves against the risks of primary meetings? At present, husbands and fathers in this city are apt to stay away from them, not by any means from consideration for their own skulls, of course, but from a fear of the consequences of a "knock-down" to their business and their families. Why does not some company step in with a million of capital and enable the patriotic citizen to brave the bludgeon and the knife without flinching or anxiety? Why, too, are so many young lawyers left to pine in uncertainty as to whether they will ever get any business, or at what time they will get it, when the payment of a small annual sum might secure them consolation in the shape of policy contingent on their not being elected corporation counsels or district-attorneys before a certain age? Why cannot a man provide for the receipt of an annuity in case he is elected to Congress or the Board of Aldermen, or the Board of Charities and Correction, or in case his throat or his eyes fail him, or in case his suit is rejected by the object of his affections, or his book does not sell, or his play is damned by the audience, or his poem by the critics, or his real estate does not rise, or, in fact, anything disagreeable happens to him which he could not have foreseen or, at least, averted? Capital is now tolerably abundant, the combinations of actuaries are infinite, and so are the ills of life. We commend these suggestions to the "live men" of the insurance business.

AMERICAN CATTLE.

It is not to be inferred from the fact that our common or "native" cows are made up of a mixture of various foreign stocks that they are, necessarily, of inferior quality. So far is this from being the case, that many might be selected from among them that would do credit to any highly improved breed. Their prevailing characteristic is the extreme want of uniformity, to which allusion has been made, and this, not in form and color alone, but in milking qualities, in early maturity, and in a tendency to fatten easily.

There is a well-established principle among the breeders of stock that like produces like, and this is the basis of all systems of improvement. Among the distinct races and well-marked breeds there is little difficulty in finding animals exhibiting this uniformity, but among a stock made up of an infinite mixture, descended from such widely different sources as we have seen to be the case with ours, this cannot easily be done.

Let us see how this affects the farmer's interest. There is a "native" cow. She came, perhaps, from a drove. Nobody knows anything of her origin, but she proves to be a remarkable milker. She may surpass all the cows about her, and the owner is anxious to have another of the same sort. He raises her daughter, at great expense, to the age of three or four years, only to find her quite unlike her mother, and comparatively worthless. His money has been thrown away, or, rather, there has been an actual loss on her, because her qualities do not realize his expectations, and the animal is not worth what it has cost to raise her. This is by no means a supposed case. It is the experience of thousands whose long years of waiting and expense for the offspring of some favorite cow have ended in disappointment. In other words, there is no certainty of results.

Now, two modes naturally presented themselves to the minds of those whose attention was early called to the importance of improving the stock of the country, either of which seemed to promise satisfactory results. The first was to select from among our common cattle the most perfect animals not known to belong to any of the breeds at that time established in Great Britain, and to use them as breeders. This mode is simple enough if adopted among the uniform breeds, and, indeed, it is the only course of improvement which preserves the purity of blood; but, as has been shown, we had no distinct race, no established breed of cattle in the country. We had none among which there was any reasonable certainty of results, none which could be depended upon for producing their like in their offspring. Take the best we could find, and the defects of an ill-born ancestry would continually "crop out" and lead to endless disappointment.

Besides this, to build up a breed or family of animals upon such a foundation, in the mode already indicated, that of careful selection, requires great experience, a quick and sure eye, an accurate judgment of the true points of stock, a mind eminently unprejudiced, and a patience and perseverance perfectly untiring. It would be quite necessary to pay special attention to the progeny thus produced, to furnish them at all times with an abundant supply of nutritious food, and to regulate it according to their growth.

Few men could be found willing to undertake the task of building up a breed in that way from grade or common stock, especially when there were other well-established breeds to which they could resort. Another prominent objection also occurred, and that was, that it would require a long series of years—longer than the natural business life of man—to effect the object. No two animals, made up as our cattle were, could be found sufficiently alike to produce their kind. The peculiarities of their ancestry would be liable to come out for several generations, and thus constantly thwart well-meant efforts.

The other plan was more feasible, and that was, to select animals from races already known to exist, and to cross them with our cattle, selecting such individuals from the well-known breeds as were best calculated for the special purposes we had in view. If we wanted to produce a stock for the dairy, for instance, we should select animals belonging to a race distinguished for dairy qualities, or, if we resort to other breeds less remarkable for these qualities, we should select only such animals as have descended from remarkable milkers. We desire to be able to rely with some degree of confidence upon getting the qualities we seek.

Dairy qualities do not belong to any one breed exclusively; but as they depend especially on structure and temperament, which are hereditary to a great extent, they are themselves transmissible. In almost every pure breed we may find individual milkers which far surpass the average of cows of the same family, and many suppose good crosses may be obtained through the male offspring which descends from them, without regard to other circumstances. But these qualities are exceptional, perhaps, and it is far safer to resort to those breeds possessing what we desire to obtain in the highest degree.

Now, it was found that certain races existed in England with well-defined characteristics, while certain breeds had been built up through a course of improvements, conducted with remarkable judgment and sagacity, each possessing characteristics which they transmitted to their offspring. Among the former may be mentioned the Devons and the Herefords. Among the latter, the short-horns, the Ayrshires, and, perhaps, the Jerseys from the Channel Islands. The Devons are small in size, fine in the bone, of a beautiful red uniform color, coming pretty early to maturity, with a fine-grained and well-marbled beef—that is, beef in which the fat and lean are well mixed throughout the tissues—not remarkable for quantity of milk, and seldom bred for the dairy. Their milk is of a rich and desirable quality, however, while as working oxen they are rarely surpassed. They are so perfectly uniform in color, size, and other characteristics, such as activity and docility, that they may be matched with great ease.

The Hereford is essentially a Devon with a considerable addition to its size. It is uniformly white in the face, while most of its body is of a deep, rich red. A few incline to roan. It gives but little milk. It is rarely bred with any reference to dairy qualities, any more than the Devon. Both these races furnish the finest beef. Both have been improved to the utmost with a special view to these qualities. Prince Albert established a magnificent herd of each, the former upon the Norfolk farm, where grazed a splendid herd of a hundred head, while a magnificent herd of ninety pure-bred Herefords were kept upon an adjoining estate called the Flemish farm, two miles from Windsor Castle. Many of the nobility, also, admire and possess those superb breeds.

The short-horns trace back their origin a little less than a century. More money, more time and skill, have been devoted to the perfection of this fashionable breed than to that of any other in any part of the world. Coming first into notice along the banks of the Tees, and around the graceful slopes of the county of Durham, they have worked their way into all parts of the United Kingdom, and now stand unrivalled for beauty, for symmetry of form, and for early maturity. They stamp their peculiar characteristics on any breed or class of cows with which they are crossed, and hence there is scarcely any that they have not improved. They are of immense size, and more inclined to lay on fat, especially when not giving milk, than any other breed. They require generous feeding, of course, and are not adapted to regions of short pasture. The Devons would thrive on lands where the short-horns could never attain perfection—where, indeed, they would almost starve.

The Ayrshires are the dairy breed of Scotland. They are of small size, rather smaller than the Herefords, or even the Devons. Size is no object there, the smaller Ayrshires being preferred for the dairy. Where land is light, or if only of medium quality, the Ayrshire is the most valuable, especially in regions where dairy husbandry is pursued. If removed to other and richer soils she grows to larger size, but her milking qualities are injured by the change. The milk of the Ayrshire cow is unsurpassed for consumption in its natural form, as milk, or for the manufacture of cheese. Owing to its richness in casein, the butyraceous particles do not rise through it so readily to the surface and hence though naturally rich and of excellent

quality, it does not throw up so much rich cream in a given length of time as the milk of some other breeds.

The Jersey cow is a native of the Channel Islands, or rather of the islands of Jersey and Alderney, near the coast of France. She has long been celebrated for the richness of her milk and the delicious butter qualities it possesses. No breed surpasses the Jersey in this respect. This breed was first taken from Jersey to the island of Alderney about ninety years ago, and as it first made its appearance in England from that island, it went for many years under the name of Alderney, though the term Jersey is more appropriate. The improvements upon this breed date back only about thirty years, though its high character for the dairy was established long previous, more than a century ago. The island is only eleven miles long by about five and a half wide, and it is divided up into small holdings, but so great is the reputation of its cows that from one thousand to twenty-five hundred are annually exported at great prices. The importation of cows of any other breed is strictly prohibited.

These are the principal breeds to which American farmers have resorted; and as they have exerted a powerful and widely marked influence upon American stock, it seemed proper to allude to them at the outset. Let us take a glance at the importations which mark the progress of improvement in this branch of rural economy.

In the year 1783, three gentlemen of Baltimore, Md., Messrs. Goff, Ringold, and Patton, sent to England for some of the best cattle that could be found. It is not probable that their minds were fixed upon any distinct breeds; for at that time none of them can be said to have risen into general notoriety, unless it may be the long-horns of Bakewell. The reputation of the short-horns was then scarcely founded. "Hubback," the celebrated male to which the pedigrees of that family are usually traced, was then but six years old. The fame of the Devons and Herefords was chiefly confined to their respective counties. A few animals were received in response to this order; and two years later, in 1785, a male from this importation was taken to Kentucky, followed not long after by another lot of the same stock. It was then known as the "Patton Stock." From that time the improvement of the stock of that State dates; for it became so celebrated that, for many years after, to be said to come from the Patton stock was a sufficient certificate of goodness and character. A part of this importation was called the "milk breed," and another part the "beef breed." The former were probably short-horns, which at that time furnished the milky mothers of the herd; and the latter long-horns, large, coarse, and rough, but slow in maturing. This stock gained a wide reputation, which lasted down to the present day, or certainly to within the memory of men still living.

Colonel Sanders, of Kentucky, sent out for twelve of the finest animals in England in 1817. Six of them were short-horns. The climate and soil of that great State are so admirably adapted to bringing these splendid cattle to perfection, that they were not long in exciting a spirited emulation among the enterprising farmers of Kentucky, which had a most salutary effect, and the southern portions of Ohio soon caught the spirit of improvement in stock from across the river.

Henry Clay, in the same year, 1817, imported four Herefords, two males and two females, into Kentucky, at a cost of $500. This was the first of the Herefords in that part of the country. They stood their ground, an ornament to Ashland and to the State, for some years; but the popular taste finally settled upon the short-horns as the stock for that region, and they have maintained their high reputation for many years.

A few short-horns were imported into Westchester County, New York, as early as 1792 and 1796, where they were kept pure for some years, but finally became scattered, leaving, however, distinct traces in their descendants there to this day. Other importations of this grand breed were made into New York in 1816 and 1822, and in 1818 "Cœlebs," a celebrated short-horn, and "Flora," of the same family, came into Massachusetts, where they founded a class of cows known as the "Creampots," on the farm of Col. Samuel Jaques, at Somerville, near Boston. "Flora" was the mother of a large family of fourteen, between 1819 and 1833. In 1818, also, Gorham Parsons, of Brighton, imported "Fortunatus," sometimes called "Holderness," and his descendants were widely disseminated throughout New England.

The same year, also, Theodore Lyman, of Boston, imported a remarkably fine male, which soon went to Maine, where he established a wide-spread reputation, and founded a large family of stock. It was in 1818 that Stephen Williams, of Northboro', Mass., imported the famous "Young Denton," the sire of a large number of remarkable milkers. The success of these importations led to numerous others, the most celebrated of which was that of "Nelson," by W. Pierce, of Greenland, near Portsmouth, N. H., who also brought over the cow "Symmetry," the parents of the great ox "Americus," whose size became so enormous that he was exhibited about the country as the wonder of the nineteenth century, and afterwards sent to England as the product of American breeding.

In 1824 Mr. Powell, of Philadelphia, began the importation of short-horns, and bred them with success for many years. He held frequent sales, and his stock went into Kentucky, Ohio, and elsewhere. But the great impulse given to the importation of this fine breed was the formation of the Ohio Company for Importing English Cattle in 1834, when the sum of $9,200 was subscribed in $100 shares, and agents sent abroad, who brought over nineteen head selected from the most celebrated herds in England. The number was increased till 1836, when they were sold at public auction and scattered extensively over Ohio, and a dividend of $280 a share was immediately declared, amounting to $25,760. The following year the company made another extensive importation, which sold rapidly, and resulted in immense benefits to the country.

This rapid glance at some of the earlier importations of short-horns is sufficient to give an idea of the gradually increasing and extending interest and enterprise in breeding this class of cattle. Since 1840 these importations have been so numerous and so frequent that it would be out of place, in this connection, to give them in detail. It is sufficient to say that the best of the choicest and most celebrated herds in England have been brought to this country without regard to cost. A thousand guineas for a single animal has proved no obstacle in the eyes of enterprising men. Five or six thousand dollars, to which the cost of transportation is to be added, have been repeatedly paid, at public sales, in England, for animals that now grace or have graced our American herds, and so successful have these purchases proved, that, in repeated instances, nearly as large amounts have been paid by Englishmen to our own breeders for the same animals, or their progeny, to take back to their native country.

To a person not conversant with matters pertaining to this branch of progressive agriculture these prices seem fabulous, and yet, when closely examined, it will be found that, considered in the light of business transactions alone, they have proved, in many cases, to be judicious investments to the individual, while, at the same time, they have contributed largely to the honor and prosperity of American agriculture. A simple allusion to the statistics of a single State will serve to place this in a striking light.

During the ten or twelve years preceding the outbreak of the rebellion, the live stock of Ohio increased in value, according to official statistics, more than two hundred per cent., while, at the same time, no class of stock in that State increased in numbers, in the same time, so much as one hundred per cent. If it be said that so remarkable an increase must be ascribed to an increase of demand rather than quality of the stock itself, it can be clearly shown that intrinsically better animals superseded the inferior native cattle to a large extent, owing in part to the vastly increased means of communication by railway and the facilities for information consequent upon this increase.

When the great sales of the Ohio Stock Importing Company took place, in 1834, 1836, and 1837, they were hardly accessible to the great mass of cattle-breeders, even of that State, and the stock had acquired a local, rather than a general, reputation. It could hardly be otherwise at that date, so limited were the facilities for travel as compared with those of ten years later And what is true of Ohio is true of most other great cattle-breeding States of the West.

We propose to allude, in a future paper, to the progress of other breeds in other parts of the country, and to point out the different objects for which cattle are kept.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXIV.

COLUMBIA, S. C., Dec. 15, 1865.

GENERAL ELY, the chief officer of the Freedmen's Bureau in Northern South Carolina, is accustomed to make frequent short excursions into the various districts of which he has charge, for the purpose of conferring with the planters and addressing the freedmen. Last week his duties led him out to Edgefield, and I was invited to accompany him. He was also accompanied by an armed orderly, for it is his opinion, based upon personal experience, that an agent of the Bureau is not so safe in the remote and lonely roads as an ordinary traveller. Edgefield Court House is about sixty miles from Columbia, and, as there is no public conveyance, we were to travel on horseback and be absent four days. The morning of departure was close and warm, and we set out with our overcoats strapped to the saddle,

but soon after crossing the Congaree, a small rain began to drizzle down, making the road a little sloppier than before and lending the landscape an aspect still more cheerless. Not much was to be seen but trees, for the part of Lexington District through which we were riding is a desolate region, sandy and thinly settled. In the first five miles we passed several houses undestroyed and the remains of two or three that had been burnt, and then for twenty miles there was slight evidence of human habitation. Such dwellings as we saw were nearly all of the poorest kind, and more properly to be called huts than houses. At one of them we were accosted by a ragged, unwholesome-looking lad, who begged sturdily for money or bread. It was the first case of the kind that had fallen under my observation, but both of my companions spoke of having met with similar instances, the beggar being sometimes a child and sometimes an adult. We rode slowly all day through the wet weather and at evening slower still, for, just as the night set in, very dark and with heavy rain, we turned from the main thoroughfare and travelled through the woods along a less frequented road. After an hour and more a light appeared among the trees, and soon, emerging from the forest, we came into a small clearing whose sandy fields could just be distinguished by their white glimmer amid the surrounding blackness. The light we had seen shone through the open door of a log cabin, and the orderly was sent to find out if there was a stable on the premises and to claim a night's lodging. The name of the general procured us a grudging admission, for the woman's husband was away from home and her accommodations for visitors were of the scantiest sort. She came out with a light-wood torch above her head and scrutinized us: "Gentlemen," she said, "if I let ye put up, and give yer critters some corn, ye 'll pay me, won't ye? We 're poor folks, and we don't take in strangers, and my husband ar' n't yer." She was assured that our stay should make her no poorer, and, taking courage, she first lighted us out to the stable and then proceeded to prepare supper. Her house contained one room, with an immense fireplace at one end and two beds at the other. It was without a window, but the two doors stood wide open. An uneven floor of bending boards was under foot, and overhead we could see the shingles, for there was no loft. Besides the beds, the furniture consisted of a table, a clock, four chairs, and a spinning-wheel. The loom stood under a shed at the back-door.

At supper we had cakes of flour and water, fried in lard, and a panful of fresh pork, for it is now the time of "saving meat," and pork in some form is a standing dish at all tables. While we ate, the woman stood near making apologies for the poor fare. She reckoned we could n't hardly see, but a piece o' light-wood was all the candle she had; our women folks made better roll-cakes than them—they had stoves to cook with; Yankee coffee she could n't offer us, for she 'd seen none since the war; and, for a wonder, this remark was not followed by any expression of regret at the deprivation. She 'd had to drink cold water in the war, and now she thought she 'd stick to it, for she had n't had the sick headache since she left to drink coffee. After supper she talked about her circumstances.

"She did n't know how much land they had; there was forty acres cleared. It was all mighty poor, through that country, for farmin'. She did n't reckon they got three bushels of wheat to the acre, and it was worse yet for corn. Corn was scarce this year, and when they went up on to the ridge to buy, they axed two dollars a bushel and the greenback money they would n't have nohow, but wanted the silver; they said the greenback money would n't be good in no time at all; *she* thought it was good, but they thought it warn't. They did n't raise cotton, only a little patch, enough for her factory. She spun and wove all the cloth they needed." Then she went and got out three pieces of cotton goods and brought them for our inspection. "That 's some o' my factory," she said. "The black dye was got from the oak bark, and there was a bank of dirt right close that would color red and yellow; roast it and it colored a clever red, and take it right natural and it colored yellow. They had n't no great use for store goods—a little salt and tobacco sometimes was about the furdest. They lived within themselves altogether. As for the war, *she* niver knowed what they brought it on for. Her old man was out o' age for goin', but two of her boys went, and one got killed the 13th day of July was a year, at Petersburg. And what was the rich folks any better? They 'd lost all their niggers, and she was mighty glad of it. She wished them and the niggers had been at the bottom o' the sea." The general enquired how the negroes were getting along; if the planters abused them?

"They was mighty few in that settlement," she replied; "and where she lived it was n't any great of a place for news, so she did n't know much about it." She did n't know anything, then, about that preacher up in Edgefield? A negro preacher, it appears, was killed in that district some three weeks since, and the murderer still remains undiscovered. "She had been told about it only the day before," she said. "Now that man—that Wade—shot up in Newbury, she 'd heard about him sooner." This was a case of which the general had heard nothing, and he put many questions in reference to it, without, however, eliciting much information, for she had forgotten the circumstances. A report of it was probably made at the time directly to General Saxton's headquarters in Charleston, and will yet be forwarded to General Ely for his information and action.

At bed-time both beds were given up to us, while the woman and a young girl who was living with her slept on the floor before the fire. Contrary to expectation, we passed a comfortable night, and, after partaking of a breakfast like the supper, willingly paid our hospitable hostess the six dollars which she hesitatingly demanded. She was quite unlearned, and could not read the figures on the Treasury notes.

The day was cold and overcast, and we had a comfortless, muddy ride to Edgefield village. The first few miles of it lay along the Tarbucket Road as the old woman called it, and the country seemed to be worse, if possible—a thirstier sand and more deserted—than what we had seen on the previous day; but after crossing the district boundary, and getting into Edgefield, its appearance became very much better. The houses were handsome and commodious, seeming to be the residences of wealthy men, and the one before us could be seen while the one behind was yet in sight. There was very little wild land. The farm buildings and negro quarters were in good order, and sometimes very numerous. The fences were still standing, and on several plantations the hands were engaged in the winter work of repairing them; and, altogether, this portion of Edgefield appeared to be better improved and thriftier than any district of equal extent that I have yet seen. The surface is level, and the soil is a light loam, which looks well adapted to cotton. This year but little planting has been done, though I saw a few fields in cotton, and passed some houses in which ginning was going on; also a good deal of old cotton was under the screw in process of repacking. On every plantation where short-staple cotton is raised, the screw is a prominent object. Looked at from a little distance, it may be roughly described as presenting the form of a gigantic letter A. The point is at the top of the screw, and some fifteen feet from the ground. A mule is harnessed to the lower end of one of the limbs, and walks in a circle about the central post. The cotton-bag is placed on a raised platform between the limbs, and, the screw descending, a great quantity of the lint is pressed into a small compass. At one place which we passed, relays of women were substituted for the mules; one would run round once or twice, then another would take her place, and the old planter stood by to superintend.

As we rode along, the general was repeatedly stopped to answer questions: sometimes it would be a planter enquiring if he should divide the crop among the people, or if a soldier would be sent out for that purpose; but oftener it would be a negro enquiring if he was obliged to work another year on the plantation where he now lives, or was at liberty to seek work anywhere, or complaining that his master would make no new contract with him, but said that after January negroes would be willing to take lower wages, and he should hire nobody till then. Some expressed themselves satisfied with the treatment they had been receiving, but many charged their employers with having violated the contracts made last summer. Several of the men, after it seemed that all their questions had been answered, would still walk along eagerly asking more, and evidently anxious to ascertain their position and prospects. The enquiries and statements often revealed a total misconception of rights and duties, sometimes on the part of the laborer and sometimes on the part of the employer. From what he heard, the general seemed to conclude that free labor has less chance of a fair trial in Edgefield, and that the negro may look for more injustice there, than in most other parts of the State. The district is extensive and less remote from the main lines of travel. It was never occupied by the federal army, and its many large and fertile plantations, owned by men still rich, stand ready for cultivation unchanged and uninjured by the war. As it seems to the people, therefore, more easily possible to preserve the old order of things, and as the material inducements are greater, it may be reasonably suspected that the desire to do so is stronger there than elsewhere. To me, however, it seems not different from other parts of South Carolina.

We reached Edgefield village a little after dark, and were received by the captain of the garrison, who made us welcome at his quarters in the county jail. Notice had been previously given that the general would address the freedmen on the following day, and already they had begun to come in from the neighboring country. A score or two were waiting in the court-house square as we rode through it. I slept in the rambling old tavern at a corner where two roads entered the square, and, being kept awake by the curs beneath the window, who challenged each passer-by, I could hear the people still arriving, one by one, up to a late hour in the night and in crowds after three o'clock. Before eight o'clock more than a thousand

had come in, and the number increased afterwards to two thousand. Most were on foot, but some had ridden in; and several whom I asked said their masters wanted all the boys to hear what the general thought, and had loaned them the animals. All were in their best clothes, and, despite the depressing influence of the weather, the crowd was in very good spirits, filling the square with the noise of laughter and salutations, though on some faces there was an expression of expectation and some of the hand-shaking was done with solemnity. The landlord, an irascible old man, was much displeased at the sight.

"Aha!" said he. "Oh, they 've come now. Look at 'em. Now they 're to get their half o' the land and the stock."

"You do n't think they expect that?" I said.

"Do n't?" he answered. "Well, now, I 'll tell you. If the general do n't tell them cuffees they 're to have their share o' our land and hosses and everything else, you 'll see a hell of a row to-day. They 'll turn their backs on him right here in this square, and there 'll be a hell of a row, as sure 's you 're born. They do n't expect nothin' else but they 're to have a half."

Before the address was delivered, the general sat in the midst of a throng of people listening to the recital of their grievances and giving them advice. One good-looking yellow man, about thirty years old, waited some time for his turn to speak, and then told this story: He lived on a plantation ten miles from the court-house, and was a stiller by trade. The white people round about had been saying that the negroes there had guns—Government muskets, of which there are said to be many through the country. On Saturday last, J. R. and fourteen others of the home-guard, with a Yankee soldier, came down to the place and said they were searching for United States arms. He knew this federal soldier, for the man had once come to him and begged a drink of brandy, "which I gave it to the gentleman freely, and was proud to do it." This soldier told him the guard had a right to search, and were acting in obedience to orders, and then rode away and left him with them. They demanded his gun. He had none, he told them, and for some time they persisted in the demand and he in the denial. At last one said, "I 'll get it out of him," and, going away for a few minutes, returned with a chain. With this they hung him "till I lost my sense, and when I come to a good understandin', they asked me 'would I give up the gun, now?' and I told them, 'Gentlemen, I *got* no gun.'" Hung up again, and again restored to consciousness, he made the same reply as before, and was hung for the third time. Then they stripped off his clothes and gave him a severe beating, of which the marks were still to be seen upon his body, as well as those of the chain upon his throat and neck. "I told them the truth," he said, "for I had n't got any arms. These here is all the arms I has got. And yet they put me to death three times. Which, if I had ha' knowed how easy death was, I would n't ha' feared it so. And I do n't expect they 're agoin' to let me live now I made this complain to you, gineral; but they may kill me for good as soon as they chooses." Here he began to cry. "Which I has n't got anything in the world but myself, for I has n't got any family, nor any parents, nor any land, nor any money, and I know I is not to be any worse off in the grave than I is now."

Two other cases of hanging were reported, names were taken, and an investigation ordered. The home-guard, or militia, is now organized in most of the districts. It has its own officers, but is in the control of the federal commander, and can perform such duties only as are confided to it by him.

The general's speech was, of course, listened to with the utmost attention. He told them, and they heard it with expressions of satisfaction, that it was their right to establish schools for the education of their children; that they were free to meet together for religious worship; that they might seek work wherever they chose; but that a contract once made must be strictly observed. If the employer broke it, he must be sued and made to do justice; and if the laborer broke it, he must expect to be sued and to lose his wages. A negro's oath would be good as a white man's in all the courts, and in all respects he was now a free man. Honesty, industry, and chastity would give them a good name; and though they could not expect to become rich or well educated in one year nor in two, yet their condition would be all the time improving, and many of them would live to see their race happy and prosperous. The negro owned the labor, and the planter owned the land; each needed the other, and each must be just to the other. If any freedman wanted land, he must earn money enough to purchase it; the Government had none to give away. It was plainly evident that this part of the address caused disappointment. The faces of the audience showed it; but nothing was said, and they listened with the same patient attention and anxious endeavor to understand every word that they had evinced from the beginning. It was explained to them that one of the Union generals had made a promise of land to the freedmen, but that nobody knew at that time of war what the Government might see fit to do when peace came. It had since been decided that the former owners of land should retain it, and now the United States had no land to give away. Then advice was given them in reference to making contracts for next year, and they were cautioned to sign nothing that they did not understand. It would be best to make the agreement in presence of a federal officer.

The rain had been falling throughout the time of speaking, and at the conclusion of it the square was immediately emptied, for some of the people had twenty miles to travel. There was no disturbance, except that a drunken man, who cursed the Yankees at the top of his voice, and could not be kept quiet by admonitions, was lodged in jail till the meeting broke up. The weather was such as to prevent a large concourse of the planters; but a few were present, who sat in their carriages on the outskirts of the crowd.

In the afternoon, taking to our horses again, we rode back some twenty-five miles on our way to Columbia, being accompanied by the garrison commander, who was to sit on a court-martial, and at night, dripping wet, reached the house of a wealthy planter, at whose hands we received a most hospitable welcome. He was an elderly man, living alone in a great house full of bare, dismantled rooms—Liberty Hall it might have been styled from the manner of its housekeeping—and waited upon by a crowd of male and female servants. Fires were lighted at which to dry our clothes, a plentiful supper of pork and corn bread was prepared, and we were bidden to make ourselves completely at home. On going to bed a barefooted mulatto woman carried a whiskey-bottle and glasses from chamber to chamber, and in the morning it was brought to us again as soon as we had risen. "Dem boys do jest what they please," the servant said, in apologizing for the absence of light-wood, and master himself had to follow them all the time if he wanted anything. Besides our party there were four or five other chance guests in one part of the house or another. All were bountifully provided for, and I saw, not without surprise, none were allowed to pay for their lodging. I suppose the negroes on this plantation can hardly be taken as a fair sample of those living about them, for they seemed to live perfectly at ease and uncontrolled. One of them, whom his master laughingly introduced as "the old Adam, the preacher on the place," walked into the parlor after supper, and informed the general that some of the boys had been up to the village that day to hear the speaking. They were dissatisfied with it. The advice he had been giving them all along was precisely the same as what they had now heard from the general, but they could not be content. He would like to hear better what the general had to say, and then he could use his influence over his fellow-servants.

"I offer them a third of the crop," said Mr. N., "as Adam can tell you, and I believe that 's what you advise, general; but they say that won't do at all. I believe they think they own the plantation. You 're their best friend, they all know, and I 'm very glad you 've come down this way."

So, for some minutes, the general conversed with the old preacher, who seemed very sensible of the honor conferred upon him, and felt confident that now he could keep the people in good order. They were good boys, but they did n't know.

After getting into bed, I was called on by a gentleman, like myself a guest in the house, whose visits to the sideboard had been too frequent, and who now walked into my room and took a seat before the fire. "Some men," he said, "is dreadful ornery. Beats the Dutch what ornery men 'll run for the legislature. Now I 've got thirty-five workin' niggers; nor they ha'n't been corrected much, nuther; but they do jest as well to-day as they ever done. I 'll go home, and I 'll skin one o' them cusses, and he 'll say it 's all right; for, you see, he knows I 'll treat him like a man. You see I never let myself down to 'em. They a' n't in and out o' my house, and just as good as I am, and doin' what they please. The worst niggers now is two kinds o' niggers—them that was cut and lashed and knocked about befo', and them that never was under rule. Them 's the mean niggers now." I was too sleepy for conversation, and he soon left me to myself.

On the following day, an uneventful ride of thirty-five miles brought us to the banks of the Congaree, which was swollen and red from the heavy rains. The rope-ferry, however, was able to take us across, and in a few minutes we were riding among the ruins of Columbia.

Correspondence.

FARRER'S WATER-COLORS

ASHFIELD, January 1, 1866.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

DEAR SIR: In the criticism of my drawing which appeared in your last number, there is one paragraph which I feel bound, in justice to myself, of notice.

The summing-up of the criticism is in these words: "The inevitable tendency of this sort of work is shown by the little drawing of three eggs. Each egg is rounded with great subtlety of gradation into its complete form. But, in doing this, the painter has been compelled to lower the tone of the whole, and they are not white eggs that we have. That they were meant to be, the high light seems to show."

Now, they were *not* meant for white eggs. The central one was, as it appears in the drawing, *white;* but the other two were the pale buff color always to be found in any large number of city eggs.

I would not trouble you with this were it not that, in criticisms that profess to be accurate and just, and which help to form public opinion, any misstatement is important. I am, sincerely yours,

THOMAS C. FARRER.

SHAKESPEARE AND CARLYLE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Readers of the fifth volume of Carlyle's "Frederick" will observe a passage which seems to throw a curious light on a much puzzled-over line of Shakespeare, and gives support to a keen guess of R. G. White. The line is in *Diana's* speech in "All 's Well that Ends Well:"

> "I see that men make ropes (hopes?) in such a *scarre*
> That we 'll forsake ourselves."

White observes that somewhere in Dodsley's "Old Plays" the word "scarre" seems to occur in the sense of tumult or quarrel, but that the editor treats it simply as a misprint for "scare." Compare therewith the sentence, "Derangés par cette '*escarre*,'" in Montcalm's letter, where "escarre" evidently means violent and sudden attack. The letter is so very minute a prophecy as to be very possibly written after the event; but that makes it none the worse authority for the word. This reading ("escarre" for "a scarre") gives most obvious and intelligible meaning to the line, "Men hope that by sudden and violent attack like this we shall be won to surrender without cause." S. T.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

A NEW work by Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton is among the latest book announcements in London, to be called "The Lost Tales of Miletus," a title that certainly savors of a bull, as, if the tales are "lost," how comes it that Sir Bulwer Lytton can publish them? The nature of the work may be predicated with some probability from the name. The Milesians had the credit, among the continental Greeks, of being the first Hellenic people who cultivated fiction, and are supposed to have derived the taste from the neighboring Asiatic nations. The "Tales of Miletus" that they invented were considered the earliest specimens of fictitious narrative. The tales thus invented, and of which the name has become so celebrated, have all perished. There is little known of them except that they were the "Facetiæ" of antiquity and not of a very moral tendency—a feature that we may be sure the literary baronet will not reproduce. Sir Edward's new publisher is Mr. John Murray, a fact rather curious, as this house has steadily kept aloof from being connected with works of fiction, and the author's relations with Messrs. Blackwood & Sons—in whose magazine most of his late works have first appeared—have hitherto been of a very intimate nature.

—Among the curiosities of the press in England arising from the instances of the indulgence of particular tastes by wealthy individuals, who publish for their own gratification without the expectation of a pecuniary return, is a huge and handsomely printed quarto on the science of aerostation, entitled "Astra Castra," or adventures in the atmosphere. It consists of a collection of everything that could be found relating to the navigation of the air, from Dædalus down to the present time. The accounts are merely put together in chronological order, from various sources, and are accompanied by two hundred fac-similes of portraits, views, hand-bills, tickets, etc., and everything odd and out-of-the-way connected with the subject that time has spared for the curious collector. Some facts of interest may be gathered from the mass. It is calculated that the number of aeronauts may be approximately taken at fifteen hundred and the ascents at about ten thousand, while the number of deaths or fatal accidents have only been fifteen, a result quite at variance with the current ideas of the danger incurred, and a very small number in comparison with those arising from marine navigation. The longest aerial voyage on record is credited to America—Mr. Wise having flown from St. Louis towards New York, a distance of 1,150 miles, in less than twenty hours.

—The "Gentleman's Magazine" commences a new stage of existence at the ripe age of one hundred and thirty-four years, by a singular move from its old quarters. It is in future to be published by Messrs. Bradbury & Evans, whose names have been widely spread as the proprietors and publishers of *Punch*. The new editor is said to be a Mr. Edward Walford, author of some genealogical compilations, etc. A larger space than formerly is to be devoted to belles-lettres and current literature of all kinds, fiction and politics alone being excluded, while due attention will be paid to the "obituary" and other distinguishing features of the journal.

—A remarkable work in the department of American history is about to see the light after a seclusion lasting for the greater part of a century. We refer to a "Loyalist History of the American Revolution," particularly in the Province of New York. It was written by Judge Thomas Jones, a member of the family of that name so famous in our juridical annals, who occupied the highest station in the Supreme Court of the Province previous to the Revolution, and who presided at the famous trial of the Trinity Church case. The manuscript fills five folio volumes, neatly written in the autograph of the author, and will probably, with the necessary editorial matter, make the same number of octavos. The MS. came by marriage into the possession of the Delancy family. So different was the feeling even in recent days from that which now prevails that it was carefully kept out of sight, and not allowed to be consulted, as being a work that would create mischief and ill-feeling, from the facts recorded by the author bearing on the reputation of many popular favorites. There is no doubt historic truth will gain—not lose—by an exhibition of the contrary side of a well-known story. Time has softened the asperities that formerly embittered the discussion of political questions. New facts will be warmly welcome, from whatever source they may come. Judge Jones's history will be edited by Mr. Henry B. Dawson, editor of the "Federalist," and author of various works on the Revolutionary history of the United States, all testifying to the appropriateness of the selection.

—The origin and early history of printing—a subject that never loses its attraction as the groundwork of literary and artistic research—receives much elucidation from an elaborate work on "The History of Block Printing, and the Early History of Engraving before Albert Dürer," just completed by Mr. T. O. Weigel, the famous old book collector and seller of Leipzic, who has for many years been engaged in amassing materials necessary for its investigation. His object has been to examine the relation of typography to the sister-arts of engraving and wood-cutting, and to show how they mutually illustrate one another's progress. He brings forward evidence to prove that the art of engraving was first practised in Germany, and thence transplanted to Italy. The same priority is claimed for Germany in all that relates to the discovery of printing over the pretensions of Holland, where no specimens have been found that date previous to 1460, and indubitable evidence is brought forward to corroborate the just pretension of John Gutenberg to be considered the inventor of printing with movable types in the city of Mentz. Mr. Weigel's work is so richly illustrated that it forms a complete history of the graphic arts, their invention and cultivation during the fifteenth century, embellished throughout by the art monuments of the Weigel collection. These are given in a series of nearly two hundred fac-similes of the most perfect execution, representing prints on woven fabrics, metal engravings, wood-cuts, playing-cards, Niellos, etc., etc. The work is comprised in two volumes folio, three hundred and twenty-five copies only being printed, a large portion of which are already subscribed for at the English price of twelve guineas each.

—From a list of the ages of living English writers, given in Gutch's "Literary and Scientific Register" for 1866, we select some respecting whom most interest is felt in this country, as—Matthew Arnold, 41; Wilkie Collins, 42; John Ruskin, 47; Rev. Charles Kingsley, 47; Captain Mayne Reid, 48; George Henry Lewes, 49; Tom Taylor, 49; William Howard Russell, 50; Anthony Trollope, 51; Charles Reade, 52; Robert Browning, 54; Charles Dickens, 54; Alfred Tennyson, 57; Sir Archibald Alison, 56; William E. Gladstone, 56; Charles Lever, 59; Rev. F. D. Maurice, 61; Sir E. Bulwer Lytton, 61; Benjamin Disraeli, 61; Barry Cornwall, 67; Samuel Lover, 68; Thomas Carlyle, 70; William Howitt, 71; Dean Milman, 75; Charles Knight, 74; John Payne Collier, 77; and the Nestor of the tribe, Lord Brougham, 86. There is no similar enumeration of the ages of literary ladies, as statistics on the subject are very difficult of attainment.

—"English Travellers and Italian Brigands: A Narrative of Capture and Captivity," is the title of a work announced by Mr. William Moens, the English gentleman—a member of the Stock Exchange—whose adventures

among the brigands, from whom his fate was long in suspense, cannot be wanting in interest of the most thrilling kind, if he is able to reproduce on paper the experience he must have endured. It will be remembered how long the negotiations for his ransom were in progress, and were conducted with almost diplomatic formality. Mr. Moens's book will be in two volumes post octavo, with illustrations. Its publishers are Messrs. Hurst & Blackett, who promise speedily the second volume of Miss Meteyard's beautifully illustrated "Life of Josiah Wedgwood;" "Religious Life on the Continent," by Mrs. Oliphant, author of the "Life of Edward Irving," etc.; "The Life and Letters" of the unfortunate Lady Arabella Stuart, including numerous original and unpublished documents, by Emily Cooper; "Social Life in Florence," by Count Charles Arrivabene; "From Cadet to Colonel: The Record of a Life of Active Service," by Major-General Sir Thomas Seaton; "Sport and Sportsmen," a book of recollections, by Charles Stretton, Esq.; "Memoirs and Correspondence of Field-Marshal Viscount Combermere" (better known during the Peninsular Campaign as the famous cavalry officer, Sir Stapleton Cotton), from his family papers, with portrait and illustrations; and a new novel, called "A Noble Life," by the late Miss Muloch.

—M. Topfer's "Voyage in Zig-Zag," a style of travelling narrative where the pencil plays a more important part than the pen, was the prototype of what seems destined to become a special class of literature. The world renowned "Foreign Tour of Brown, Jones, and Robinson" is the best known of its imitators. Another successful attempt was published last year, "How We Spent the Summer in Switzerland," and the authoress, encouraged by its reception, announces "Beaten Tracks; or, Pen and Pencil Sketches in Italy," in one volume quarto, with two hundred illustrations, describing a journey in North Italy during the last spring, and giving a history of the Dante festival and other Italian *fêtes*, modern Florence as a new capital, the social habits and manners of the people, its king, the customs of the peasantry, etc. The best specimen of this combination of the sketch-book and journal produced here is Mr. Strothers's (*Porte Crayon*) illustrated Tour in Virginia and the Southern States, which came out in "Harper's Magazine," and was collected in a volume that will grow in value with time.

—The projectors of the well-known beautiful "Golden Treasury Series" show a laudable desire to enlarge the narrow boundaries that confine most similar collections to the wearisome "standard authors," that we already possess in every variety of form or shape, by the choice of their new volume; it is "The Republic of Plato," translated into English, with analysis and notes, by J. Llewellyn Davies, M.A., and D. J. Vaughan, M.A., with vignette portraits of Plato and Socrates, engraved from an antique gem. As a concession to popular taste, we suppose, its companion volume is "The Adventures of Robinson Crusoe," edited from the original editions by J. W. Clark, Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, with vignette title by Millais.

—A new process of engraving, from which important results are expected on the score of fidelity to the artist's drawings, has lately been discovered and is already beginning to be used for art purposes. It is well known that when the most accomplished artist makes the most elaborate drawing on wood, he is dependent for its execution on the engraver, who often, to gratify his own notions of effect or to save trouble, does not spare the finished touches of the draughtsman, but cuts them all away in his rendering of the drawing. By the new process the subject is drawn on a prepared slab of stone, with a composition which hardens it as it is used, by some chemical combination, so as to form almost a metallic surface. When the face of the stone is lightly chiselled over, and the plain surface removed, every stroke of the drawing remains in relief, and is printed from at once without the intervention of any other medium. An embellished edition of Dr. Watts's "Hymns for Children," "illustrated by the new graphotype engraving process," is already announced by W. Holman Hunt, Carl Thomas, J. D. Watson, etc.

—Several books of interest appear in the announcements of the French publishers, including the second volume of M. Louis Blanc's "Lettres sur L'Angleterre," a translation of which was promised, but has not yet appeared; the first series of a work by M. Figuier, the well-known historian of science, "Vies des Savants Illustrés depuis l'Antiquité jusqu'an XIX Siecle, avec l'appréciation de leurs travaux," a plan that, if properly carried out, certainly "cuts out" employment for a lifetime; "Les Antonins, un Étude Historique," by the Comte de Champagny, in continuation of his "Les Césars;" and "Du Spitzberg au Sahara," by Prof. Charles Martius, sketches of a naturalist in Lapland, Scotland, Switzerland, Egypt, and Algeria.

—Professor Owen's great and long-promised work on the "Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of the Vertebrate Animals" is at last ready for publication. It will consist of three volumes, the first one to appear on December 14, the second on the 1st of March next, and the third during the spring. It will be illustrated with upwards of twelve hundred engravings on wood, which have required a long period of time for their execution. The work will be issued by Messrs. Longmans, who also announce several new books, including "Letters of Ludwig von Beethoven," edited and translated by the same authors who have lately brought out the letters of Mozart—Dr. Nohl and Lady Wallace; "Life of Isambard Kingdon Brunel," the eminent engineer, by his son; "Sketch of the Life of Pastor Fliedner, of Kaiserswerth," translated by Miss Caroline Wentworth, to whom English readers owe their acquaintance with the "Lyra Germanica" and other valuable works; Mr. Gerald Massey's "Shakespearian Sonnets never before interpreted, with Sketches of his Private Friends, and a recovered Likeness of the Man" (already mentioned in our columns); and a new work by Mr. Frederick Maretin, compiler of the "Statesman's Year Book," to which it forms a companion. It is entitled "The Commercial Year Book for 1866," and will contain copious classified tables of the imports and exports of Great Britain for the last three years down to the date of the latest returns, arranged so as to form a complete synopsis of British commerce, rendered easy of consultation by an alphabetical index, etc.

—Still another new periodical is announced for the 1st of the present month, to be published by Messrs. Jackson & Walford, under the title of "The Pulpit Analyst," a monthly magazine designed for preachers, students, and teachers, edited by Joseph Parker, D.D. It has probably been started on account of the great success of "The Homilist," a magazine covering partly the same ground, and having a large number of subscribers in the United States. It will contain discourses on divine revelation as related to human consciousness and experience, a homiletic analysis of the New Testament, an interlinear translation of the gospels and epistles, outlines of sermons, hints to youthful preachers, and other matters relating to ministerial study, service, and success.

—Many of the streets of Paris are being re-named according not to chance, as elsewhere, but to a system which seeks among the celebrated men of the country for the necessary names. Literary notabilities form an important portion of them, and the following are some who will shortly be commemorated in this manner:—Villehardouin, the chronicler of the fourth crusade, Alam Chartier, the poet of Normandy, La Fontaine, Cujacius, the celebrated jurist, etc., etc. The names are not applied at random, but are given to quarters where the celebrities were born, or which they helped to illustrate.

—Shakespeare enthusiasts are preparing to search in Spain for matters tending to illustrate the great dramatist. Subscriptions are being raised to form a fund for the purpose. It is supposed that the despatches of the Spanish envoys in London, between 1590 and 1616, may contain valuable matter illustrative of the drama and the stage, as scarcely anything either private or public escaped their notice or was passed without mention in their minutely detailed reports. Mr. Halliwell, who heartily favors the scheme, mentions the rumor of the existence of what would be an article of great curiosity, a copy of the first folio Shakespeare of 1623, formerly belonging to Count Gondemar, the famous Spanish ambassador to England in the reign of James I., filled with MS. notes and additions of the period. This, he was informed by the celebrated Spanish scholar Señor Gayangos, was lately preserved in the Casa del Sol at Valladolid.

—The most industrious and laborious bibliographer of the present age, or probably of any other, Joseph Marie Quérard, died at Paris on December 1, at the age of sixty-eight. His life was devoted to his favorite pursuit. He found it, however, anything but a lucrative one, and was indebted to the patronage of a Russian nobleman for the means of bringing out many of his works. His chief productions were "La France Littéraire," a record of French literature, chiefly during the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, of unexampled accuracy and fulness of detail, in ten volumes octavo; and "Les Supercheries Littéraires Devoilées," in five volumes octavo, an account of the apocryphal, disguised, and fictitious names and books in French literature, and of the authors who have gained credit under false pretences. A work of this nature was certain to provoke many enemies. M. Quérard, however, was engaged in bringing out a new edition of it at the time of his death. His discretion bore no proportion to the zeal and laborious energy of his character. Several of his projects of the highest value in literary history and bibliography could never be realized from the impossibility of confining his works within due bounds. His life has been a stormy one, embittered by the want of the patronage of the Government, whose administrators failed to recognize the unquestionable merits that should have secured to M. Quérard the facilities for the prosecution of his labors that an official station

connected with some of the numerous public libraries of the capital would have given him. He was born at Rennes, in Brittany, and had devoted more than half a century to the exclusive study of French literature, respecting which a vast quantity of knowledge of the most curious kind must die with him.

—The new professor of English language and literature appointed by the council of University College, London, in the chair of Prof. Masson, vacated by his transference to Edinburgh, is Mr. Henry Morley, a well-known writer in many branches of literature. Mr. Morley has been a regular contributor to *Household Words*, *All the Year Round*, and other periodicals. One or two collections of his papers have been published separately. His biographical and critical monographs, "Palissy the Potter," "Jerome Cardan," "Cornelius Agrippa," show research and learning. The last book he has published, "English Writers before Chaucer," more immediately applies to the subject of his new professorship. It is the first of a series intended to embrace the critical history of early English literature. Though not to be compared in range of original information or power of thought with the "Early English Language and Literature" of Hon. George P. Marsh, it is a creditable performance, and will extend the knowledge of an important branch of study.

ACROSS THE CONTINENT.*

Mr. Bowles was one of the party which accompanied Mr. Schuyler Colfax in his trip across the Continent to the Pacific coast. They started from Kansas towards the end of May, made their way by stage through Colorado and along the base of the Rocky Mountains over the great mail route to Utah. Thence over the Sierra into California; from Northern California to Oregon and Vancouver's Island; thence down the coast to San Francisco, and home by the Isthmus of Panama. The excursion lasted four months. Mr. Bowles was, probably, a careful note-taker; he is certainly a careful observer, and the result of his observations is the thick octavo before us.

The first thing that strikes one on dipping into the volume is the small amount of knowledge possessed by the general public on the last of the regions which Mr. Bowles describes. We venture to say that to nine persons out of every ten into whose hands it falls it will have almost as much of the charm of novelty as Palgrave's "Arabia." What makes the novelty in this case all the more piquant is that the scene of our author's rambles was not beyond the sea or under foreign skies, but in the American Union; that he slept over night under the star-spangled banner and the protection of the common law, and might have been "brought up" under a writ of habeas corpus from the day he left Springfield until he got back, barring the time spent in the homeward trip across the Isthmus.

That so little should be known in the East about the Pacific coast, and even the middle region which lies between us and it, is at first sight, considering the crowds of emigrants who are constantly either going or returning, almost incomprehensible; but a little reflection makes it plain enough. Most of those who cross the plains are adventurers, with whom the world on this side has either dealt hardly or not so well as, in their opinion, they merited, and their whole attention from the moment they start is concentrated on the task of repairing or building up their fortunes. Nothing which does not seem likely to have some bearing on this possesses much interest for them at the outset, and there are, doubtless, very few who, after a few years' residence in the West, find many traces of a philosophic turn left in their composition. The feverish, fretful, eager life which nearly every man leads in the great mining regions is ill calculated to foster a taste for critical examinations or descriptions of the condition or prospects of the society which surrounds him. In fact, Mr. Bowles states that Mr. Colfax's party were "the first who ever travelled across the continent simply to see the country, study its resources, to learn its people and their wants." He adds, moreover, "that the idea of such a thing was strange to the people along their route." They could not understand it, and many were never entirely disabused of the belief that, in spite of their fine pretences, they were in reality what is, in mining lingo, called "bummers." It is not surprising, therefore, that, until the appearance of this of Mr. Bowles, there was not a single book which could be fairly called a description of the Pacific coast.

From it we confess we have risen, in spite of its numerous literary blemishes, with a sense of keen regret that it was not twice the size. It has many of the defects of style which might be expected in a book made up mainly of letters written literally *currente calamo* to a newspaper; and amidst all the fatigue and discomfort of a most laborious journey. Mr. Bowles has not used the pruning-hook as vigorously as we could have desired. But he is never dull and never commonplace; is very often really eloquent. His observations on the moral and material condition and prospects of the communities through which he passes are always acute, in the great majority of cases original, and often profound. His descriptions of scenery are admirable, and he has the rare gift of knowing when he has given the reader enough of them. There is no other account of the Yo Semite Valley, or of the scenery and atmospheric effects of the plains and mountains and rivers of the western coast, which can at all compare to his. His sketches of manners are excellent so far as they go, but he does not frequently indulge in them. In fact, his allusions to individuals and accounts of personal adventure form but the background of his narrative. We have no doubt he has in his memory or his note-book enough of this kind of material to furnish Dumas with materials for four quarto volumes.

The themes to which he devotes most of his space are the Pacific Railroad, the mining enterprises of the West, and the Mormons. In fact, the acquisition of materials for a sound judgment on these subjects seems to have been the main object of the journey. Everything else was apparently subsidiary, and the importance of what he says on these three great political and economical themes cannot be well overrated. His warnings and admonitions on the necessity of a rapid completion of the Pacific Railroad, with which, up to the present, only the slowest progress has been made, are very valuable. He shows that five years of steady labor would complete the whole work from end to end, and he calls on the Government to lend its hand not as a mere act of kindness to the dwellers on the Pacific coast, but as a measure of political expediency of the highest order. It has to be borne in mind that the settlement of the region west of the Rocky Mountains really began less than twenty years ago; that nearly every active native American member of the civilized communities now established there was born and bred in the East, and is bound to the older States by the ties of family and education and youthful associations; that he has drawn from the East his manners and ideas, and that the social differences between us and the transmontane population are really thus far simply modifications wrought by external circumstances. What hold we shall have upon the next generation, which, separated from us and from the whole civilized world by a vast wilderness, will know nothing of us except what it picks from the newspapers, and upon which we shall exert little influence except through merely literary channels if the railroad be not soon completed, remains to be seen, and upon this point Mr. Bowles's forebodings are evidently gloomy enough. In fact, it is difficult to over-estimate the political mischief that may result from allowing the Pacific States to remain much longer in their present position of isolation. The Union sentiment there is still strong, very strong; but the men who comprise those States now are men of Eastern birth. It may be wise not to rely too much on traditions for preserving the fidelity of their sons.

The civilizing and Christianizing influence of the road, too, would be immense. The republic has suffered already—and we say this while thoroughly appreciating the value of the share which the West has had and is having in the formation of the national character—from the extraordinarily rapid growth of new communities along our Western border, composed mainly of men removed from the social and religious restraints which exist in the older States. Their influence on our literature, oratory, and manners has not been elevating or refining, and it would have been vastly better for them and for the country had circumstances made the growth of these communities slower, and thus allowed women to take a more prominent part in building them up, and the ideas and manners of the older States to retain a stronger and larger hold on them. But no community to the east of the mountains has ever been so completely cut off from the rest of the world, or been compelled to work out its own salvation with so little aid from the culture and experience of the older States, as those now springing up on the Pacific coast. In fact, the Pacific Railroad, enormous as is the work it would do in developing the mineral and agricultural resources of the West, would do a still greater work as a civilizer, educator, and social reformer. Mr. Bowles says:

"To feel the importance of the Pacific Railroad, to measure the urgency of its early completion, to become impatient with Government and contractor at every delay in the work, you must come across the plains and the mountains to the Pacific coast. Then you will see half a continent waiting for its vivifying influences. You will witness a boundless agriculture, fickle and hesitating for lack of the regular markets this would give. You will find mineral wealth, immeasurable, locked up, wastefully worked, or gambled away, until this shall open to it abundant labor, cheap capital, wood, water, science, ready oversight, steadiness of production—everything that shall make mining a certainty and not a chance. You will find the world's commerce with India and China eagerly awaiting its opportunities.

* "Across the Continent: A Summer's Journey to the Rocky Mountains, the Mormons, and the Pacific States, with Speaker Colfax." By Samuel Bowles, Editor of the *Springfield Republican*. Springfield, Mass.: Samuel Bowles & Co. 1865.

You will see an illimitable field for manufactures unimproved for want of its stimulus and its advantages. You will feel hearts breaking, see morals struggling slowly upward against odds, know that religion languishes; feel, see, and know that all the sweetest and finest influences and elements of society and Christian civilization hunger and suffer for the lack of this quick contact with the parent and fountain of all our national life.

"It is touching to remember that between plains and Pacific, in country and on coast, on the Columbia, on the Colorado, through all our long journey, the first question asked of us by every man and woman we have met, whether rich or poor, high or humble, has been, 'When do you think the Pacific Railroad will be done?' or, 'Why don't or won't the Government, now the war is over, put the soldiers to building this road?' and their parting appeal and injunction, as well, 'Do build this Pacific Road for us as soon as possible; we wait, everything waits for that.' Tender-eyed women, hard-fisted men, pioneers or missionaries, the martyrs and the successful, all alike feel and speak this sentiment. It is the hunger, the prayer, the hope of all these people. Hunger and prayer and hope for 'Home,' and what home can bring them, in cheap and ready passage to and from, of reunion with, parent and brother and sister and friend, of sight of old valley and mountain and wood, of social influence, of æsthetic elevation, of worldly stimulus and prosperity. 'Home,' they all here call the East. It is a touching and pathetic, though almost unconscious, tribute. Such an one 'is going home next spring;' 'I hope to go home another year;' 'When I was home last;' 'I have never been home since I came out;' 'I am afraid I shall never go home again;'—these and kindred phrases are the current forms of speech. Home is not here, but there. The thought of home is ever rolled, like a sweet morsel, under the tongue of their souls.

"Here is large appeal both to the sympathy and foresight of the Eastern States. Here is present bond of union and means for perpetuating it. To build the railroad, and freshen recollection and renew association of the original emigrants, and to bind by travel and contact the children here with the homes and lives and loves of their parents there: this is the cheapest, surest, and sweetest way to preserve our nationality and continue the republic a unit from ocean to ocean. A sad and severe trial will ensue to the Union if a generation grows up here that 'knows not Joseph.' The centrifugal forces will ever be in hot action between the far-separated eastern and western sections of the nation. First among the centripetal powers is the Pacific Railroad, and every year of its delay increases tenfold its burden; every year's postponement weakens in equal degree the influences here by which it shall operate."

Of the mines Mr. Bowles says much, most of which we should like to quote, if space permitted it. The sum and substance of it is, that all mining, and particularly gold and silver mining, is very like a lottery; that people with but little money, and the loss of which would be a serious matter to them, had better keep clear of them; that by far the larger portion of the schemes brought into the Eastern market are worthless, and are got up by speculators whose sole thought is to get companies organized for the purpose of selling the shares; that capitalists who can afford to invest in Western mines should only do so after careful investigation by well-qualified men, in whose perfect honesty, as well as knowledge, penetration, and cautiousness, they have sound ground for confidence; and that they should send out one of their own number to oversee expenditures and direct the financial operations after the work begins. Mr. Bowles supports his conclusions on these points by the testimony of many of the oldest, most respected, and experienced scientific men, capitalists, and miners of California and Nevada. The Colorado mines he rates more highly than either those of California or Nevada. He says:

"Looking back over our mining experiences, and taking the average testimony of each district as equally reliable, I find myself impressed with the superior richness of the Colorado gold mines. Their ore averaged as uniformly one hundred dollars a ton as that of Nevada, either Austin or Virginia, or of California, does fifty dollars. The extraction is not as complete, because of the more intricate nature of the precious deposits; but means to overcome this, though perhaps at enlarged cost, seemed successfully initiated while we were there."

Of the Mormons Mr. Bowles has much to say; little that is new by way of description of manners, but his position with Mr. Colfax gave him unusual facilities for getting at the real feelings of the Mormon leaders towards the United States Government, and to draw from the knowledge thus acquired some unusually valuable inferences as to what the federal policy towards this singular community ought to be. He is satisfied that if the Pacific Railroad were once completed, the tide of emigration from the East would beat so heavily on the Mormon stronghold that its outworks, at least polygamy, which he considers only an outwork, would go down before it rapidly. But in the meantime he has little doubt that a firm and vigorous policy on the part of the Government would secure the immediate overthrow of this hideous abuse. He thinks neither the leaders nor people would cling to it if the United States authorities were to distinctly declare it to be a crime and prosecute and punish it as such. It is not an essential part of the Mormon practice, any more than the suttee of Hindooism; and shorn of it, Mormonism would still satisfy its votaries, and would in the es of the law take the same place as all other forms of religious faith.

We intended to have quoted Mr. Bowles's admirable analysis of social life in San Francisco, but space forbids. We cordially recommend everybody who wants a most valuable contribution to the social and political philosophy of the day, in the form of one of the most entertaining records of travel we have ever lighted upon, to buy and read his book. We have ourselves closed it with sincere regret that there was not more of it.

We have already alluded to its defects of form; we trust if it makes a second edition the author will revise it more carefully. Too many shreds of newspaper still hang about it, and it has now and then a touch of Western extravagance in the phraseology and similes which seems to indicate that Mr. Bowles, when he was out there, was not proof against the contagion in spite of his thoroughly Eastern taste and training.

KITTO'S BIBLICAL CYCLOPÆDIA.*

A COMPARISON of the first American edition of Calmet's "Dictionary of the Holy Bible" with the third edition of Kitto's "Biblical Cyclopædia," and with Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible," will indicate the progress of Biblical literature and science during a single generation. In no department of learning has progress been at once so rapid and so substantial as in this—a progress due mainly to three causes: (1.) An improved system of Hebrew philology, through the labors of Hupfeld, Ewald, Winer, Gesenius, Fürst, and others; (2.) The application of archæology and of contemporaneous history and literature, upon approved principles of criticism, to the illustration of the Bible; and (3.) The advance of Biblical geography and topography by the explorations of modern missionaries and travellers. We date from the American edition of Calmet, in 1832, under the supervision of the late Dr. Edward Robinson, because that was the starting point in English Biblical literature of the new treatment of this department which has yielded such rich and abundant fruits. As a pupil of Gesenius, Dr. Robinson brought his system to bear upon all questions of oriental philology, to the exclusion of the crude and fanciful etymological and mythological discussions of Calmet and his English editor, Mr. Charles Taylor. And, having already formed the conception of that systematic revision of Biblical geography and history to which he devoted so large a portion of his subsequent life, Dr. Robinson gave special attention to the orthography, the topography, and the historical description of places named in the Bible. Yet no one was more sensible than he how far short of his ideal of a dictionary of the Bible was his own edition of Calmet. After an interval of thirty years, no Biblical scholar would think of consulting that as an authority. How many sermons based upon Calmet's expositions have already become antiquated!

In 1845 Dr. Kitto made another great advance upon the ground so long held by Calmet, by combining scholars of different nations and of various departments of sacred learning in one co-operative work—a kind of œcumenical council of Biblical literature, to which each brought his special contributions, to be classified and harmonized in a general way by the presiding editor. The scholarship of Germany was represented by such names as Drs. Credner, Havernick, Hengstenberg, J. Jacobi, Ewald, Michelson, and Tholuck; that of Great Britain by such names as Drs. Alexander, Davidson, Eadie, Pye Smith, and others; the United States, also, had two or three representatives, and Dr. Robinson's "Biblical Researches" were acknowledged as the basis and authority of much that was embodied in the department of "Scripture geography." In his edition of Calmet, Dr. Robinson had availed himself of the results of German scholarship, and had thus introduced a new and most valuable element into that work; but he had not sought the services of German scholars as collaborators. Hence, "Calmet" was in no proper sense a representative work. But Dr. Kitto brought together in one work the special labors of many scholars upon designated subjects, allowing a reasonable latitude of discussion to contributors who were "competent by their attainments and studies to form a judgment worthy of attention on the various matters coming under their consideration." Constructed upon this sound and liberal principle, and containing so great a variety of useful material, Kitto's Cyclopædia soon took the lead among works illustrative of Biblical literature, and for fifteen years it pretty much held the market in its department, except for those who had access to kindred works in the German. But the publication, in 1860, of Dr. Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible," with its brilliant array of contributors, its extensive and solid learning, and its fresh and vigorous handling of topics capable of illustration from recent discovery and criticism, threw Kitto, in turn, into the shade, and compelled a revision and enlargement of the lately honored encyclopædia, if it would maintain a competition with

* "A Cyclopædia of Biblical Literature, originally edited by John Kitto, D.D. Third edition, greatly enlarged and improved by William Lindsay Alexander, D.D., F.S.A.S., etc." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

formidable rival. For, though the two works were constructed upon plans essentially different, yet they covered so much ground in common, that a marked superiority of either, in any particular, would give it precedence over the other. Besides, the increasing familiarity of Biblical students with the German language brought such works as Winer's "Biblisches Real-Wörterbuch" and Herzog's "Real-Encyklopædie" into more general comparison with Kitto's less comprehensive volumes.

Accordingly, the Edinburgh publishers, having just completed their new edition of the "Encyclopædia Britannica," resolved to cancel entirely the stereotype plates of the "Biblical Cyclopædia," which had been only slightly modified for the second edition, and to prepare a new edition, revised and enlarged, according to the present state of Biblical knowledge. The task of editing the work was committed to Dr. W. Lindsay Alexander, and it could not have fallen into better hands. As the successor of Dr. Wardlaw in the Congregational chair of theology, Dr. Alexander has commanded high respect for his ability as a Christian teacher in the city where he has so long ranked with the ablest preachers. He is a good German scholar, the translator of Dörner's "History of the Person of Christ," the author of an important treatise on the "Connection of the Old and New Testaments," and of several valuable monographs in sacred literature; in short, he is one of the leading minds in the present literary circles of Edinburgh, a chief citizen of "no mean city." In the revision of Kitto, he has associated with himself a number of scholars who were not contributors to the original work, while he has retained all that was of any value in the labors of his predecessors. The new edition is expanded into three large octavos, of upwards of 800 pages each, closely printed in double columns. It differs in several respects from Dr. Smith's great work. That is properly a *dictionary* of the *Bible*, embracing whatever pertains to Biblical antiquities, biography, geography, and natural history, with collateral topics from classical antiquity, but eschewing questions of theology. Kitto's is an encyclopædia of Biblical *literature*, and while it is less full and minute in the treatment of mere names, it covers a wider range of subjects and admits notices of the life and works of Biblical scholars. This last feature, now introduced for the first time, will have a special interest to the young student in sacred learning. While controversial theology is excluded from its pages, Kitto's Cyclopædia conforms more strictly than does Smith's Dictionary to the system of interpretation known as "evangelical" in distinction from the rationalistic or latitudinarian schools. This at once appears in such articles as "Genesis," "Exodus," "Adam," "Inspiration," "Interpretation," "Jesus Christ." Yet there is much freedom of discussion in these pages, and Dr. Samuel Davidson is retained as a contributor, notwithstanding the outcry raised by his second volume of the tenth edition of "Horne's Introduction."

The defects of this new edition of the Cyclopædia are mainly due to the desire of the editor to retain so much of the original work as would preserve its historical identity. We think his judgment on this point has been overborne by a too nice regard for the memory of his predecessor. It was not wise, for example, to leave the question of inspiration just where it was left twenty years ago by so cautious and yet uncritical a writer as the late Dr. Leonard Woods, of Andover Seminary. Neither his definition, which is simply that of Knapp, nor his argumentation will meet the difficulties which more recent criticism has raised concerning the fact, the method, and the degree of divine inspiration in the composition of the Scriptures. We are well aware that an exhaustive treatment of the question is hardly possible in the present stage of the subject; but this was not a sufficient reason for retaining a disquisition which has become antiquated, without at least a reference to new phases of the enquiry and a compendium of the arguments upon either side.

It was an infelicity, also, to retain Dr. J. Pye Smith's article on Adam without modification, with its citation of Dr. Prichard's "Natural History of Man" as the latest authority upon the question of man's place in the creation, and with no mention of the theory of *cephalization* so ably propounded by Professor J. D. Dana, of Yale College. We might instance other articles in which defective information and even positive error have been stereotyped anew, through an excessive deference to the reputation of former contributors.

The new matter of the Cyclopædia in general is fresh and full upon the results of recent investigation in science and criticism. For instance, the articles on the Gospels, on John, and on Jesus Christ, fairly recognize the difficulties raised by Baur, Renan, Strauss, and others, and point to their solution; and the article on the Creation is not unmindful of Dr. Darwin's peculiar and unsustained hypothesis of the origin of species.

In the department of the religious and literary archæology of the Hebrews, the new edition of the Cyclopædia is substantially a new work; and points of Biblical geography and topography which were but lightly touched upon in the first edition, are here elaborated with a care and exactness worthy of their importance. The first edition contained nothing whatever upon the topography of Jerusalem; but in the new edition twelve pages are devoted to this topic, and a résumé is given of the results of all recent surveys and explorations, together with a discussion of all the controverted theories, from that of Robinson at one extreme to that of Fergusson at the other.

It is not the province of this notice to criticize in detail the contents of an encyclopædia. That must be left to the ampler pages of the quarterly reviews. But we have so far indicated the character of the new issue of Kitto, that students may feel warranted in procuring it as an addition of real value to the materials for Biblica study. Its mechanical execution is highly attractive, and its literary character will compare favorably with that of any work in the same department.

JULIA WARD HOWE.*

Of a like order with Mrs. Browning's, though of very different tone and texture, is the poetical gift of Julia Ward Howe. Her love of freedom, her faith in right, her wide and high culture, and her intellectual traits and tastes, give significance, authority, and beauty to her verse. Hence its superiority to the musical expression of sentiment, which has been the common range of her sex in verse. Hence, too, her claim to be estimated as a thinker, a pleader for the true as well as the beautiful, a singer in the ranks of the patriotic and the prophetic. A thorough education, a sojourn in Italy, knowledge and love of philosophy and art, intimacy with reformers in politics, innovators in religion, and with the best writers of Germany and France, added to the usual experience of American and domestic life, have expanded the scope of a mind naturally fine, and enriched and emphasized powers of expression already good. With this equipment and facility, however, Mrs. Howe's artistic discipline has not kept pace—that is, she has not bestowed upon the form and finish of her verse a care and refinement proportionate to its earnestness and thoughtfulness. Hence, it is only at times that her verse penetrates the multitude, and stirs the common heart. Often the idea is too abstract, the feeling too subtle, and the expression too crude for such a triumph. Yet, with all, the sterling ore remains, and repays more careful explorers.

Having noted the defect of form, we must also refer to her fault of tone and spirit. She is sometimes too personal; she occasionally sacrifices the dignity of art to the caprices of feeling; she allows, altogether, private and casual prejudices and partialities to find expression—a course more justifiable in a woman of narrower mind, but unworthy of one so comprehensive; pique is too small a motive for one who can sing so nobly. These and other minor faults might have been easily corrected by the disinterested revision—or rather suggestion—of a friendly critic. They are not vital but incidental defects. Changes of lines and words, omissions here and there—generalizing the application of an image, making impersonal an appeal—would have made her "clear in her great office." So, too, an experienced dramatic critic might have indicated the injudicious in plot and the objectionable in language in her play, retaining all its merits, and thus saved it from misapprehension, and harmonized and purified its artistic scope.

We make these seemingly ungracious comments out of respect for Mrs. Howe's real ability, from the desire to see completeness, harmony, and efficient expression where there is so much crude force and undisciplined feeling. The authoress herself will bear us out. With each successive volume she has come into a more free and faithful relation to life; the personalities that marred the first diminish in the second, and disappear in the third collection of her verses. Self is merged in "an idea dearer than self;" great interests absorb lesser; as she grapples with the problems of her time and country, her strain is more fervid and noble. "Passion Flowers" appeared in 1854; "Words for the Hour" in 1857. There are sweet and striking passages in the former, relating to Rome and its associations, some psychological and intuitive suggestions of deep interest, and many tributes to character, to freedom, justice, and truth, that mark the thoughtful and progressive lyrist; but with these are themes less noble, and throughout, in thought and sentiment, outweigh and surpass, instead of being fused with, the expression, except in occasional verses more impulsive and playful, where the sound is literally an echo to the sense. In "Words for the Hour" there breathes a profound and intelligent sympathy with the great cause of humanity, and especially with the solemn crisis then slowly approaching, to culminate in civil war and end in sacrifice and triumph.

"The Battle Hymn of the Republic" will attract to this volume the attention and sympathy of many readers who may otherwise be indifferent to,

* "Later Lyrics. By Julia Ward Howe." Boston: J. E. Tilton & Co. 1866.

or ignorant of, the author's claims to poetical genius. All who have heard that spirited yet solemn anthem sung with art and feeling, during the long, sad, and earnest four years of the war for the Union, will feel a special obligation to and interest in its author; and, therefore, be prepared to welcome her new offering to the muses with candor and cordiality. It is an advantage her pure and true patriotism has fairly earned. Nor are the other "Poems of the War," now first collected, less worthy of a noble woman's heart and a sacred cause. "Our Country," "The First Martyr," "April 19th," "Our Orders," "The Flag," and "The Harvard Student's Song" have the genuine lyric ring. When she sings of the starry banner that

——"dear are the stars it harbors
In its sunny field of blue
As the hope of a further heaven
That lights all our dim lives through;"

when she tells us that

"The hum of thrift was hushed
With sudden woe;"

or bids us

"Die to make men free,"

and chides the vanity of her sex with

"Weave no more silks, ye Lyons looms,
To deck our girls for gay delights,
The crimson flower of battle blooms
And solemn marches fill the night,"

she utters the feeling of the times, enforces its lesson, and celebrates its sacrifice with true poetic insight and beauty. But poems of a more tranquil era follow: there are "Lyrics of the Street," wherein the vicissitudes of human life are rehearsed with graphic and plaintive music; there are "Parables" that illustrate the same story with personal emphasis; and there are "Poems of Study and Experience" which indicate no ordinary mental resources and a comprehensive thought as broad and suggestive as it is often ingenious and imaginative. There is a womanly flavor about many of these verses that shows they were inspired by experience and not imitated from conventional precedents: the "Tea Party" and the "Jeweller's Shop," the "Fine Lady" and the "Charity Visitor," the lonely reveries over a crucifix, the maternal vigil, the household bereavement, the antagonism between love and duty, the triumph and the hollowness of society, the cares and the blessings of life, as known, felt, and observed by a gifted woman, are set in verse with tact and keenness. Here we have a monody and there a satire, now a paraphrase of classic story or a photograph of classic character, and now a domestic lyric, naïve, playful, or earnest. As a whole, these poems are a fine reflection of the inner life and the outward vision of a woman of faith, patriotism, and scholarship; a legitimate and womanly utterance of the discipline and the destiny which earnest minds experience here and now.

A VERY GOOD CHILDREN'S BOOK.*

Tom Hood is a son of Tom Hood. From Tom Hood, the son of Tom Hood, the world naturally expects something delightful. Not yet persuaded but that it is the inevitable and the proper thing that the son of a wise or clever father should be himself wise or clever, and finding examples enough to support that theory, the world goes on expecting great things of the children of the great. And to this Thomas, the son of Thomas, when he publishes verse, everybody looks for wit or pathos, or both, if it is a serious work; for unusually graceful and delicate play, if it is play.

But when a rash man offers to the world a new "Mother-Goose" book, what good can we expect? To write children's books is proverbially difficult. But a publisher could find a score of men and women who could write clever novelettes, or instructive tales, or "hymns in prose" or in verse for children for one who is capable of musical and comical "jingles and jokes." It has been tried many a time. We have seen a "sensible Mother Goose," in which the somewhat extravagant statements of the original work of that name are pared down to the compass of probability, as in the only quatrain that lingers in our memory:

"Hey diddle diddle, the cat and the fiddle!
The cow looked up at the moon,
The little dog barked to see the sport,
And the dish was laid by the spoon."

We will not insult our readers by quoting the original stanza, of which the above is a disgracefully bad parody. Then it was discovered that nine-tenths of "Mother Goose's" own original songs were songs of bloodshed and strife, grinding of bones to make bread, downfall of babies and cradles from tree-tops, shooting of cock-robins by bloodthirsty sparrows—death and destruction on every side. It was attempted to eliminate all this and produce an innocent work. The resulting collection was innocent of any effect, good or evil. Then came "The Book of Nonsense," appearing in England in 1860, and at once becoming popular, but not reaching us in America until about a year ago. The metre of this was in its favor, and the tang of it—the *note*, as Mathew Arnold would say; but the poems of the original "Book of Nonsense" were such rubbish—without fun or point—that the feeblest imitators have surpassed their model. Private circles have been delighted with the "thick-coming fancies" which take form in that fortunate metre; conceited people have been gracefully "taken down a peg;" "toad-eating little cities" or communities have been properly characterized and quizzed, as the "Nonsense Book" showed how. *Punch*, last winter, published a series of these verses, glorifying the "young ladies" and "old girls" of England:

"There was a young lady of Hitchin,
'Who never went down in the kitchen
Till her father said: 'Rose,
You 're a goose to suppose
Affectation 's genteel and bewitchin'.'"

"There was an old girl of Devizes,
Whose forte was in little surprises;
She let you come near,
Then cried: 'Bless us, my dear,
Your eyes are of different sizes.'"

And so on; announcing in each number that the series would "be continued until every town in the kingdom has been immortalized." But the best result of the "Nonsense Book" so far is "Rummical Rhymes with Pictures to Match, set forth in fayre prospect, alphabetically and geographically." The pictures to this—admirable caricatures of mediævalism, cleverly designed for printing in red and black—are so unusually good that worse verses would be endurable, but the verses are good too; *exempli gratia*, take the third one

"There was a young lady of Cork,
Who, declining to eat with a fork,
Her fingers would use
And the feelings abuse
Of the delicate people of Cork."

The title of the above is "Contrary to etiquette." Now that we have written the stanza, we see how much it lacks in lacking the illustration. Until to-day we have met no rhyme and picture book so good as "Rummical Rhymes."

It seems to us a pity that Mr. Hood has taken a rhyming and chiming title for his excellent little book. "Jingles and Jokes for the Little Folks" is very tiresome. If one owns the book and uses it and has to call it by its name now and then, "how he would hate that name" after a week had passed. But, after we pass the title-page, we find no more chance to find fault. The critic has the rare pleasure of heartily and unreservedly praising. There are thirty-four little poems; they vary somewhat in character from "Scotland, Ireland, and Wales," which is actual "Mother Goose," to the comparative profundity of "The Arbour" and the gravity of "The Launch of the Lily Leaf." But all are delightful. Hear the first-named:

SCOTLAND, IRELAND, AND WALES.

Paddy comes from Ireland,
And carries hods of bricks;
Sandy comes from Scotland,
Where they know some cunning tricks;
Taffy comes from Wales,
Where they 've toasted cheese for rabbits;
So now you 've heard my tales
Of those people and their habits.

That seems to us in the true "Mother Goose" swing, but as great an improvement on the original as the "Rummical Rhyme" quoted above is on the best stanza in "The Book of Nonsense." In selecting one of a slightly graver character, we can safely choose for brevity alone, and thus we choose:

PUSS IN NEW BOOTS.

Patter, clatter,
What 's the matter?
Our Tom Cat, who 's such a ratter,
Two new pair
Of shoes to wear
Has been buying at the fair.

Is n't he making a noise in the house!
Won't he frighten each rat and mouse!
'T was n't wise to choose
Such noisy shoes—
To be caught his dinner will now refuse!
To each rat and mouse his approach he tells,
For he 's popped his paws into walnut shells;
Into walnut shells—into walnut shells—
He has popped his paws into wainut shells!

We shall find little bloodshed and no hopeless and profitless destruction and ruin. One little mouse is caught by a cat, who is at once reprobated for catching the mouse in a dishonorable way—

"I do n't think her conduct was pretty—do you?"

One little boy falls out of a tree, but, although he has been naughty, the worst result of the tumble is that

"Kind little Jane
Pitied his pain,
And carried him home to mamma!"

* "Jingles and Jokes for the Little Folks. By Tom Hood. Illustrated by C. H Bennett, W. Brunton, Paul Gray, and T. Morten." London: Cassell, Petter & Galpin

Another little boy is punished in the style of the little boys in "Struwelpeter" for his dirty habits. These are all the terrible disasters we have found. But, more than this, the author has shown a rare faculty in setting forth a moral without moralizing. Most of the fables with morals youth reads *without* the morals. We do n't see how youth can do so here. Read this—the end of a poem:

FURTHER MORAL.

The folks who exclaimed—
"That surely can't be him!"
Lindley Murray 'd have whipped
If they 'd happened to see him.

For he was a very
Particular gammer,
And punished all people
Who did n't talk grammar.

And though he 'd not find
Fault with you or with me, he
Would teach them to say,
"That surely can't be he!"

And now we hope every reader will buy this book and read it. And therefore we do not care to quote any more. But many of the pictures are as good in their way as the poems. There are thirteen, all full-page woodcuts, simply drawn in black lines on white, few of them at all carefully executed in style and finish. The frontispiece is capital—the two rival lovers with (tin) swords drawn, and scabbards thrown away, and the stairs crowded with little people looking at the fight—the boys interested and quiet, the little girl delightfully frightened, and a greedy little chap on the bottom step with a plate of fruit on his lap and a bitten cake in either hand, happy in being able to munch and enjoy the battle at once. Of the others it is hard to say which is the best. That is very clever which illustrates "Puss and her Three Kittens," though the infantile mind will need much explanation before it will understand the "Pepper-pot," and "Sootikin" with a seam up her back. They are all spirited and tell the stories well, and help to make the book the good book it is. And the cover, even in these days when such clever designs come from the English binders, is noticeable, for there is a morning's meditation for a little one and lecture material for its nurse. The books come to pieces easily, though, and the pretty covers will soon be off.

DR. MARIGOLD'S PRESCRIPTIONS.*

It is supposed that most people have already taken these, and that there is no occasion to make severe analysis of their ingredients. They are compounded by Mr. Dickens from simples well known to the *materia romantica*, and sugar-coated with an invention of his own. In profane terms, the great author has written the first and last parts in this Christmas story, and numbers of very little authors have written the rest. The plan is that on which the Christmas books of Mr. Dickens have been constructed for several years past, and unites doubtful advantages to very obvious drawbacks. Indeed, partnership in literature has seldom produced results of great value. The muse is severe; she will not give her smiles to those who come a-wooing in companies, and is apt to snub even old favorites when they seek her in the society of others. It is true that in these Christmas books some of the evils of joint composition are escaped by making each chapter a separate and distinct story; but then the responsibility of uniting the stories upon some one pretext falls heavily on the contriver of the book. We all know how Boccaccio managed to bind together his merry stories in the "Decamerone;" and how Chaucer did with his "Canterbury Pilgrims," not to mention Mr. Longfellow and his "Wayside Inn." But these editors were also the authors of their tales, whereas Mr. Dickens must take the contributions of others, in which there is not even the slender coherence of a general reference to the Christmas season, and weld them into a book under a sole title. As it happens, the book is no different from any other number of *All the Year Round*, except that it is not so good, being marred by the violence with which the editor strives to distinguish it from these. Is it not a sorry device, that making-believe Cheap Jack causes these stories to be printed in a book together, in order to give a pleasure and surprise to his adoptive child by a book made exclusively for her? As if a Cheap Jack of Doctor Marigold's shrewdness and good feeling would choose such dull stories to amuse the poor deaf-mute!

But, in spite of this poverty of expedient, how delightful are those first and last parts of Dr. Marigold's Prescriptions! It must be confessed that a great deal is made of a little, and that one might come to know all the itinerant venders of bargains in England without finding one among them equal to Dr. Marigold; and, perhaps, all of them put together would not produce his like. But, nevertheless, we have something unmistakably true and real in the Cheap Jack telling the simple story of his marriage with the termagant, who cruelly beats their child, till one day it falls sick of its life of terror and suffering, and dies in its father's arms, as he stands, poor soul! making his jests and auctioning his wares, with a heavy heart, to the grinning crowd in the market-place. It is likewise genuine and pathetic how he is made to know (after the death of his wife), by the weak-minded but tender-hearted giant, Pickleson, of the deaf-mute child, whom her step-father (Pickleson's showman) misuses, and whom Dr. Marigold adopts, and teaches to read and write, and places at a school for deaf-mutes, and gives away in marriage to a deaf-mute lover, to be finally rewarded one Christmas Eve by their reappearance (out of a long absence in China), with a little daughter, who is not deaf and dumb, but salutes Dr. Marigold as "grandfather," and completes his earthly bliss. The character is one of the sort which Mr. Dickens loves to paint, and which reminds of his earlier manner, having something of Sam Weller in it, allied to something of Mr. Sleary, but at last being original as a whole. Dr. Marigold is simple and shrewd, with a racy philosophy of his own, the fruit of much sagacious observation and hard suffering, and is not the least a cynic. After going through enough to harden the feelings of most men, he has the greatness to give a laugh to a poorish joke, because (O gentle reader!) he knows from experience how flat you fall without it. Is not his modification of King Solomon's wisdom, concerning a brawling woman in a wide house, fine also?

"She was n't a bad wife, but she had a temper. If she could have parted with that one article at a sacrifice, I would n't have swopped her away in exchange for any other woman in England. Not that I ever did swop her away, for we lived together till she died, and that was thirteen year. Now, my lords and ladies and gentlefolks all, I 'll let you into a secret, though you won't believe it. Thirteen year of temper in a palace would try the worst of you, but thirteen year of temper in a cart would try the best of you. You are kept so very close to it in a cart, you see. There 's thousands of couples among you getting on like sweet ile upon a whetstone in houses five and six pairs of stairs high, that would go to the divorce court in a cart. Whether the jolting makes it worse, I do n't undertake to decide; but in a cart it does come home to you and stick to you. Wiolence in a cart is *so* wiolent, and aggrawation in a cart is *so* aggrawating.

"We might have had such a pleasant life! A roomy cart, with the large goods hung outside, and the bed slung underneath it when on the road, an iron pot and a kettle, a fireplace for the cold weather, a chimney for the smoke, a hanging shelf and a cupboard, a dog and a horse. What more do you want? You draw off upon a bit of turf in a green lane or by the roadside, you hobble your old horse and turn him grazing, you light your fire upon the ashes of the last visitors, you cook your stew, and you would n't call the Emperor of France your father. But have a temper in the cart, flinging language and the hardest goods in stock at you, and where are you then? Put a name to your feelings."

The only tolerable story in the little book, besides that of Dr. Marigold, is the story of the professional conundrum-maker and his ruin. That of Eunice Fielding, the tender Moravian maiden, would be good, if one did not know it all from the beginning. As for the ghost story, it is one of the dullest, most mechanical horrors we ever read; and the other tales amount to nothing, in goodness, badness, or indifference.

* "Dr. Marigold's Prescriptions. By Charles Dickens." Harper & Bros., New York.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Robert Dalby and His World of Troubles. Being the Early Days of a Connoisseur. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

The Life and Public Services of Samuel Adams. By William V. Wells. Three vols. Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

Anyta and Other Poems.—The Gentleman. By George H. Calvert. E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston; Hurd & Houghton, New York.

Massachusetts Ecclesiastical Law. By Edward Buck, of the Suffolk Bar. Gould & Lincoln, Boston; Sheldon & Co., New York.

An Introduction to the Devotional Study of the Holy Scriptures. By Edward Meyrick Goulburn, D.D. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

The Belton Estate. By Anthony Trollope. Harper & Bros., New York.

The Fire-Fiend, and Other Poems. By Charles D. Gardette. Bunce & Huntington, New York.

Fine Arts.

ANOTHER LOOK AT FOREIGN PICTURES IN NEW YORK.

At the gallery of the Studio Building, in Tenth Street, the French, Belgian, and English pictures are still on exhibition. Many of them have already been sold. Of those which have been sold a few are gone, having been removed by their purchasers, and room is thus provided for the exhibition of other pictures belonging to the collection which have not before found room on the walls. Those which have been taken away are generally sent over to "Goupil's" for repair to frames or for varnishing, and opportunity is given in that gallery for a second look at them. Then, several pictures

catalogued with the others of the collection, have made their first appearance in this gallery—for instance, the two large pictures by Schlesinger, "The Officer's Widow" and "The Spanish Girl," numbered 129 and 131. These, we are told, were bought by Mr. Knoedler before the exhibition opened. And so it seems that the gallery at Broadway and Ninth Street must be visited and explored if one would judge of the "Fourth Exhibition in New York of Pictures contributed by Artists of the French, English, and Belgian Schools." Then there are, on semi-public exhibition, other important pictures by European painters, which pictures do not belong to that collection. And it follows that we must treat of painters and schools as they are represented in New York to-day, and somewhat independently of their ownership or places of exhibition.

It would be well if any considerations of ownership or respect for the places of exhibition would inspire in the minds of a certain class of visitors that which the pictures themselves fail to inspire—a wholesome awe. A large portion of pictures exhibited, to say the least, are worthy of respect. In every gallery into which people walk, nonchalantly, to see pictures, there are works representing much care, skill, honest labor, learning, and thought. Most pictures are, on the face of the matter, worthy of respectful attention. A looker has no right to assume that the artist is unable to show him anything or teach him anything worth his while. A looker surely has no right to assume that the artist has had no meaning. This is true of all pictures which are exhibited. We say that a visitor should enter every gallery of pictures with a certain sense of awe.

And this is especially true when the visitor, accustomed to average American pictures, goes to see European pictures which may naturally be assumed to be above the average European merit. The pictures which are selected to be sent to this country for sale are generally of a certain order of merit; embody much skill and represent great reputations. Moreover, better in works, they have all been painted for a public vastly better instructed than ours in everything that has to do with art. They have all been painted in active rivalry with the strongest painters of the time; they have been painted in the presence of the best pictures of the past and the present. They, in a sense, bring European skill and cultivation for our enlightenment.

A picture by a celebrated artist, *couronné, décoré*, titled and honored, may be very bad in many ways, but is sure to be of some importance, and is necessarily worthy of notice. And people should not criticize pictures unfavorably until they have got beyond them, so to speak; until they know and are prepared to show what there is that is better, and why it is better, and what, in the case before them, needs improvement.

M. Louis Gallait is a painter of the highest standing, socially and by reputation. He has in the exhibition at Tenth Street three pictures, one of which is called "Jeanne la Folle," and represents that queen, well known to history, who would not allow her husband's corpse to be buried. Now we have twice seen parties pause in front of that picture, exclaim and wonder, muster sufficient knowledge of French to translate Jeanne la Folle into Crazy Jane, and then wonder why anybody should paint a horrid-looking picture and call it Crazy Jane. Why not Crazy Kate? as we heard one lady ask her party. Why, indeed? But, until one knows why, perhaps it would be well not to pass judgment upon the thought of the picture.

We have taken this No. 55 for our example the more willingly because it is not a picture requiring much profundity or long study on the part of the student to get beyond it. It is not a well-told story; almost anybody could tell it. It is not a good subject for a picture; people who have found out what the subject is may be excused if they instinctively feel and impulsively say that they do not want to look at it. It is not a beautiful picture in lines or in color. Nor is there in any one of these three pictures the evidence of true feeling, of imaginative insight, or even of an attempt to realize the scenes represented. "Columbus in Prison," No. 57, is the most nearly noble of the three, because the most probable and real, while all have a certain effectiveness, a certain stateliness which does what it can to redeem their many deficiencies. "Art and Liberty," No. 56, is less attractive, and has less of Gallait's charm than the others. Those readers who remember the picture by M. Gallait which was at Goupil's nearly a year ago, called, we think, "The Prisoner's Voice," and representing a mother and her children gathered beneath the prison wall which confines the prisoner, remember a picture which seems to us better than any of these three. But all are alike in manner and nearly alike in merit. They are conventional, unreal; if intellectual, not profoundly so, and not deep or subtle in feeling. And the merits of execution are not great enough or unusual enough to make the pictures valuable to our painters and students on that account alone.

There have been far more important pictures by Ary Scheffer in this country, and on exhibition, than No. 127, "The Three Holy Marys." His designs, too, are well known through the medium of engraving, and he is one of those painters whose works are said to "engrave well," that is, to be conceived in light and shade and without primary regard to color. The exhibition, therefore, of this small picture affords no favorable opportunity to speak at length of this distinguished artist and his work. One thing, however, must be clear to every one who considers the picture, that the artist whose work it is, is no colorist. For this is not merely pale and inadequate color, it is cold and ugly color; or rather it is not color, properly speaking, at all, but only a grey drawing tinted. One might be excused in forming the hasty conclusion that no work of the artist's could ever be valuable in color. So far as we know these works the conclusion would be just. All of his work that we have seen is actually painful to one who loves color at all. It is as if one who could write good prose would not, but would insist on writing bad verse. The absence of metre and music does not trouble us in prose; the absence of color does not trouble us in engraving; but bad verse is dreadful, and bad color is an infliction perhaps even greater.

Not bad color, perhaps, but color chilled with grey and, as it were, half extinguished, is the most common and most harmful fault of the great body of living French painters. There are, among them, individual painters whose work reveals the existence of great power of color; but the work of these men seems also to reveal an unconsciousness of the gift and an indifference to the possession of it. It is curious to mark how seldom French criticism of the present day treats of color as an essential element of a picture's worth or a painter's power. Even in the praise of their dead master, Eugène Delacroix, and in analysis of the character of his work, that one gift which he possessed beyond other Frenchmen, and perhaps beyond all other men his contemporaries, is scarcely noticed. The living painters of France can think, can partly feel, can study, can draw admirably, and lay pigments with sufficient skill, but cannot color in any complete, successful, and satisfying way.

The simple subjects, often domestic and nearly always in-door, which make up so large a proportion of the French and Belgian painting of the present day, are better adapted, perhaps, than subjects of any other kind to the chosen manner of their painters. The interior of a fashionably-furnished room, with a lady in morning dress, is a subject which can be painted with a certain measure of success in the subdued tones and cold, greyish hues of the existing school. But even then, by the adoption of this way of painting, these subjects, seldom at all noble or elevated, lose the only chance of being ennobled by their treatment. In No. 21 of THE NATION, we spoke of that picture by M. Charles Baugniet which was in the Artists' Fund Exhibition, "Improving the Eyelids." The picture catalogued as "The Attentive Chambermaid," and No. 5 of the present European collection, but now at Mr. Knoedler's gallery, and more properly to be called "The Lady's Maid" or "The Shoe," is even more remarkable for the technical skill displayed than was the former. Wonderfully delicate and imitative is the painting of the lace and silk, and not less truthfully drawn and rounded than simpler things is the lady's left arm, relieved against the dress which she is settling into its folds. How good such careful transcript would be if the things represented were better worth representing! How delightful would be even an inadequate painting of interiors and costume if these were more beautiful! If only Baugniet and Fichel and De Jonghe had mediæval interiors to paint! But as they are, nothing but real affluence of color will make good pictures of these subjects.

De Jonghe is bold and consistent in his disregard of color; chooses and arranges his subjects with a certain originality for one so strictly devoted to a single class of subjects, and shows a natural, if not very elevated, sentiment. He has a small picture in the Studio Building Gallery; but much larger and more important pictures are at Mr. Knoedler's—for instance, "The Twins," exhibited in Paris in 1863, and "La Causerie Intimè" of the salon of 1865.

M. Eugène Fichel seems to us a much more able painter than De Jonghe. But his skill is shown only in small pictures, of but little actual interest—No. 26, "Napoleon Bonaparte Studying," and two at Goupil's. There is not enough work of his before us to justify criticism.

M. Florent Willems is well known to New Yorkers by means of the highly finished and exquisite little pictures which from time to time, during the last four years, have been for sale, and sold, in this city. Two pictures by him are in the Tenth Street Gallery, No. 169, "The Convalescent," and No. 170, "The Lecture," or, more properly, "The Reading." This latter seemed to us the best Willems that we had yet seen. But since our first look at the two young ladies who read and listen, there has come another picture by the same artist vastly superior in every respect. "Au Roi!" is an admirable picture. It is small; although containing seven figures it is not larger than pictures by the same master of one figure or two; it is painted on panel,

like so many of the more minute and delicate French paintings. The interior of a very stately room is shown; a round table is set toward one of its corners; there are five guests, who are attended by two young pages. The toast is, "To the King!" and all have risen to honor it; one young man, belated, his glass not yet refilled, eagerly bids the others wait for him. The dignified gentleman in the foreground, in boots, while the rest are in rich in-door dress, is said to be, and may be, the king himself, who is entertaining his friends in a sort of understood incognito. The subject seems to be of small importance, though naturally and spiritedly treated. But when mere technical skill reaches such excellence as here, and is used to set forth a scene not inharmonious in line and hue, it is in itself of positive value. The interior of the room alone, richly and effectively decorated in the style of Francis I., the floor of colored marble, exquisite in color and simple in design, the furniture of the same period of art, solid and strongly made and richly adorned, with no air of modern upholstery about it; the splendid wine-cooler of gilded metal, catching and reflecting the diffused light of the interior; this alone (for it is one) would be a picture to enjoy, even without the figures. The skill shown in the painting of these details is marvellous; the floor especially is as fine as one can imagine such a thing to be. Then come the figures. The costume (time, the former half of the sixteenth century) is well chosen; some enormities of fashion which appeared later were not then in vogue. The colors are well harmonized and very delicately graded. The whole central group of the picture comes very near being a noble piece of coloring; and the men themselves are very good types and very human in look and action. There is a vivacity about the picture which is very charming and very unusual, seeming almost to tell of long acquaintance with courts and courtiers and all worldly splendors on the part of the artist.

A generally diffused pure daylight invests the whole scene, such as enters a large room through large windows. The sharp contrasts of light and shadow are not for us this time; the academician criticism of Paris has already objected to the absence of a central light or an extreme dark; we are rejoicing over their absence, believing that this very manner has helped the painter to better color than he ever got before, while not injuring the picture in any essential respect.

MUSIC.

THE PAREPA FAREWELL CONCERTS.

It is usually rather disagreeable to attend the concerts of any ordinary star single—if we may apply in the concert-room an epithet borrowed from the theatre—they are so obviously got up to show off one person, and the rest of the programme is put in merely to fill up time and detain the audience long enough for them to think they have had their money's worth. But the concerts under the management of Mr. Bateman have been of a very different character. The performers were all first-rate artists. A remarkable and brilliant singer, the best pianist in America, a violinist who is nearer a genius than any we have had here for some years, a virtuoso on the cornet capable of drawing out any amount of popular applause, and a good and well-trained orchestra, form a combination such as is very seldom heard by our concert-goers. The music performed was well selected from various schools, and was the best of each kind. The programmes had something really artistic about their arrangement. There was necessarily a certain amount of show and sensation performance, but there was enough each night of really good music to enable the most fastidious music-lover to listen with enjoyment. The orchestra played at least two good overtures and one or two pieces beside; Miss Parepa sang excellently in three or four styles, supported by an orchestral accompaniment, not merely by a piano; the solo players performed selections from the classics of their instruments, so that the general effect was very harmonious and good. We regret that these are farewell concerts, for we fear it will be long before New York will hear so much that is excellent again.

The first concert on Saturday evening opened with Nicolai's overture, "Merry Wives of Windsor," always bright and cheering, and well played by the thoroughly disciplined orchestra. Mr. Mills followed this by a "Berceuse" and a waltz of Chopin, which he rendered with the delicacy and taste which is now habitual to him, whom we think the most artistic pianoforte player in New York, so great has his improvement been recently. Miss Parepa, though seemingly a little tired, sang "Casta Diva" with great precision and excellence, but did not touch the heart so much as she pleased the ear. She may have needed the excitement of the opera to give the additional passion, but certainly she sang it not so well as we have heard Lagrange sing it. It is very difficult to compare the present voice of one singer with the recollection of another, but we surely have felt more thrilled and moved by the same music than we did when Parepa gave it the other night. Faultless as Parepa is in execution, and great intelligence as she shows in all her renderings, she lacks sympathy, and fails to touch the inmost soul, which is the especial gift of the most perfect interpreters of great music. Her voice has uncommon reach and power, the tones being round, sonorous, and musical in the upper register up to E flat, as well as in the soprano region. Its volume is great, and it filled the Academy with ease, being perfectly clear and distinct in every part. Her style of singing is noble and almost perfect, with a just appreciation of the meaning of the words and the sentiment of the music. Her voice was very sustaining both in swelling and modulating single tones and through all the variations and changes of the intricate passages. Her execution was almost perfect, an occasional difficulty in breathing, and a disagreeable throat-sound in her trill that should warn her not to use it so frequently, being the only blemishes, though we occasionally thought that she slid her voice a little badly from one register to another.

After the scherzo from Mendelssohn's music to the "Midsummer-Night's Dream" by the orchestra, Mr. Rosa played the "Fantasia Caprice" of Vieuxtemps, not, we should think, a piece that he thoroughly liked, but one that showed his power over his instrument. Rosa is young, with a fresh and ingenuous countenance, apparently wrapt up in his music. He is lately from the Leipzic Conservatoire, where he was under the instruction of David, and enjoyed intercourse with Joachim, who, we are told, has predicted a fine future for him. He plays cleanly and neatly, with a beautiful clear tone and excellent execution, and in every respect better than Prume, who played at the last Philharmonic concert. He is an artist, and is always expressive. His least notes move deeply. "The Nightingale's Trill," by Gauz, is a show-piece of slight merit, but considerable difficulty of execution. The runs and leaps, though a trifle to what La Bastardella used to sing, were clear and liquid. The echoes were excellently sung, but the trills were a disfigurement. Mr. Levy closed the first part with Hartmann's "Alexis" on the cornet. He made a *furore*, and received an encore. His playing is very wonderful; and in all the intricacies of runs and difficult passages, he shows his powers of tonguing and his manipulation of the instrument in a most noteworthy manner. He brought tones and expression out of the cornet that one could hardly suppose it capable of producing, and his *cantabile* passages were very beautiful. Some perverse purists object to the *cornet-à-piston* entirely, because it is no longer a horn pure and simple, but has, by stops and valves, enlarged its scale and its expressive power But they, perhaps, might like to turn the pianoforte into a spinet, and prohibit all instrumental music save the original reed-pipe. The cornet is, indeed, not a noble instrument, and its proper place is in an orchestra, where it has a part, and an important one too. Solos on the cornet, however beautiful, are like those on the bassoon or oboe, mere exhibitions of skill, and so not thoroughly artistic, in the best sense of the word.

The second part commenced with the overture to Coriolanus, in our view one of the poorest of Beethoven's minor works. Miss Parepa and Mr. Levy followed with Proch's "Alpenhorn," arranged as a duet for voice and cornet. Here was an occasion where the cornet was used to advantage, and where also great excellence in playing it was manifest in the soft tones of the echo, so closely resembling in quality the human voice. It was excellently given. Mr. Mills dashed off with great *bravura* Liszt's splendid arrangement of the celebrated "Rakoczy March," and gained himself an enthusiastic encore. Rosa played Ernst's "Elégie" in a most beautiful and sustained manner, with more artistic feeling and perception than we have ever heard it given. Miss Parepa sang "Comin' thro' the Rye" with spirit and archness, and for an encore gave Claribel's "At five o'clock in the morning," a nonsensical ballad which belongs to what a writer in the London *Orchestra* calls the "Horological School." Mr. Levy introduced a disturbing element into the concert in the shape of the "Excelsior Polka," by which we were at once transported to the circus, and hardly needed to shut our eyes to see in imagination a monkey-ridden horse galloping around the ring. It is a pity for the sake of a little applause to break in on the pleasant state of feeling produced by so much good music by such paltry clap-trap as this. The orchestra played the brilliant overture to "Zampa," and the Academy, which had been thoroughly full, quickly emptied the pleased hearers to their various homes.

The programme for Monday evening was better, as far as the vocal pieces were concerned. Miss Parepa sang "O luce di quest' anima" from "Linda;" the beautiful "Let the bright seraphim" from "Samson," which made us the more deeply regret that we could not hear her in oratorio here; and the prayer from Wallace's "Lurline." Rosa played the andante and finale of Mendelssohn's "Concerto" and a fantasia on "Trovatore." Mills gave Liszt's transcription from "Sonnambula" and his own "Second Tarantelle;" and the orchestra performed the overtures to "Oberon" and "Fra Diavolo," the andante from one of Schneider's symphonies, and the "Coronation March," a fitting epilogue to such a concert.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday Morning,
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THE receipts of cotton at the ports up to 31st ult. aggregate 1,300,000 bales, thus falsifying the estimates of the Secretary of the Treasury and the most experienced merchants in the trade. It is now said that the crop of 1865 will, with the accumulations of previous years, amount to not less than 2,100,000 bales, worth, at a moderate estimate, $150 per bale in gold. The South will thus have a sum of $315,000,000 to begin the world again upon. The ex-rebels and their friends North and in Europe continue to assure us that there will be no cotton worth mentioning raised in 1866. But as these are the same persons who would not allow that the crop of 1865 with previous accumulations could exceed a million bales, their present opinions must be received with caution. It is evident, in fact, from the efforts which are being made in every cotton State to compel the freedmen to hire for the year, that the planters are going at least to try to raise a full crop.

The statement of the public debt which was made up at the close of the calendar year 1865, shows that, on Dec. 31, the net debt (after deducting cash in hand from the gross amount of securities afloat) was $2,716,581,536, or $1,948,222 more than it was on 30th November last. The internal revenue for the six months ending on 31st ult. was over $175,000,000, and the customs revenue for the same period not less than $83,000,000 (in gold)—together, $258,000,000, or, allowing for premium on surplus gold sold, not less than $275,000,000. Should the remaining six months of the year produce as much, the annual revenue would amount to $550,000,000, which would not only enable the Department to dispense with new loans, but would place the Secretary in a position to reduce the principal of the debt by over $100,000,000. As may be inferred from the small increase of debt during the month of December, the changes in the securities by which it is represented have been trivial. The old 5 per cent. coupon legal tenders have been reduced to about $8,500,000 in all, and replaced by compound legal tenders; the debt certificates have been increased, and the old legal tenders slightly diminished. A reduction is reported in the temporary deposits. Sound policy would dictate the funding of these deposits as soon as convenient. So long as the Government is liable to be called upon to pay, at 10 days' notice, $75,000,000 or $100,000,000 in legal tender notes, the Secretary of the Treasury will be in the power of the moneyed institutions of the country, and will not be free to pursue a policy which they disapprove. No contraction or any other measure tending to embarrass the banking interest is feasible so long as the banks hold a call upon Government for an amount of currency greater than the whole balance in the Treasury.

Money continues to accumulate in our banks, and the standard rate for call loans on approved securities is now reduced to 6 per cent. On Governments loans are made as low as 5 per cent. In consequence of the

reduced shipments of grain from the West and the large purchases of goods by Western merchants, that section is not drawing as much money as usual from the seaboard; and, unless a funding loan should be placed on the market, the rate of interest bids fair to fall at least as low as 5 per cent. It can hardly be expected, however, that Mr. McCulloch will allow the present opportunity to escape without funding at least fifty millions of the compound notes and temporary deposits. Five-twenty bonds are nearly 105 for the old issues, and the European consumption is so active that an export of fully a million a week may fairly be expected for some time to come. Money is very easy. These appear to be the conditions to which the Secretary made reference in his report, when he spoke of funding the currency from time to time whenever circumstances were auspicious for the negotiation of loans. Hence it has been commonly reported in the Street for some days past that a loan would be announced this week. At the Sub-Treasury the public are assured that the Department has no present intention of offering new bonds. But, on the other hand, it is asserted, on fair authority, that an understanding has been arrived at by the Secretary of the Treasury, Mr. Fessenden, of the Senate, and Mr. Hooper, of the House of Representatives, in pursuance of which a bill will shortly be put through Congress, empowering the Secretary of the Treasury to fund currency whenever he may deem it advisable; and, in the event of the passage of such a bill, there would seem to be no good reason for waiting for a more favorable opportunity than the present one to inaugurate the policy of contraction. If the Government cannot contract now, when money is a drug, when the national banks are issuing $3,000,000 of paper per week, and 5-20 bonds at 5 per cent. premium are in active demand for export, it can hardly be able to do so hereafter. By counting the Clearing House certificates as legal tender, which they are in fact, the New York City banks now show a reserve of legal-tender paper equal to $75,000,000—say 42 per cent. of their liabilities.

Gold fell last week, under the dread of coming contraction, to 141½; closing at about 141⅞. This is the heaviest fall we have had to chronicle for several weeks. It was in part due to the failure of a heavy bull operator in gold, who has figured extensively in the Gold Room during the past two years. Exchange was weaker last week, in consequence of the bills drawn against five-twenties and liberal cotton shipments. At the close of the Saturday mail, bankers' bills were sold at 109, and fair commercial bills at 108. Importers still cling to the theory that gold is going to fall heavily, and remit as little as they can.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, exchange, gold, and money markets:

	Dec. 30.	Jan. 6.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	108¼	104⅜ ex c.	....	⅞
5-20 Bonds, old	105	104⅞	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	102	....	....
10-40 Bonds	93⅝	98⅜	....	¼
7.30 Notes, second series	97⅝	98⅜	⅜	....
New York Central	96¾	96	....	¾
Erie Railway	97¼	95¾	....	⅛
Hudson River	109	108	....	1
Reading Railroad	106⅛	105¼	....	1¼
Michigan Southern	74⅝	72⅛	....	2½
Cleveland and Pittsburg	84⅛	82¾	....	1⅜
Chicago and North-Western	35¾	35⅛	....	⅝
" " " " Preferred	61⅞	60¼	....	1⅝
Chicago and Rock Island	108⅜	107¼	....	1¼
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	106	100½	....	5½
Canton	45¾	45	....	¾
Cumberland	45	44¼	....	¾
Mariposa	14¾	14¼	....	½
American Gold	144¾	141⅞	....	2⅞
Bankers' Bills on London	109¼	109	....	¼
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

The course of prices has been uniformly downward. This has been due in part to the decline in gold, with which stocks always sympathize more or less; in part to the natural reaction from an active speculation for the rise engineered by weak operators; in part to the dread of a tight money market to ensue from a new funding loan; and in part to the declining traffic on the railways. Of these various causes, the most potent has been the second. Allusion was made in recent articles in this journal to the "cornering" movements in Erie and Pittsburg, by means of which the price of both stocks had been forced far above the real value of the property, and the bears forced to submit to severe punishment. Of Erie nearly all the floating shares were bought up by one house, which was understood to be in close relations with the leading director of the road; by refusing to lend stock, and so compelling the bears to buy for delivery, this house forced up the price to 97, and held it between 95 and 97 for many days together. It is clear, however, that the stock of the Erie Railway, whose expenses absorb 80 per cent. of its gross earnings—according to the official report to the Legislature—is not worth 95, or 90, or any such figure. So of the Cleveland and Pittsburg. By buying up all the stock a clique managed to force up the price to 97, dividend on, or 93, dividend off. It needs no demonstration to show that a railway stock which only pays 4 per cent. dividend in a year is not worth so much. It is mainly to the natural recoil from the advance produced by these factitious influences that the decline of the past two weeks is due. In both instances the cliques discover that, at the high prices to which they have succeeded in forcing the stocks, the public are sellers, not buyers. In both, the bears, after enduring some punishment, relinquish the contest, leaving their antagonists masters of the field and *owners of the stock*. In both, after some delay, the bulls conclude to sell, and the consequence is a heavy and sudden decline. That decline has commenced in Pittsburg, which has fallen from 97 to 81½—15½ per cent.—in about a fortnight; it is yet to come in Erie. Among the other shares the heaviest decline is in Fort Wayne, which is quoted 5½ per cent. lower than it was a week ago. No specific cause is ascribed for this sudden falling off, though it is surmised that the change of direction in the Cleveland and Pittsburg may lead to a disturbance of the peaceable relations existing between the two lines. Michigan Southern is heavy, and has been pressed for sale at a decline of over 2 per cent. during the week. The directors met on Wednesday and determined to declare no January dividend. It is now a year since a dividend was paid on this stock, and as the earnings show a heavy falling off from last year, the prospect of anything being divided among the shareholders at midsummer is slim. Rock Island and Hudson are firm, being manipulated by cliques. New York Central has also been the subject of some manipulation; the price rose at one time last week to 98, and certain manœuvres on Saturday rather indicate a renewal of the forcing process next week. Intrinsically, the stock is above its value. According to the official reports, it is earning about 5 per cent. So long as Government securities, paying 6 per cent. in gold or 7.30 in currency, can be bought at or near par, it cannot be expected that 4 or 6 per cent. railway stocks can be maintained at anything like the same figure.

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United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$4,974,700
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	2,187,950
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable, Real Estate, Bond and Mortgages, and other securities	3,140,530
United States Gold Coin	541,890
Cash in Bank	288,430
	$11,135,500

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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 29. THURSDAY, JANUARY 18, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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The Week.

A PORTION of a letter has been published written by General Grant in reply to an application from Governor Parsons, of Alabama, for the withdrawal of the federal troops and the arming of the local militia, in which the general declines to recommend any such measure until "there is full security for equitably maintaining the rights and safety of all classes of citizens in the States lately in rebellion." This accords with the view we have ventured to take in another column of the necessity of ample protection for persons and property as the basis of all plans of reconstruction. But it must not be forgotten that the insecurity which now prevails at the South is not merely one of the sequelæ of the war, as some persons represent it. It is a chronic disease of Southern society, and must be eradicated by interposing the strong arm, if not of law, at least of justice, between every man's head and the bludgeon or pistol of the mob. A good test question to put to every State applying for readmission would be, Can Wendell Phillips deliver one of his most violent and desponding lectures on any part of your soil without other risk than that of being hissed?

A GREAT deal of painful uncertainty weighs upon the public mind concerning the late attempt to assassinate Senator Wade, of Ohio, if it *was* an attempt to assassinate. As an assassination, the thing was a failure; as a means of publicity, it was a prodigious success. Every variety of transaction has now been telegraphed from Washington as descriptive of the real occurrence. At one time we behold the senator assailed with a bowie-knife, as long at least as the bow which the reporters draw, and in the scornful attitude of simply kicking the blood-stained miscreant down stairs. In another *tableau* he "forces him to the door with the assistance of fire-arms," and *then* kicks him down stairs. Again, we see a foolish half-witted fellow, after making a harmless thrust at the senatorial waist-band with a penknife, led good-humoredly out, *and* kicked down stairs. The only point clearly established, therefore, is that Mr. Wade has kicked somebody down stairs; bowie-knife, fire-arms, penknife, all else is wrapped in the deepest mystery. Whether it is a dagger which we see before us, or but a dagger of the mind of the reporters, no one can decide but Mr. Wade, who should relieve popular anxiety in some way.

MR. ADAMS and Lord Clarendon have, *apropos* of the *Shenandoah*, taken up the international controversy where Earl Russell left it, and it cannot be said that they have thrown any new light on the subject. Lord Clarendon received, however, two or three very hard hits on the question, raised by himself, of American laxness during the South American war with Portugal, being, in fact, completely floored by Mr. Adams's citations, whereupon his Lordship declined further controversy in order to avoid creating "acrimonious" feeling between the two countries—a bit of precaution which strikes us as superfluous.

MR. RAYMOND, of New York, has introduced two excellent bills into the House, one to provide New York with a decent post-office, and the other to provide the United States with a decent naturalization law, under which color shall cease to be a disqualification for citizenship. If he added a clause to his post-office bill requiring in the New York postmaster ability to read and write English correctly, and insisting on his close attention to his official business and rigorous abstinence from electioneering excursions round the city, he would lay the public under still greater obligations. The New York post-office is already one of the most important institutions in the country, being the greatest postal centre; but it is managed as if it were simply a large hall for political re-unions.

A MOVEMENT was begun in this city soon after Mr. Lincoln's death for the collection of dollar subscriptions to build him a monument. Why people who wanted and could afford to give a hundred dollars were not to be allowed to do so was never clearly explained; but as nothing has now been heard of the matter for some months, we think it is the duty of the persons having the matter in charge to let the public know what progress they have made and how many dollars they have got.

GENERAL SWEENEY, who occupies some post of honor and profit amongst the Fenians, entered upon the business of organizing that body and declaring war against Great Britain while serving in the United States army, and it appears omitted the little formality of asking leave of absence from his superiors when charging himself with the business of the Brotherhood. The President has accordingly gently reminded him of the oversight by dismissing him from the service, a step which will not only give the public great satisfaction, but promote discipline in the army. One of the curses of the service hitherto has been that many officers could not rid themselves of the idea that when they received a commission they were charged with the double duty of commanding their men and of helping along what they conceived to be the true foreign policy of the nation, by making little demonstrations now and then against friendly powers. General Sweeney is probably by this time considerably astonished to find that the President intends to decide himself when Canada had better be invaded or a descent made on Ireland.

THE population of this State, according to last year's census, is 3,831,937—an increase, in the preceding decade, of 363,232. The number of legal voters is 823,426.

WE publish elsewhere the letter of a correspondent whose opportunities of becoming acquainted with the real feelings and aims of the Southern population have been unusually good, and whose capacity as an accurate observer is attested by the fact that he was selected for his mission by an association of manufacturing men desiring information for business purposes. He sums up in this letter the experience of five months of travel, and we earnestly commend his conclusions to the attention of everybody who desires a real and not merely formal reconstruction of the Union.

"A. W. K.'s" experience, coupled with that of our own correspondent, is full of warning for those who are inclined, as so many are, to reason about Southern men's conduct and motives from the same premises as about those of Northern men, overlooking, as it seems to us, the totally different training and education which the people of each section have received, and the totally different meanings which they attach to the word "interest." We may add, too, that in taking a less hopeful view of the state of the South than that of a large portion of the public, we are actuated by no party feeling whatever, and have no party purpose to serve. We care nothing for party triumphs; but we are satisfied that we must all cultivate the habit, in politics as in other things, of seeing things as they are, and not as we would like to have them, if we really mean to solve the tremendous problems now before the country.

Mrs. Dall writes us a remonstrance upon our recent expression of opinion that women ought not to have the franchise till they show that they generally desire it, and alleges that this argument would shut out negroes from the suffrage who had not sense or cultivation enough to ask for it, or want it. The political, social, mental, and moral condition of the women of the United States is so very different from that of the negroes, that we do not think any discussion of this point on our part is necessary; and whatever may be the state of feeling as regards the franchise amongst the women of Massachusetts, we shall require very much stronger evidence than has yet been submitted to the public to make us believe that one-hundredth part of the women of the United States either desire to vote, or, if allowed to vote to-morrow, would do so for any better reason than to oblige their nearest male relative. No statistics have as yet been collected on this point that are of the slightest value. Women have, no doubt, voted in Australia; but how many?

The Supreme Court of Massachusetts recently decided that, in conformity with a statute of the Legislature, towns may assess a tax to refund the moneys voluntarily advanced by individuals toward creating a bounty fund in view of an impending draft. Such persons, the court adjudged, had a moral claim for reimbursement, from the fact that their contributions were given "in aid of the performance of a public duty which devolved on the city or town, and for which it would have been competent for the Legislature, in anticipation of the exigency, to authorize money to be raised by taxation or otherwise, on the credit of a town or city. The particular town in question, however, had included in its appropriation the sum of one thousand dollars, which was designed to reimburse two persons for the cost of procuring substitutes for themselves. This the court held to be clearly unauthorized, since "it relieved one citizen from the performance of a legal duty at the public expense, and appropriated money for a private purpose which could only be raised and used for public objects." The whole appropriation was consequently vitiated, and a perpetual injunction was issued upon its collection and enforcement.

The Boston Public Library was instituted thirteen years ago in an humble way, and now possesses more than 120,000 volumes. Its circulation has expanded from 7,000 to 195,000 per annum, averaging, for the past year of 275 days, 700 per diem. The ample freedom of the reading-room and library has been abused by the unscrupulous, who have defaced, mutilated, or stolen many books and periodicals, so that legislation is needed to counteract this evil, in its nature exceedingly difficult to reach. After all, the losses which arise from this cause are trifling in comparison with the immense advantages of the institution itself, to whose existence and liberal management we attribute in fair measure the political regeneration of the city which cherishes it, since we are not aware that the native population, hitherto driven to the suburbs for homes, have begun to overcome the numerical preponderance of the foreign. The Public Library also tends powerfully to preserve the homogeneousness of Boston, to which contracted limits are in themselves favorable. New York is sadly in need of such a resort for all classes of her citizens. The Astor Library is not for the people. Its books do not circulate, and it is closed after dark. If any one of our millionaires contemplates founding a university, we entreat him to do better and give this metropolis a free library.

The case of the Smith brothers, of Boston, who were tried by a naval court-martial before which conviction was a foregone necessity, is disgraceful to the history of our Navy Department during the war. That the department was conscious of this reproach has appeared from its absolute refusal to publish President Lincoln's decision annulling the whole proceedings. This has somehow transpired, and was read on Wednesday week to the Boston Board of Trade. It is highly characteristic of its author, and is as follows:

"*Whereas*, Franklin W. Smith had transactions with the Navy Department to the amount of one million and a quarter of a million of dollars; and, *whereas*, he had the chance to steal a quarter of a million, and was only charged with stealing twenty-two hundred dollars—and the question now is about his stealing a hundred; I do n't believe he stole anything at all. Therefore the record and findings are disapproved, declared null and void, and the defendants are fully discharged."

The question of trying Davis has again come up in reply to enquiries addressed to the President by Congress, and the reasons for not trying him are furnished by Attorney-General Speed. These are, that he must be tried where his crimes were committed, and before a civil court. His crimes were committed in the South, which is still under martial law; therefore, he must remain in prison.

A batch of Mexican correspondence has been published, the sum and substance of which is that the French are willing to evacuate Mexico if the United States will recognize Maximilian. But the United States will not recognize Maximilian, and therefore the French will remain—a result with which, it is hardly necessary to say, neither Mr. Seward nor M. Drouyn de Lhuys is satisfied. The latter became unpleasantly facetious a few weeks ago by advising Mr. Bigelow to complain to Juarez, and not to him, of outrages committed on the Mexican border.

Two Richmond editors fought with pistols in the hall of the Capitol at Richmond a fortnight ago, and succeeded in shooting away the head of the cane in the hand of Washington's statue. Mr. Pollard, of the *Examiner*, the "historian of the war," as wags are in the habit of calling him, has now assaulted Mr. Brooks, the correspondent of the New York *Times*, being armed characteristically with a bowie-knife and cowhide. The affair ended simply in torn clothes. We wonder greatly, and shall not cease wondering, that Southern men, capable of reading and with some little knowledge of history and of the rest of the world, do not give up bowie-knives, cowhides, and revolvers. What can be the charm of being a raging barbarian in the broad daylight of civilization? If it proved courage to attack people in the streets with deadly weapons, there might be some excuse for it; but it does not. There are no braver men breathing than Frenchmen, but fancy a respectable Frenchman lying in wait for an enemy on the Champs Elysées with a *couteau de chasse* and a yard or two of untanned cowhide!

A meeting was recently held in London composed of about eighty persons, principally "High Church clergymen," for the purpose of conferring with Prince Orloff and two or three Russian ecclesiastics as to the best means of bringing about union, or at least intercommunion, between the Anglican and Greek churches. The English bishops present, according to Prince Orloff's account, urged immediate action, but the Russians were cautious, and declined to sanction or encourage any movement without further discussion. They said the Russian Church would need much more information, and desired that works might be published in England "with a view to prove that the Anglican Church is not a Protestant but a Catholic Church." The Broad Church party, as represented by the *Spectator*, are very indignant at what they consider the readiness of the High Church bishops to sacrifice the historic character of the English Church for the sake of securing Russian recognition of its orthodoxy.

A contract was completed last week between the Atlantic and Great Western and the Philadelphia and Reading railroad companies,

by which a line is to be laid, in the narrow gauge, upon the former road to all the chief cities of the West, and the two connected by a new line from Centre County, Pa., to Northumberland. As an immediate consequence of this enterprise, there is promised the establishment of a line of steamships between Philadelphia and England.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Jan. 13, 1866.

THE feature of the week has been the prolonged debate in the House upon the bill to enfranchise politically the colored men in the District of Columbia. This has attracted to the Capitol the largest audiences of the season, and it is plain to see, from the notable effect of the best points made by the advocates of the extended suffrage, that the sympathy of the population here is not, as has been represented, all on the other side. The original proposition, to admit all negroes of the prescribed age to the polls, has been modified by the Senate Committee, and will very probably be modified in the House, so as to limit the franchise to three classes: 1st, all who can read and write; 2d, all who have served in the army of the United States; 3d, all who pay taxes upon property. But there is much division of opinion among the friends of the measure as to those limitations. Some of the most sagacious are opposed to the exaction of a standard of intelligence, and ex-Gov. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, contrary to the provisions of the constitution of his own State, is in favor of universal suffrage. That President Johnson is friendly to the bill was announced on the floor of the House by Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania.

There are palpable signs of a purpose on the part of Congress to take vigorously hold of that "twin relic of barbarism," polygamy, and blot it out of existence in Utah. There is already legislation enough on the statute-book to do this, were it enforced. But the problem before our legislators is how to render any legislation effective over a recusant population, fanatically wedded to an outlawed institution. Is there anything that can purge the United States of the reproach of polygamy short of another and a final Mormon exodus?

The reply of Major-General Howard to the House resolution of enquiry respecting the restoration to late rebel owners of property legally confiscated to the United States, setting forth the orders of the President as far back as August, 1865, to restore all property to those who received his pardon, was referred to the Judiciary Committee. This was done at the instance of Thaddeus Stevens, who significantly said that he wanted to test the legality of this proceeding of the Executive. There is no question that the Confiscation Act of July 17, 1862, is virtually nullified by it, and although the same act authorizes the President to grant pardon and amnesty, "by proclamation," to persons participating in the rebellion, it does not settle the question of the restoration of their forfeited property.

Two or three very able speeches, maintaining the doctrine of "State suicide" by rebellion, have been made, that of Mr. Shellabarger, of Ohio, in the House, and of Mr. Howe, of Wisconsin, in the Senate, being especially notable. Neither of them has been answered, and the purpose of Congress to adhere to its prerogative in prescribing the time, mode, and conditions of reconstruction has been materially strengthened.

The application of the Committee on Reconstruction for power to send for persons and papers, indicates a prolonged and searching investigation at their hands. But the testimony and the proceedings of the committee are to be guarded from publicity for a time. This is a measure of very doubtful expediency, and likely to lead, as in the case of the "Peace Convention" of February, 1861, to more evil, agitation, and misrepresentation than would result from entire and voluntary publicity.

A caucus of the Union members of the House, held this week, settled the principle that important legislative measures are hereafter to be so far considered by the majority before being pushed to a vote in the House as to secure a more united action. Several instances of "hasty legislation," on the part of both House and Senate, have occurred, rendering it necessary for each body to recall from the other a bill once regularly passed. Is it not a little surprising that legislators of such age and political experience as take a leading part in the business of Congress should not be able to avoid such crudities and ambiguities as have so often crept into our national legislation and deformed the statute-book?

DIARY.

Monday, January 8, 1866.—In the Senate, Mr. Morgan presented a petition of the New York Chamber of Commerce for a law to exempt Northern creditors from the Southern State statutes of limitation for a certain period. Referred. Mr. Johnson presented credentials of Randall Hunt as a Senator from Louisiana. Laid on the table.

In the House, bills were offered to prevent certain persons guilty of rebellion from holding office under the federal Government; to educate the militia of the United States; to amend the naturalization laws; to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau; to amend the tariff laws; to supply deficiencies in the appropriations for the current year; to sell the public lands in Alabama and four other Southern States under the Homestead Act; to erect a post-office in New York City; to authorize a railroad from Washington to New York; to secure the writ of habeas corpus to persons held in slavery contrary to the Constitution; to amend the Constitution as to basis of representation; and to authorize the issue of bonds for funding the obligations of the United States; all of which were referred. A resolution declaring that the military forces should not be withdrawn from the seceding States until Congress declares their presence no longer necessary was passed—ayes, 94; nays, 37. A letter was received from the Freedmen's Bureau stating that, by order of the President, lands confiscated to the United States had been restored to parties pardoned by the President. Referred to the Committee on the Judiciary to enquire into the legality of the act. A resolution looking to further legislation to suppress polygamy was passed. Mr. Blaine offered a constitutional amendment, basing representation in Congress upon the actual number of persons in each State not deprived of political rights on account of race or color. Referred. Mr. Shellabarger spoke at length on reconstruction, arguing that the rebellious States ceased to be States by secession, and should be treated as dependencies until equal rights to all are secured beyond contingency by amendment of the Constitution.

January 9.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner offered a resolution looking to the prevention of kidnapping and the revival of the slave-trade on our Southern coast. Referred.

In the House, Mr. Broomall offered resolutions declaring the South a conquered territory, and its future political condition to be fixed by the supreme power of the conqueror; that the effect of amnesties and pardons is to relieve individuals from punishment for crime, not to confer upon them political rights; and that Congress should speedily organize State governments composed of loyal citizens alone, excluding from political power all participants in the late rebellion. Referred. Mr. Voorhees brought up his resolutions pledging Congress to uphold the President in his policy of restoring civil government to the Southern States. Mr. Bingham moved an amendment, "that this House has an abiding confidence in the President that he will co-operate with Congress in restoring to equal position and rights in the Union all the States lately in insurrection." Both sets of resolutions were sent to the Reconstruction Committee—yeas, 107; nays, 32.

Jan. 10.—In the Senate, a bill was introduced and laid over, giving to the Secretary of the Treasury the appointment of assistant assessors of internal revenue. Mr. Wilson introduced a bill to increase and fix the military establishment of the United States. Referred. Mr. Morrill's bill to regulate the elective franchise in the District was taken up, amended, and recommitted. An amendment prescribing a reading and writing qualification was objected to by Mr. Pomeroy, and laid over. Mr. Howe offered a joint resolution declaring the necessity of provisional governments for the South, and spoke at length in its favor. The Senate went into executive session.

In the House, a resolution was offered defining the proper use of the "previous question" as a means of reasonable debate. Referred to the Committee on Rules. The Committee on Freedmen's Affairs was instructed by resolution to enquire into the truth of certain allegations against South Carolina planters of injustice towards freedmen in their employ. A resolution (by Mr. Davis, of New York) of confidence on the part of the House in the President, and support of the general policy inaugurated by him was laid over on debate. The President was requested to furnish information concerning the causes of the confinement of the leading rebels, and the reasons why Jefferson Davis has not been tried for treason. A resolution declaring that the House would not exclude Southern delegates because colored votes were not allowed at their election was referred to the Committee on Reconstruction. The bill for the right of suffrage in the District was taken up and debated with great liveliness, and closed by a powerful speech from Judge Kelley, of Pennsylvania.

Jan. 11.—In the Senate, the bill for the appointment of assistant assessors was passed, after some debate about the character of Southern appointees. Mr. Trumbull reported the bill to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau, and that to protect the inhabitants of the United States in their civil rights. Mr. Howe's resolution was opposed in discussion by Mr. Johnson, of Maryland.

The House instructed the Committee on Territories to enquire into the expediency of dividing Utah and annexing the several portions to contiguous territories. The district suffrage bill was debated still further, Mr. Rogers, of New Jersey, being prominent in opposition, and Messrs. Kelley and Farnsworth in its support.

Jan. 12.—In the Senate, Mr. Trumbull presented the petition of the American Free Trade League, that no duties be hereafter laid for purposes of protection. The Joint Committee on Reconstruction, through its chairman, Hon. W. P. Fessenden, moved for authority to send for persons and papers. Agreed to. A resolution looking to the appointment of a select committee to enquire into the cotton transactions of special agents of the Treasury was referred. Mr. Trumbull's bill to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau was taken up, and several amendments to it adopted, when it was postponed to Monday, January 15. A message from the President was received, stating that he had declined to proclaim the admission of the Territory of Colorado as a State, because of informality in the adoption of its constitution, and referring the matter to Congress for its action. Referred. A bill was introduced for the admission of Colorado as a State. Referred. Mr. Trumbull called up his bill to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights, and sundry verbal amendments were adopted, and the bill postponed. Adjourned to Monday, January 15.

In the House, the bill of the Ways and Means Committee to extend the time for withdrawal of goods in bond was passed. A resolution reaffirming the Monroe Doctrine was referred. Mr. Raymond's resolution calling on the President for information relative to the condition of the late rebel States was passed. A resolution for increasing the compensation of members of Congress and Government employees was laid on the table by a vote of 147 to 5. The bill extending suffrage in the District was again discussed by Mr. Davis, of New York, in the affirmative, and Mr. Chanler, of New York, in the negative. Adjourned to Monday, January 15.

THE FREEDMEN.

Col. Whittlesey's "Summary Report of North Carolina" compares with Col. Brown's in respect to the difficulties encountered of obtaining assistants from the army, and of keeping them when detailed. "More than one half of the State is still without an officer or representative of the Bureau." Naturally a large part of the duties of the agents has consisted in affording protection to the freedman in his person and in his rights. The cases of this sort have defied any attempt to record them, and are reckoned at several thousand. "One officer reported that he had heard and disposed of as many as 180 complaints in a single day." The Commissioner presents a few specimens of the wrongs redressed or averted, and, remarking that a hundred pages might be filled with similar accounts, adds: "So far from being true that 'there is no county in which a freedman can be imposed upon' [speech of Judge Reed in Constitutional Convention], there is no county in which he is not oftener wronged; and these wrongs increase just in proportion to their distance from United States authorities." Still, great improvement is noted in this regard. As for the freedmen themselves, they have gradually settled down steadily to work. Out of 350,000, only about 5,000 are now receiving Government support. There is a great variety of contracts between them and their employers, and much vagueness in terms. "In the great majority of cases the land-owners seem disposed to do justly, and even generously." Hiring by the job or by the month has been successful, and is much more attractive than prospective shares in the crops. In Lenoir County, a joint-stock company has been formed among the freedmen for the purchase of homesteads and other purposes. The members will number 250, and the capital amount to $10,000, to be raised by Jan. 1, 1868. The Trent River Settlement, an outlying suburb of Newbern, which was laid out by Capt. James, has now a population of nearly 3,000, nine-tenths self-supporting. It is confessed by all "to be well-ordered, quiet, healthy, and better regulated than the city proper." There are in the State 63 schools, 85 teachers, and 5,624 pupils. There have been 512 marriages recorded.

In response to an enquiry of the House of Representatives, General Howard, on the 8th, submitted a statement of the disposition of the real estate which had in various ways fallen under the control of the Freedmen's Bureau. A number of pieces of property were seized and condemned under the act of July 17, 1864, and occupied by freedmen though not allotted to them. None of these have been restored to their former owners. A large number of abandoned plantations have been occupied by freedmen, and a few actually allotted to them under Gen. Sherman's order. No plantation thus allotted has been restored to any claimant, but some of those merely occupied have been, care having been always taken to prevent suffering from such action. No property vested in the United States by confiscation has been bestowed on conquered enemies. But property of this sort, as well as that allotted to freedmen, is a very insignificant proportion of the entire amount in the hands of the Bureau, which was turned over to it chiefly as abandoned, and not as libelled. Gen. Howard remarks:

"It was intended not only to allot this to freedmen, but also to use it as a means of revenue; for the latter purpose it had already become exceedingly useful and valuable to the Bureau, and measures had been initiated to use portions for the former purpose when, on the 16th of August, instructions were received to the effect that abandoned property should be restored to former owners when pardoned. Under those instructions the Bureau has parted with the greater part of this property. Its tenure upon it has been rendered so uncertain that the steps taken to allot it to freedmen have been countermanded in most instances, and its revenue has been so curtailed that it is not a self-supporting institution."

The census of the colored people in Washington is not quite finished. The following is the cens usof Alexandria County: Total number, 7,763, of which only 370 are outside of the city of Alexandria. Of these, 3,766 are males, and 3,997 are females. Under 14 years, 2,732; between 14 and 20 years, 1,180; between 20 and 30 years, 3,123; between 50 and 70 years, 603; over 70 years, 125. 1,734 of the whole number can read, and 641 are unable to support themselves. These people own property to the amount of $99,804 00. The above statistics are exclusive of what is known as "Freedman's Village" on Arlington Heights. Washington has been divided into districts, and each one of these has a visiting agent, who goes about amongst the poor and distributes supplies by his or her own hand. The Quartermaster's Department has kindly loaned wagons during the present cold weather, which are engaged in distributing wood about the city. The total number treated medically in Washington, Georgetown, Alexandria, and vicinity is 1,879, of which number 45 have died, and 1,166 have been discharged, leaving 668 under treatment.

A case of a colored man being still held as a slave in Montgomery County, Md., having been brought to the knowledge of the Bureau, immediate action was taken, and the papers referred to the U. S. District Attorney for Maryland, with an endorsement, of which the following is a part:

Washington, Jan. 10, 1866.

Respectfully referred to Hon. W. J. Jones, U. S. District Attorney for Maryland, with the request that he will, if possible, secure proper action in this case. The gentlemen in Montgomery County evidently stand in need of enlightenment. A copy of the official announcement of the ratification of the Constitutional Amendment is enclosed herewith for their information.

Gen. Saxton is ordered to report, as soon as he is mustered out of his volunteer rank, to Gen. Howard for inspection duty. His rank in the regular army is captain and brevet colonel. Brig.-Gen. R. K. Scott is assigned to duty as Assistant Commissioner for South Carolina.

There are 19 colored schools in operation in Arkansas, with 23 teachers and 1,349 scholars.

The state of things in Texas is such that medical officers cannot be found who will go there.

—Papers were presented on the 10th to the Senate from the Bureau of Military Justice in relation to recent trials in the South by military commission. In one instance Judge Holt received a petition bearing the names of 200 citizens of South Carolina and the governor's endorsement, and asking for the pardon of E. W. Andrews, of Orangeburg, who was undergoing sentence of imprisonment for two years for killing a negro charged with horse-stealing. The Judge-Advocate General replied that the very number of the petitioners was an additional reason for enforcing the sentence, since it betrayed the extent of the deadly hatred against the black race now entertained at the South. Other similar appeals for clemency were equally rebuked and disregarded by Mr. Holt.

—The Fisk Freedman's School was dedicated at Nashville on the 9th with speeches from Gen. Fisk and Gov. Brownlow. It is intended for a free high school, accommodating from 1,000 to 1,500 children. The governor warned the teachers that if Gen. Thomas and his troops should vacate the city, the school would not be tolerated by the predominant party a week, and the Legislature itself would be broken up by a mob in forty-eight hours.

—A proposition has been forwarded through the Bureau to the Secretary of War from a firm in Little Rock, Ark., to employ the colored troops in that department in completing the railroad from that city to the Mississippi. The pay to be in land on the line of the road, at fifty cents a day. Gens. Reynolds and Sherman are said to have endorsed this request.

—In Albemarle County, Va., negro men have been hiring for from eight to nine dollars a month, and women for from four to five dollars. Extra men in Charlottesville, says the local paper, get ten and twelve dollars.

Minor Topics.

When we cannot have things pleasant, it is human nature to want them abominably unpleasant; and we suspect that if people should analyze their feelings in regard to the cold of the 7th and 8th of January, they would find it one of pride in having known weather so cruelly

severe. It is a personal triumph with one to have survived it, and everybody's sufferings differed so much from the sufferings of everybody else, that they form a topic of the most varied interest, upon which people of the slenderest conversational means may make entertaining discourse. How one thought he should freeze Sunday night, and piled on a dozen blankets, and his overcoat on top, sir, is balanced by the experience of another who was afraid, by Jove, to go to bed at all that night. It is a fact, which Mr. Silent relates, with great vivacity, to the young ladies upon whom he is calling, that he had not put his head out of doors, Monday, till his beard and moustache froze tight together; and it is another fact with which the young ladies hasten to match Mr. Silent's, that *they* had fires in all the grates as well as the furnace, and had to put their shawls and furs on, and *then* they could not keep warm. Another recounts how he thought his ears were frost-bitten, without fear of the silly jest that the frost must have taken a large bite; while yet another rehearses his oft-told tale of being so cold that he had no feeling in him for hours. One who walks down town every day, hot or cold, wet or dry, and, marching along in a rain-storm without an umbrella, pities those poor devils mewed up in the street cars—even *he* has his sufferings to describe, and narrates that his right foot (very particular to have you know it was the right one) became insensible—like a clod of ice—and that he went into a saloon to warm it, and found no fire there, and called for a toby of ale (ale *does* warm you, he says, though most people think it a cooling drink), and took off his boot, and sat down on his foot till he thawed it; while his friend, who never went out doors all day, tells how he suffered in his mind on seeing a stage-driver lifted from his perch as stiff as your hat. Now, also, ladies, whose lady friends call upon them, rehearse their domestic woes, arising from the inclemency of the weather, which, heavenly muses, sing! Or need the muses sing? We know how the pipes burst, and the water ran down to the parlor ceiling, and the ceiling fell down on the piano; and how the housewives whom this disaster has befallen are only too glad, sweet souls! that it is no worse. As if it could have been! The lady friends, who are confidentially led to inspect the scene of desolation, are sure that *they* could not imagine anything worse.

And yet we think they might, if they gave rein to their fancy in the right direction. The reporters tell us in the daily press of the poor woman who took care of one blind, and rose up from her bed that bitter Sunday night, lest, with nothing to keep her from the cold, she should freeze there, and was found frozen to death in the morning upon her threshold. Of our million must not many have sat by fireless hearths all that cruel Monday long? Little children huddled moaning together, and sick and infirm persons cowering over empty grates—some things are worse than the bursting of water-pipes; and if you come to add hunger to the cold of the poor, it is almost enough to make one ashamed of one's most heroic experiences of the late weather.

We have an idea that if our friends, the habitually hungry and cold, met on Wednesday, and gossipped together, as we have figured our other friends, the habitually warm and full, to have done, they must have had things quite as interesting to say about the cold weather. Of course, the poor woman who was frozen to death Sunday night must be mute in this company; but the blind woman of whom she was taking care might describe the tragedy, as she heard it, quite pathetically and entertainingly: her companion's rising up from the comfortless couch and walking the miserable room; the cries and half-articulate prayers for pity, the cessation of the steps, the sound of some one lying heavily down, the sobs and moans drowning slowly in the blessed drowse of death. Oh never to be a-hungered, never to be a-cold, never to be poor any more! Why, this took place about the time that one of our habitually warm and full friends piled on a dozen blankets, and his overcoat on top, sir; and another, by Jove, was afraid to go to bed at all! And at the time that terrible accident happened to Mr. Silent's beard and moustache some discharged soldier, who had inherited a blue overcoat from a grateful republic, was hobbling on his crutches out of the station-house, where he had passed the night, and wondering where, in God's name, he should get his breakfast or pass the pleasant day. Drunk? Very likely. It was not the least part of the hard fate of those who fought to keep us a home and country that some of them learnt ugly vices from the dull life of camps, the desperate life of battles. But if we were pitied only for our wholly unmerited calamities, friends, how little compassion we should get on with! Shall we not be moved for the misery of certain poor human creatures, because (while Mr. Silent's young lady friends sat suffering, with all their furs on, in a house heated with grates and furnace) they herded together like swine, in a ten-cent lodging-house, and kept themselves alive with hard drinking and hard swearing and perhaps hard fighting?

Nay, we say, let us pity them; for pity is one of the cheapest of the Christian virtues—need not unbutton a pocket, nor affect a balance at the banker's. It is to be hoped, for those who have empty coal cellars and vacant larders, that Providence will not send such terrible weather again this winter, if, indeed, it *was* so cold after all, last week; for, animated by the charitable spirit which we have no doubt roused in our readers, there will be enough of them to deny that Monday, the 8th, was more than wholesomely fresh and invigorating.

A JOURNAL which commonly inculcates the virtues of truth and decent speech by presenting an awful example of what a newspaper is without them, gave, the other morning, a severe and well-merited reproof to a contemporary. In the latter, some poor creature, mixed of equal parts of ghoul and Paul Pry, had sought to win the applause of whatever is ghoul and Paul Pry in public sentiment by going over Mr. Lincoln's household accounts, and showing how the nation had been plundered by the domestic extravagance of the late President's family. The wretched office was performed in such fashion as ought to have shocked every one who read the article; and when it was suggested by the morning journal alluded to that the article was inspired by the spirit of Wilkes Booth, we felt the weight of a debt of gratitude for the suggestion which we here hasten to discharge.

To be sure, it was the pot calling the kettle blackamoor, but in this world the pots and kettles are so numerous that calling of names must be well-nigh given up altogether if they cannot indulge in it. Besides, it is well to know that the kettles *are* black, even though we have to learn it from the pots. In this case, the reproving pot is so well known to be covered with grime that nobody assumed a virtue for it because the kettle had it not.

We know in what terms the public habitually speaks of that paper and of the other journals which flourish on personalities, or "the precious riches of private reputation," as Mr. B. Doran Killian calls them; but we rather suspect the public, after all, likes rascal journalism. It offers editorial weakness immense bribes to be scurrilous and scandalous, by giving such papers as yield to its debased appetites a most generous and cordial support.

It is, indeed, a sad public, and utterly unconscious of its viciousness. It has a vague notion that it is sternly virtuous, and that it frowns down disreputable newspapers, whereas it is perfectly evident that it fosters them. They are published for their owners' profit and for the gratification of the very large class of people that buys them, and not in spite of it, as the public imagines.

We have often seen the public cautioned against such publications; but we earnestly warn the whole brotherhood of journalism against the wicked public. We know that there is a great temptation, seeing that people like to have affairs pried into which should be sacred from public comment, to seize the chance of success by slaughtering somebody's reputation; but we plead for the forbearance of the scribbling fraternity. The return to barbarism is easy for human nature. The man of a race which has toiled up to civilization through ages of culture, runs wild and degenerates into a savage in a single generation. The restraints of decency which journalism has imposed upon itself, and which a corrupt public desires it to throw off, may be lightly cast aside, and we may have the manners of Grub Street again as soon as we like; but we hope this may not come about. It may be that if newspapers generally persevere in a courteous, dignified, and honest conduct, the public, becoming ashamed of its low and truculent tastes, may be educated up to the better newspaper standard.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

WHAT THE SOUTH NEEDS FIRST.

It is now eight months since the South laid down its arms and the North entered on the work of reconstruction. During the interval which preceded the meeting of Congress, the whole country devoted itself, without stint, to the discussion of the "reconstruction problem." The newspapers have, ever since Lee surrendered, teemed with it; little else has been heard from the platform; the pulpit even has sought to shed what light it could upon it, and it has formed the prevailing topic of conversation in every social circle. And yet it may be safely said that, down to the present moment, no plan of reconstruction yet propounded has found favor with a majority, or anything like a majority, of either Congress or the people. Mr. Johnson was at the outset supposed to have a plan, and it seemed for awhile as if he had; but he soon found reason to modify it to such a degree that there is now little left of it, and that little appears to meet with but a very small measure of approval from the country. There is hardly a senator or member of Congress now who does not think that he has hit upon a sovereign remedy for the great Southern ill, if he can only secure its adoption; but there is no general agreement upon anything. The Republican party, while concurring very fully as to the objects in view, is divided into a dozen sections as to the means of effecting those objects; and in the meantime, as long as it remains undecided, the grand Democratic plan of doing nothing whatever gains more or less strength from the mere lapse of time, the subsidence of popular excitement, and the distraction of the public mind.

There have been nearly a dozen ways suggested since last May of pacifying and regenerating the South. First of all, there was the plan of giving the suffrage to the blacks by a general order of the President. But he refused to issue any such order, and the Connecticut and Wisconsin votes justified, or at least seemed to justify, him in his refusal. Then there was the plan of holding military possession of the South, and governing it by martial law, until it gave signs of being clothed and in its right mind; but this never met with much popular favor, and is still surrounded with difficulties. Then came the plan of giving the negroes the suffrage by procuring a decision of the Supreme Court in a case raised under the "republican form of government" clause in the Constitution; but this was dropped almost as soon as propounded, and its advocates now never allude to it. Then came Mr. Stevens's plan of confiscating the whole soil of the South, or nearly the whole, and dividing it amongst the blacks; but, so far as we know, Mr. Stevens himself is the only supporter of this scheme. Mr. Sumner's proposed amendment to the Constitution, basing representation on the number of legal voters, and not as now on population, so as either to diminish the number of Southern representatives or force the whites into admitting the blacks to political equality, is that which perhaps now finds most favor, and on which the attention of the North shows most tendency to concentrate itself.

There are, in our opinion, several objections to this expedient arising out of its possible effects upon the Northern, as well as on the Southern, States which we will not here stop to discuss. But there is still another and a stronger one, which must be met now *in limine*, and that is, that, though brought forward as a radical remedy, it is anything but radical; it draws all its value from the assumption that a state of things exists which does not exist. It is, in short, much the same sort of boon to the South that the present of a carriage would be to a man unable to leave his bed, or bonbons to a man who found great difficulty in securing a daily allowance of common domestic bread. At present, there is no quarter of the South, outside the reach of Northern garrisons, in which there is any safety for either the life or property of a man who presumes to think or speak differently from his neighbors on any of the great questions by which the South is agitated. No Northern man dare go there and hold and utter the sentiments on political and social topics which the majority of us hold and utter here. We profess to place great reliance on the influence of Northern emigration in reorganizing Southern society and modifying Southern opinions. But, at present, no emigrants can show their faces there with safety, or go to their beds with the certainty of rising in the morning, unless they take special pains either not to exercise any influence whatever, or consent, both by speech and example, to strengthen Southern prejudices. Emigration that will be of any use to us politically is, under these circumstances, not to be thought of.

Moreover, we look for a great change in Southern feeling and habits through the spread of education, and the diffusion of books and periodicals amongst the poorer and more ignorant classes. We look for the elevation of the negroes through the opening and maintenance of schools for them, and the growth amongst them, as the result of Northern teaching, of self-respect and of mutual respect. But the fact—the hard, stern, repulsive fact—is that, according to the testimony of all those who have recently visited the South, there is no probability that any Northern man will be allowed either to teach, write, speak, or print in any part of the South doctrines conflicting with those commonly held in Southern society on social or political topics. Where is the district, we should like to know, in which a Northern man or woman will be able to open and conduct a school, or print a newspaper, or make a speech, with freedom and security, one month after the federal troops are withdrawn? What probability is there, in short, that any of the influences which we most value and which we consider most conducive to progress and civilization can be brought anywhere into play at the South under the protection of State laws?

Now the very basis of civil society is security for life and property. Freedom of speech and of locomotion, of trade, of following all lawful callings, from selling needles to making stump speeches, without let or hindrance, is at the very foundation of free society, and, above all, of American society. Without these things there is no freedom, and there can be no progress in civilization, and to talk of the authority of the United States Government being really restored over any State or territory or district in which it cannot guarantee these things to all classes of the population, is an abuse of language. All reconstruction, though it gave every black at the South two votes, which did not secure these things to both white men and blacks, would be a delusion and a snare; and all arrangements for bestowing the suffrage on the negro, or for coercing his late masters into giving it him, which do not provide also for protecting him in the exercise of it, and in preparing his mind for the right exercise of it, will prove futile. The South will never be really in this Union until Henry Ward Beecher can read an article from the New York *Tribune* on the steps of the principal hotel in Jackson, Mississippi, and can "peddle" the paper afterwards, should he feel so disposed, through the town, without fear of other harm than what may come from a "scathing editorial" in the local *World* or *Daily News*, whatever their names may be. That is no part of the American Union in truth and in deed, no matter who votes in it, or how many members it may send to Congress, in which any man may not speak the thing he wills, or in which he has to fear a power behind the law which the law cannot control.

For many years before the war the South was in the Union only in name. Its connection with the North was hardly recognized by local legislation or local opinion. The dominion of law, as we understand it, and as every civilized country must understand it if it means to retain its civilization, was unknown to the mass of the Southern people. The necessities of their social system made respect for legal forms, or processes, or individual rights, impossible. The quick, sharp, peremptory mandate of a mob of citizens collected from the neighboring plantations is at this moment the highest sanction known to most Southern men, something far higher than acts of the legislature or decrees of courts. The idea of deliberate resistance to a local vigilance committee is what never enters into the head of a Southern boy.

If we want peace at the South, and permanent peace, we must in some way or other first of all familiarize the mass of the people with the idea of law as an irresistible power to which all must bow, and which throws just the same amount of protection over the meanest as well as the proudest black or white. If this can only be done by force,

force we must have to do it, and, until this is done, the first step has still to be made in the re-organization of Southern society. Whatever military force may be necessary to afford to every freeman, of whatever color, the protection which the Constitution guarantees him, in person and property, we must maintain, and in doing so we shall be carrying out the true democratic theory of government. The absolute dominion of a few men over any spot of our soil is the vilest kind of oligarchy—no very great improvement on feudalism.

Even if Mr. Sumner's amendment were passed, and legal voters made the basis of representation, the negro who found himself robbed or flogged for being "sassy," or the white man who found himself tarred and feathered or driven from his house for publishing or circulating a disagreeable newspaper, or for opposition to local opinion on any subject, and, on seeking redress, found the courts closed to him and governors and sheriffs deaf and blind, would, on carrying the story of his woes to Washington, receive the consolatory assurance that he might return to his home in peace; that the Southern delegation in Congress was greatly reduced; and that the South could look for no increase of it until she bestowed the franchise on the black man.

BAYONETS AND SCHOOL-HOUSES.

Senator Wilson's bill for the peace establishment of the United States army increases the present number of troops in the regular service from twenty to upwards of seventy thousand men. This much exceeds the estimate of the Secretary of War at the opening of Congress; and if it is fair to ask the reason why, it is also fair to respond that a month has elapsed since the Secretary's report, and that in these times the lessons of a month may be as important as those of an ordinary year or period of years. There are, incontestably, very grave objections to the proposed increase, but so there are to Mr. Stanton's; and if it were merely a matter of taste, we might and probably should content ourselves with the moderate standing army of yore. No sober-minded citizen, however, differ as he may from Senator and Secretary, will conclude that this would meet the requirements of the country in its present emergency. Our foreign and domestic complications, to take the best view of them, dissuade us from a hasty disarming. And it is evident that in the next contest, whether within the Union or across her borders, our reliance must be on those whose business it is to fight, and not to any considerable extent upon volunteers.

While not engaging to defend Mr. Wilson's proposition as the least that could be made in the face of our national contingencies, we are not troubled by the thought of the money it will cost to carry it out, and the dangers and corruption inseparable from the establishment at which it aims. The expense is a part of the grand burthen imposed upon us by the rebellion, to crush which it was considered good economy to spend three thousand millions; and if seventy thousand soldiers will secure protection to black and white at the South, and by their moral prestige restore the fortunes of Juarez and the autonomy of Mexico, and do this sooner and more effectually than fifty thousand, then they are cheaper than fifty thousand. The peril which this same host will offer to our liberties and our morals is not, of course, contemptible, but it is not so formidable as the anti-republican and anti-American spirit which threatens us on the other hand. We have reason to fear not so much that we shall suffer in pocket and in personal franchise because of the army, as that we shall depend upon it too much for results which can as well and even better be attained by other instrumentalities.

One of these was brought to the attention of the House of Representatives last month, and was referred to the Joint Committee on Reconstruction. It was a national bureau of education, whose function should be "to enforce education without regard to race or color upon the population of all such States as shall fall below a certain standard, to be established by Congress." Many will object to such compulsion as an infringement of private right and individual freedom; but the practice of several States is already conformed to this principle, and the feeling in favor of intelligent suffrage, which is rapidly strengthening, is justified only by the opportunities for education which it presupposes to be available to every citizen. Where this happens to be the case, it is still desirable that the State should, in laying disabilities on ignorance, demonstrate that it is punishing wilful neglect and not misfortune. This it cannot do unless, besides opening wide the door of its school-house, it resolutely compels the attendance of those who are kept away by unwholesome restraint.

We are far from saying that the proposed bureau deserves to be erected. Its value for the originally free States may be doubted. With them emulation may promise more for the thorough enlightenment of their citizens than dependence upon the yard-stick of a branch of the national Government. In the long run we may trust that Connecticut will discover that her school fund, derived from the Western Reserve, is not so elastic in meeting the requirements of her growing population as the general tax by which Massachusetts has kept abreast with the learning of the age. At the South, where, if we do not mistake, no Constitutional Convention has provided any system of free instruction for the people, the bureau would have a value proportionate to its efficiency. Yet even here interference would be beset with difficulties, not least of which would be the acquiescence of the States themselves.

Indeed, the policy which has thus far prevailed in our dealings with the reconstructed communities has been remarkable for exacting precisely those conditions which they could not possibly have avoided, and for omitting those which would have been the test and seal of their social metamorphosis. The "accomplished facts" of the Government might have passed without recognition: of what concern was it whether the South confessed the rising and setting of the sun? It was indispensable that she should point to facts accomplished not over her, and beyond her control, but by her, in evidence of a genuine devotion to democracy and the Union. Hence we hold that the foundation of a common-school system should have been among the prerequisites of reconciliation and forgiveness. True, this might have involved the enforcement of the confiscation act, in order so to distribute population as to bring the school-districts within practicable limits. But if so, was it not best that this act should be enforced?

It is our hope that Congress, remembering what part of the stability of our national edifice is due to public intelligence, and the innate hostility of the South to the light of letters, will repair the omission of the President in this regard, and refuse to believe that loyal men are safe, or the professions of the South to be trusted, so long as the minds of the people are controlled and their ears filled by the late champions of secession and treason. We should be well pleased if, among the numerous amendments offered, out of which might almost be made a bran-new Constitution, one should appear supplementary to the clause concerning the admission of fresh States into the Union, and requiring, besides numbers and the usual organization, a plan of education akin to those of the States already admitted. Nay, if we are to have inserted a definition of what is meant by "a republican form of government," we have no objections to seeing it include free schools. And if, in guaranteeing this form to the lately oligarchical States, there arise on Southern soil in time seventy thousand school-houses, we shall repose much greater confidence in them than in the seventy thousand bayonets of Mr. Wilson. Finally, we are prepared to assert that, concerning this whole subject, there is greater unanimity among the people of the North than can be predicated of any other single phase of the problem of reconstruction; that there is a very general solicitude for comprehensive and decided action on the part of Congress, and corresponding chagrin at the indifference or short-sightedness of that body. We would not condemn the pains which they have taken to put the leaders of the South in limbo; but we submit that some thought should be bestowed on the millions who are led. These will continue to be led, and be led astray, however long the Capitol may be closed on Southern delegations, unless they are rescued from their blind and servile following by a sight of the nobler destiny within their grasp. The bills for the continuance and enlargement of the Freedmen's Bureau, introduced into the Senate by Mr. Trumbull and the House by Mr. Eliot, which empower the Commissioner, under the direction of the President, to purchase sites and buildings for schools, do not go to the root of the difficulty. The need is to reach and educate not only dependent refugees and freedmen, but the entire population of the South; and no scheme that shall be adequate to this need, can be contained in an incidental clause or section of a bill, or be left to any man's discretion or "direction."

WHAT RABBI JEHOSHA SAID.

RABBI JEHOSHA used to say
That God made angels every day,
Perfect as Michael and the rest
First brooded in creation's nest,
Whose only office was to cry
"Hosanna!" once, and then to die—
If with life's sources to be blent
Be not return from banishment.

Rabbi Jehosha had the skill
To know that Heaven is in God's will,
And doing that, though for a space
One heartbeat long, may win a grace
As full of grandeur and of glow
As Princes of the Chariot know.

'T were glorious, no doubt, to be
One of the winged hierarchy,
To burn with Seraphs or to shine
With Cherubs, deathlessly divine;
Yet I, perhaps, poor earthly clod,
Could I forget myself in God,
Could I but find my nature's clew
Simply as birds and blossoms do,
And but for one rapt moment know
'T is Heaven that comes, not we that go,
Should win my place as near the Throne
As the pearl angel of its zone,
And God would listen, 'mid the throng,
For my one breath of perfect song.

J. R. L.

SOME DOUBTS ON THE POPULAR SUPPOSED DISTINCTION BETWEEN WIT AND HUMOR.

MUCH subtle refinement of criticism has been expended on the commonly alleged antagonism between wit and humor, without arriving at any definite or satisfactory conclusion. Has it ever occurred to any one that the difficulty might be owing to the imaginary nature of the separation? Has it ever been suggested before that wit and humor were but different phases and manifestations of the same faculty? Without committing ourselves absolutely to the naked assertion that they are one and the same thing, we shall adduce some reasons for supposing that the popular conception of their opposition is much exaggerated.

We may begin the discussion of our subject in two ways, though both have the same object, namely, to put before us clearly the things which we have to compare.

This we may do in two ways: first, directly and abstractly, by defining our terms, *wit* and *humor*.

Secondly, indirectly and concretely, by naming sundry prominent wits and humorists, and observing the peculiarities of their writings.

Although the former seems the more regular method, the latter is preferable, because, if we make a fanciful or theoretical definition, the whole affair may end in a skiomachy; while, if we adopt a practical one, our examples and illustrations must be drawn from various authors, wits and humorists respectively, so that we virtually come to the latter plan, only by a more roundabout way. Even then we find it difficult to get rid of some confusion arising from the looseness of popular phraseology. All comic or non-serious writing is frequently called *humorous*, and only the best of it *witty*, so that in ordinary parlance wit would appear to be something not distinct from humor, but only from inferior or, as it is usually designated, *low* humor. The French *esprit*, so often and so imperperfectly translated by our wit, means, at least in its modern usage, little more than *cleverness*. This signification is particularly striking in the adjective. *Un homme spirituel* is almost the equivalent of the English *clever man*. We say *almost*, because a certain notion of readiness and promptness is involved in the word *esprit*, which is not connoted by the word *cleverness*. In older English *wit* had a meaning nearer to that of the French *esprit*. A wit was a man who said and wrote clever or sharp things, or what most Americans would call *smart* things. And humor originally meant eccentricity of some sort, such as "those islanders," to use the French designation of them, were always famous for.

However all this may be, we find certain writers generally recognized as humorists, *e. g.*, Aristophanes, Rabelais, Swift, Southey, Dickens, Thackeray; and others as generally reputed wits, for example, Pope, Addison, Voltaire, Sheridan, Sydney Smith, About.

Bearing these and other well-known names in mind, let us try the current definitions and distinctions by the respective models.

A distinction not unfrequently drawn is that wit consists chiefly in the *words*, and humor in the *matter*. In support of this might be adduced the current phrase *verbal wit*. We never hear of *verbal humor*.

Now, if this were true, we might surely conclude that punning, which depends on words and words alone, would be a special development of wit. According to the old Joe, it is the lowest sort of wit, and therefore the foundation of wit. But how are the facts? Take the two humorists at the opposite ends of the series (or very nearly so) in point of time, Aristophanes and Hood. The former is a frequent, the latter a perpetual, punster. Swift emitted puns by the yard. Rabelais punned; so did Southey. Charles Lamb was another punning humorist. His answer to the lady who asked him if he would venture on an orange, "Madam, I fear I should fall off if I did," inaugurated a particular species of pun which has been run to death in our own day by Byron the burlesquer and the smaller scribblers in *Punch*. If any man could be emphatically called a humorist, it was Theodore Hook. His humor did not confine itself to words, but developed itself in actions, often of a very questionable nature, and recalling the French proverb, "Practical jokes, vulgar folks" (*jeu de main, jeu de vilain*). Every definition, laudatory or the reverse, of humor must include his performances, and he was an inveterate punster, not confining himself by any means to his own language, but constantly making incursions into the French tongue, which he pronounced as well as most Englishmen do. Thus when an amateur pointed out a certain picture as a *chef-d'œuvre* of Correggio, "You mean it 's a *shade over* his other works," said Hook. Thackeray happily imitated this where Wagg, in "Pendennis" (meant for Hook), says to the bookseller's wife who is boasting of her French cook, "Does your cook say he 's a Frenchman? Because, if he does, he 's a *quizzin yer* (*cuisinier*)." On the other hand, the greatest wits disdain punning, and some of them have expressly condemned it. Our first impulse would almost be to reverse the rule; but then again there are great humorists, Dickens, for instance, who never pun.

Again, let us look at verbal catches, where the joke consists not in the words themselves, but in their collocation. The most striking of these is that technically called parhyponœa, for which we have no nearer English word than surprise. In order to appreciate it the reader must always be prepared to expect something perfectly unexpected. Now, the first and greatest parhyponœist is Aristophanes; while the people who do the *chronique*, that is, the theatrical and scandalous gossip, in the French Sunday papers, are nearly all adepts in the practice. So that here we have a verbal jocosity common to the greatest of humorists and the smallest of wits.

Polysyllabic and divided rhymes, which are almost peculiar to the English language, seem to be the common property of both classes. They characterize Samuel Butler, whom most critics would designate a wit; Ingoldsby Barham, whom they would all allow to be a humorist; and Moore, about whom there might be some hesitation; the majority would probably call him a wit, though he certainly verges upon very broad humor at times, according to the usual tests of humor.

If wit be more in the words and humor in the matter, the former ought to be difficult or impossible, and the latter comparatively easy, to translate. Is this the case? It is a hard question to answer satisfactorily. French wit is certainly hard to render into *adequate* English; but so, for that matter, is all good French writing, in spite of a sad popular delusion to the contrary. Much English humor looks very queer in a French dress (as odd as *Bottom* in his "translation"), and of course such an element as double rhyme is untranslatable. On the other hand, much Spanish humor runs into English very readily, and a whole school of modern English humorous poetry (the "Don Juanic") is founded directly on older Italian models.

The mention of translation brings up another distinction which has been sometimes proposed. It is said that wit is more superficial, and humor more under the surface. The one may to some extent be learned, as Plato thought virtue might be; the other depends on a settled constitution of mind. By this rule, also, humor would be the national, wit the cosmopolitan, quality; and, therefore, the former must be more difficult to translate. German humor is not only untranslatable, but to a great extent unintelligible to foreigners. German wit is supposed to exist only in Heine, who ought, somehow, to have been a Frenchman.

The names of Voltaire and Sydney Smith alone are enough to stagger this theory. No doubt, a habit of jesting at everything may be acquired by dint of constant association with the frivolous, but we may be sure no *genuine* wit was ever manufactured by such a process. Indeed, we can

afford to dismiss this theory briefly, as it has never had followers enough to be fairly called a popular one.

Cognate to it, however, is a proposition. Humor is said to be the quality of weightier, more serious, and, in so far, greater minds than wit, the proof being that it is frequently combined with deep pathos. Sometimes we even find the tragic and poetic element quite eclipsing the humorous. Such is Victor Hugo's case, who would be a great humorist were he not a great poet. But here again our examples fail to carry out the theory fully. If there is any such rule, it must be subject to many and great exceptions. Is there no touching sentiment in Pope, no good, honest, stirring indignation in Sydney Smith? Cannot the arch-mocker, Voltaire, be eloquent and thrilling when it serves his turn? And how many second and third-rate humorists there are (Paul de Kock and "Soapy Sponge" Surtees will serve as two instances) who seem incapable of saying anything serious, much less anything pathetic!

Thus far we have dwelt on explanations which rather give the preference to humor. But there is another very prevalent one, alluded to at the beginning of our investigation, which makes wit much the higher quality of the two. It is said that humor deals only with matters calculated to raise a laugh—eccentricities, exaggerations, hyperboles, surprises, above all, blunders (thus, the Irish "bull" is said to be the opposite of wit, and, *therefore*, highly humorous), while wit is like Lord Chesterfield's fine gentleman, who will never do more than smile himself or make his readers do more. It is supposed to discover the most recondite relations between words, such as would never occur to the ordinary observer. In short, according to this theory, wit is felt and understood by the best educated classes only, while humor appeals to the capacity of all classes. The first criticism which suggests itself on this theory is, that it does injustice to humor by assuming the very lowest varieties of it as its fair representatives. If the indelicate allusion, the practical joke, the provincial accent, the clownish blunder, all, in short, that we comprise under the term *farcical*—all that is calculated to please the baser sort, and raise

"The loud laugh that speaks the vacant mind"

among the uneducated or unthinking—if these are to pass for humor, we might as well accept for our models of wit the word-tortures of the English witlings already mentioned, or the silly transpositions of initial letters that were so popular some years ago. They were the revival of an old green-room style of joke, which in its day was sometimes very good, as when the actor, going to a horticultural exhibition on a wet day, said "he had been to see the *shower flow*."

Is refinement (in the sense of the opposite of coarseness) a necessary mark of wit, and its absence a characteristic of humor? Is Irving coarse? Is Thackeray indecent? Were the great wits of Queen Anne's time remarkable for their delicacy, or have French wits been at any time distinguished in that way?

But a greater error of the theory under discussion is that it confounds the *humorous* with the *ludicrous*. An old woman or a gaily-dressed swell falling into the gutter may cause a laugh, but there is no humor (unless it be ill-humor) in the operation, either to the sufferer or the bystanders. The accident may indeed be *related* in a humorous way, or an entirely imaginary fall may be humorously described, but that is a different matter. An Irish "bull" is eminently of the things which are ludicrous, not humorous. There have been and are Irishmen, "fellows of infinite jest, of most excellent fancy;" but they are not the Irishmen who make "bulls," unless they do so on purpose, to put them into the mouths of others.

There are plenty of bull-makers besides the Hibernians. A lady, a full-blooded American, once said to us, bewailing the loss of her cherries, "The gardener declares the birds take them, but between you and me, I think they are *two-legged birds*." None of this lady's friends ever called her a humorist? The very same blunder was made long ago by a Cambridge Don, and now occupies a place in the Joe Miller of Cantab tradition.

A standard essayist on the subject has incidentally touched on this distinction, though his main object was to discriminate between the *witty* and the ludicrous. As an instance of wit he gives the sign of an ale-house keeper named Littlejohn, who placed over his door a figure of Robin Hood, with this inscription:

"All ye who know when ale is good,
Stop in and drink with Robin Hood.
If Robin Hood is not at home,
Stop in and drink with Littlejohn."

When the innkeeper was gathered to his fathers, his successor, one Samuel Johnston, substituted his own name on the sign, making the last line of the quatrain read

"Stop in and drink with Samuel Johnston,"

and spoiling rhyme and reason together. This, says the essayist, is ludicrous but not witty. He rightly calls it *ludicrous*, not *humorous*.

Blunders of this kind often occur, not from stupidity, but merely from inadvertence. Such was the following, which happened in the case of Lowell's "Fable for Critics." It is an old trick to write rhyme without division into lines or initial capitals. Lowell improved on this by constructing his title-page on the same plan, so that at the end, "October the 21st day" rhymed with the publisher's address, "E. P. Putnam, Broadway." But the eminent bibliopole moved to Park Place between two editions, and of course the address was changed (mechanically, we might say) on all his title-pages, and among the rest on Lowell's, destroying the final rhyme. Such errors have the smallest possible connection with humor.

When we think of Aristophanes, Rabelais, and Swift, hyperbole and exaggeration seem properly enough set down as characteristics of humor. But what shall we say to some of Voltaire's fancies, "Micromégas," for instance? It may, indeed, be argued that here he was out of his line, and wrote in direct imitation of "Gulliver." Let us, then, take the first of modern French wits, About. Let us turn to his most famous work, the "Roman Question," and to that striking passage of it where he recounts what the young Englishman, American, Frenchman, and German have respectively done, while the young Roman noble has been doing nothing. What is this but the wantonness of exaggeration? No one Englishman or American or Frenchman ever did a tithe of what every one of them is represented to have done. The whole wit of the passage lies in the very grossness of its hyperbole.

And now let us look at the question from the other side. Is the subtlety of the relations discovered a mark of wit as opposed to humor? Let us take a standard instance of wit, and see if it cannot be matched or overmatched from the writings of an acknowledged humorist. Lord Erskine, when told that a ship's crew in the Northern Ocean had been driven, by want of other provisions, to live on the seals they caught, said, "And very good living they make, if you can keep them long enough," referring to Lord Eldon, who had made a fabulous sum by many years' tenure of the great seal, which Erskine himself had only kept nine months and made nothing by. This is usually allowed to be wit of a high order (it was cited to us as such by Fitz-Greene Halleck, who ought to know). Very well, we will cap it from Tom Hood.

In the catalogue of sham books which Hood made for the door of a nobleman's library, this title occurs: "The Life of Zimmermann. By Himself." Here the jest is so recondite that probably nineteen out of twenty readers would fail to perceive it at the first glance, but all must admit its excellence when apprehended.

We take another example, less striking but sufficiently remarkable, from our own humorist, Irving:

"It was advanced by some of the ancient sages that the earth was an extended plain supported by vast pillars, and by others that it rested on the head of a snake or the back of a huge tortoise; but, as they did not provide a resting-place for either the pillars or the tortoise, the whole theory fell to the ground for want of proper foundation."

A stronger instance than either occurs in the "Acharnians" of Aristophanes, vv. 75–9, where the irony is so fine as to have escaped most of the commentators and translators.

If any curious reader wishes to try the experiment for himself on a larger scale, let him take the three opening paragraphs of About's "Roman Question." Let him note carefully all the points and figures in them, the irony, the insinuations, the surprises, the magnificent example of *tapeinosis* in the third paragraph (where the head of the Roman Church is arraigned under his aliases like a petty criminal), and then see how many of them he can parallel from celebrated humorists.

And now what is our conclusion? That wit and humor are absolutely interchangeable expressions? We have already intimated our hesitation to go that length. But we do maintain that their boundaries often encroach on each other, that many important elements, irony, for instance, are common to both, and that many of the world's first jesters have been both witty and humorous. Shakespeare—we have kept the greatest name for the last—was a wit *and* a humorist. He created *Falstaff* and *Dogberry* as well as the word-splitters and conceit-hunters in the King of Navarre's park.

AMERICAN REPUTATIONS IN ENGLAND.

Charles Lamb once wrote to his friend Manning, who was travelling abroad: "It appears to me as if I should die with joy at the first landing in a foreign country. It is the nearest pleasure which a grown man can substitute for that unknown one, which he can never know, the pleasure of the first entrance into life from the womb." Without stopping to discuss this fantastic, Charles-Lamb-like reference to a pleasure which we "can never

know" for the very good reason that it never existed, there is a certain analogy between the facts of being born into the world and of being born into a foreign country. In either case, the man plants his foot on the strange shore to find nearly every appeal to his five senses wondrously novel, startling, amusing; and the newly arrived traveller, like the newly arrived child, stares and listens, and puts out his hands at the most insignificant objects. But more impressive to the new comer than merely external innovations is this realm of new ideas, new maxims, new whims, new prejudices, new reputations, into which he is introduced, with the inevitable obliteration of so many of those which he has just emigrated from. To an American coming to England, perhaps nothing gives a greater spiritual jar, nothing more startles him into realizing that he is actually abroad, than the discovery, constantly breaking upon him during the first weeks of his residence here, that, when he sailed away from America, he did indeed sail away from a whole hemisphere of personal authorities and reputations—from the principalities and powers of the literary, political, religious, and social world before which he had loyally bowed from his youth up. I think that, to any man, it would give at least a momentary shock to find, for the first time in his life, his references to illustrious names not understood, to august authorities not regarded, the titular dignitaries of his native chess-board not responded to with deference or even with recognition.

As a matter of testimony upon this subject, perhaps I may be allowed to refer to some of my own experiences during a residence in England now extending over nearly three years. I well remember the first decided shock of this kind which I received. It was my second Sunday in England, and I was spending a part of the day at the house of a literary man whose name (if I should mention it, which I shall not) would be recognized as a household word wherever the English language is spoken. I was showing to him and to a little circle of his friends my photograph album of American celebrities; and when we came to a certain face, they said, "Who is that?" I replied, "Oliver Wendell Holmes." "Who is he?" "Why, Dr. Holmes—did you never hear of him?" "Never!" I confess that then, for the first time, I felt a little homesick. That word gave me, indeed, a sense of being "*abroad*." Before me, then, yawned the dreary distance from that dear spot which "there is no place like" with a vividness more painful than I had derived from all the three thousand farewells of the Atlantic, with all the taunts and jeers flung at us by "the countless laughter of its salt sea waves." Since then that particular reputation has grown very rapidly in England; and, of course, even then there were here multitudes of the readers and admirers of the autocratic-poet; but it was simply staggering to find men and women, eminent in English literature, too, who did not remember to have heard the name of Oliver Wendell Homes!

M. D. Conway told me that he talked with a poor man in Venice who, he ascertained, had no knowledge of Daniel Webster, but was acquainted with the name and deeds of old John Brown. So I have found in England that, among the mass of the people—among those, for example, who make up a lecturer's audience at the literary and mechanics' institutes of the country—any reference to our great statesmen, jurists, and scholars of the time just gone, to Andrew Jackson, Webster, Clay, Story, Choate, Felton, requires explanation, while the mention of the names of philanthropists and reformers, especially of Garrison and Phillips, is generally caught up with instant appreciation and responded to with enthusiasm.

I appeal to any American who has grown up under the omnipresence and majesty of Daniel Webster's renown, if he would not have been punctured by a new sensation had he gone through the following bit of experience. Just before Christmas, a year ago, I arrived, at the close of the day, in that noble old town on the south coast of England where our Pilgrim Fathers bade their last adieus to the cruel yet still beloved mother who cast them forth. I went to a quiet inn, was ushered into the coffee-room, and, while waiting for dinner, in the twilight, I thought I saw hanging upon the opposite wall a portrait, of life-size and done in oil, of Daniel Webster. It gave me a strange feeling full of pleasure, like hearing some familiar air of home, like seeing some well-known living face. I thought I must be mistaken, but, on rushing across the room, I found it was, indeed, a fine portrait of the great Daniel himself. Wondering how such a thing could have found its way into this quiet nook in one corner of England, when the waiter came in—a portly gentleman, dignified as a chief-justice or one of the apostolic fathers—I asked him of whom that was the portrait. After some hesitation he said, "Ah, sir, I think I have heard master say it was some American gentleman or other. I will ask master, sir, if you wish." When he next entered he said: "I have asked master, sir; he does n't exactly remember the gentleman's name; he bought the picture at a sale; he thinks it is some American gentleman or other." And that is Fame—an old lady who shudders at the Atlantic voyage. In the young Plymouth what an august personage would have been evoked before every eye by that portrait! Just across the water, at the old Plymouth, it is merely the head of "some American gentleman or other."

We all find here a perpetual source of amusement in the very mixed apprehensions people have of the two most celebrated members of the Beecher family. Everybody knows Mrs. Stowe, and calls her Mrs. Beecher-Stowe. Everybody knows Henry Ward Beecher, and nearly everybody calls him *Mr.* Beecher-Stowe. There is a confused idea of some very near relationship between these individuals. It is generally stated that she is his wife, sometimes his daughter, occasionally his mother, seldom—what she is. I do not exaggerate in saying that, in nine cases out of ten, Henry Ward Beecher's name is by Englishmen enriched with the pleasing suffix of Stowe. Yet, a few weeks ago the *Times*, in whose eyes he is of course a peculiarly endeared person, took quite the opposite tack and got the cart completely before the horse by speaking of him as Mr. Beecher Ward!

Excluding, in these remarks, the small minority of English people who are really acquainted with our history and literature, in travelling up and down England I seldom meet with any one who has heard of George W. Curtis, Dr. Holland, John G. Saxe, Col. Higginson, Gail Hamilton, Bayard Taylor, Tuckerman, and Thomas B. Aldrich, whom we know so well, but whose names pronounced before a general English audience would be no more recognized than the names of so many under-secretaries of the Tycoon. It is true that the books of some of them have had a considerable sale in England; but, in the first place, there is a large population of resident Americans here, who try to keep up an acquaintance with their country's authors; and, in the next place, there are a certain few English men and women who get and study all our best books as they appear. Upon the vast bulk of the population such names as these have yet made no impression. Here and there their books are to be found; but such casual and sporadic circulation does not make fame or even reputation. The supreme American literary reputation in England is that of Longfellow. His renown has diffused itself into every household; his poems are in every drawing-room; he has more readers than any living English poet. His is the one only American literary name that may be mentioned in all companies with as much certainty of recognition as the name of Shakespeare, though even with Shakespeare's name it would not be safe to go below a certain tide-mark of society. During the Shakespearian festivals, last year, a London omnibus-driver, by whose side I was sitting, whose daily journeys took him under the very walls of Apsley House and Buckingham Palace, gravely asked me, "Who is this fellow Shakespeare they 're making such a damned row about?" My impression is, that next to Longfellow in fame on British soil is Washington Irving, although an English lady of wealth and literary proclivities once enquired of me whether that was "the Irving who attracted so much notice as an eccentric preacher in London thirty years ago!" Next in renown to Longfellow and Irving, and in about the order given, are the names of Hawthorne, Emerson, Prescott, Lowell, Dr. Channing, Bryant, and Theodore Parker. I am surprised to find how many there are who do not know Whittier. It would be wrong to omit Elihu Burritt, who is everywhere known in England, and for whom there is an affectionate regard among multitudes of the purest and best. He has passed many years here; he has lectured in nearly every town and village; he has gone on foot through the whole length of the island; and by the simplicity, beauty and amiability of his nature, by his learning, by his calm thinking, by his modest yet glowing speech, has not only made fame for himself, but has done much to change English estimates of the American character.

It is very probable that Americans who have made the tour of England may not be able altogether to verify my statements by their own experience, and especially may think that I have underrated the English reputation of some whom I have referred to. This is but natural. Mere tourists bring letters to the very people who are most interested in America, who know most about America, and in whose conversation these names are most familiarly used. It would be a mistake to infer that the English people in general have such an acquaintance with our literary names. But having travelled up and down England as a lecturer; having had the opportunity of experimenting with all sorts of audiences in all sorts of places, by purposely throwing in allusions to noted Americans and watching the effect; and having had in these journeys some glimpse of the interior of English life as well as some chance of free conversation with vast numbers of the middle-class English people, it is likely that my impressions are not what they would be were I seeing England as a tourist only. My duty in this paper, however, has been not to account for the impressions of others, but truthfully to relate my own.

It is with a melancholy interest that I look back over the growth of

the English fame of Abraham Lincoln. During the first two years of my life here he was "the buffoon President," "the vulgar tyrant," "the brutal despot revelling in the woes of a race." As his name came naturally into some of my lectures, I watched curiously the changes in the demonstrations which it excited. Except in very polite audiences it was always hissed. Even as late as the day on which we received the news of Mr. Lincoln's re-election, the mention of his name in a large audience convened in the very heart of London created a stormy susurration of hisses; and when the hisses provoked a retort of cheers, they rallied in ten-fold intensity and won the night. His death has now changed all. During the past autumn, laying the hand on the popular pulse in the same way, from Cornwall to Yorkshire, I find his name and praises welcomed with hearty tributes of applause.

In the "Scarlet Letter" occurs this just remark, that "it contributes greatly towards a man's moral and intellectual health to be brought into habits of companionship with individuals unlike himself, who care little for his pursuits, and whose sphere and abilities he must go out of himself to appreciate." May not a similar remark be made as to the advantages of companionship with those who care little for the personal reputations which have always awed us, for the august authorities with which we have been wont to fortify our speech, for the enthroned ones in literature with whose images we had filled the pantheon of our youthful homage? Yet it would be a rapture to get home again among the old names, and to take on once more the pleasant yoke of the old reputations.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXV.

AUGUSTA, Ga., December 23, 1865.

THE first stage of the journey from Columbia towards Augusta is seven miles long, occupies three hours and more, and is made in the dark. We were called from bed at three o'clock in the morning, several coaches were filled up with sleepy, shivering travellers, and then till after six o'clock the time was consumed in slowly moving through the wind and rain to Hampton's Turn Out. As we passed the College campus the chapel windows were still lighted, for it was the last day of the legislative session, and that body was sitting late. Some of the members already on their way home were in our coach, and spoke together about the character of the two houses, and the work that had been accomplished. The critics seemed dissatisfied upon the whole, though many of their remarks were not quite intelligible. The best part of the Negro Code had been cut out, they said, before its final passage. It was a very good thing, however, that so many copies of it had been printed, for every white man would need one, and probably no law ever enacted in the State had been so generally and thoroughly studied as that would be. The session had been very busy, but more work would have been done if the senate had been less factious and impracticable. Strange to say, that branch of the legislature had been far more radical than the house. It had proved false to all its traditions. The course of "that fellow T——" was then severely reprehended.

"Oh, he had a great deal to say about the poor, patriotic soldiers, you know, and their widows and orphans. They say that in the conference committee in reference to the usual appropriations, he said before he would consent to pay the judges their undrawn salaries in good money he would cut off his right hand. He just as much as said that they left their pay in the treasury because of the depreciation of our money. Yes, he was exceedingly enthusiastic. And he is so vociferous! A perfect demagogue, sir. In point of fact, those gentlemen probably had no use for their money, and allowed it to remain with the State for the good of the cause. I am sure a great many of our people down to the very last retained a great deal of confidence in our currency, and no man of honor, nobody but some such a fellow as T——, would have charged them with such motives."

"No. What a curse it is to a country when these low, demagogical fellows of no character are able to rise to the surface! Several of the up-country members, gentlemen who were very strong in the convention for remodelling representation, are said to be quite willing now to undo their work. One of them—you would know him were I to give you his name—told me himself, that after this winter's experience of the new system, the people in his section would be very willing to return to the old. In three years, he thought, we would be back again."

"Ah," said another gentleman, "it was very ungenerous in them to force that measure upon the low country at that particular time. They knew that we had lost everything by the war, and, at least, they should have given us time. For I think, sir, that the rice country is ruined. Cotton-planting may possibly become profitable again, but no one, so far as my information extends, entertains any hopes of the rice culture. The negroes never liked it, you know. It is very hard work, and it is unhealthy necessarily. I do n't know what we 'll do. I am not going to attempt it. This year's experience in Georgetown District has satisfied us that nothing can be done. Take one example out of many. Mr. A——, you know A——, has worked four hundred of the freedmen this year—his own negroes—with the understanding that they should return to him all the seed-rice, and that the surplus should be divided between themselves and him. The other day the division took place, and how many bushels do you think there were to be given to four hundred negroes? Just nine and a half. There were nineteen bushels over and above the seed. That is one case out of a hundred that I might give you. I am convinced that we shall never be able to do anything till we get white labor. Oh, I have made up my mind fully to do nothing at all with my places this year. Mine came to me, and asked me if I would think hard of it if they tried to find employment off the places. I was very glad to tell them 'No; that they might go as soon as they pleased, and they could n't go too soon.' I never could stand their impudence, I 'm sure."

"Let me see; you have the black troops down there? Though Orr told me they were to be relieved at once. I suppose they demoralize the freedmen?"

"Oh, yes! yes, sir; their officers have no control over them. I wish you could have seen what I saw the other day in Georgetown. In the middle of the street there was a crowd. I should think there might have been a hundred of these black soldiers surrounding about half a dozen of the white Yankees and quarrelling with them, calling them the vilest names—'D——n their white-livered souls, they could whip any white man ever walked,' etc. Their faces looked absolutely fiendish. They really appeared like demons. The whole street was full of them, and the citizens were in a fright. They would just as soon elbow one of our first citizens as not. And all this was within a few rods of the nigger colonel's quarters. At last one of the Yankees picked up a little courage and offered to fight any one negro in the crowd. A big fellow jumped out at once and said he was his man; so the two stripped off their coats——"

"Going to fight this nigger?"

"Yes, sir, he was going to do it; but just then the colonel, who must have heard it all—the whole town was in an uproar—walked out of his quarters and spoke a few words to them, and stopped it. Never made any arrests or anything of that kind; seemed to be afraid of them; just walked between them once or twice, and went away."

"One of the captains in Barnwell told me candidly that, in the event of an insurrection, the officers would not be able to restrain the black troops, and they would certainly side with the negroes."

"Yet some people say they prefer them to white soldiers. A friend of mine told me that in the summer he had some difficulty with his people, and sent up to the Yankees for an officer to come down and talk to them. Well, they had the impudence to send down a black sergeant. My friend thought, however, that he 'd let him try what he could do. He was a pompous fellow, he said, and very proud of his stripes; but it was really marvellous to see the influence he had with the people. They obeyed him implicitly. He considered it a proof that the freedmen were disposed to be a law-abiding people. I told him I considered it a proof that the black soldiers have entire control of the whole colored population, and it should be a warning to us to have them removed as soon as possible."

"Well, does n't it seem as if the United States Government was desirous of bringing on a collision between the races? Its policy can hardly be accounted for on any other supposition; yet that is almost too barbarous."

"We do n't know whether anything is too barbarous. However, I believe they will soon be removed."

The conversation, carried on in the dark, was accompanied by snoring from two travellers asleep, and the thread of it was often broken by a jolt, or by the cries of the coachmen giving each other instructions and encouraging the teams to extraordinary exertions. In this, as in other companies of South Carolinians, I noticed that almost always when any man's name is mentioned, some one enquires whom he married. Then the lady's name is given, and it is told whether she was of good family or not, how wealthy she was, and how many children she has brought him. Young men and old seem to take an equal interest in this sort of information, and to possess a great deal of it.

At Hampton's we found the train, and, as usual, quite an assemblage of negroes clustering around some wood fires and waiting for a passage to the low country. Travelling slowly all the forenoon, we reached Branchville without accident, and there, from twelve o'clock till eight in the evening

were detained while the engine was repairing. The little village at the junction, with its half-dozen gaily painted railroad buildings, contained nothing to interest a stranger, and our passengers, after they had wandered for awhile about the platform and read the notices of sales by auction posted there and the order prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors to negroes during the holidays, sat and lay on the pine straw in the sunniest spots, impatiently expecting our departure. Some of them derived amusement from the spectacle of a man suffering from an attack of *delirium tremens*. He went from one person to another, falling on his knees and begging for his life. If the gentlemen wished to kill him, of course that was their privilege, and he supposed he deserved it, for it must be acknowledged that he had been in the Yankee army, though he was a Southern man by birth. But he had a wife and two little children. He did n't want to oversize the pile, but he would give fifty dollars, at least, to any gentleman who would save him. If he could have a fair trial, he would be able to show that he had fired on the Massachusetts regiment that came through Baltimore in April, and had made one of them sick, anyhow, and he did n't know but more. Besides, he was an ignorant man, unable to read and write, and never would have gone into the army if he could have got employment. They drafted him after he had travelled about for seven months from place to place to avoid being taken, and he had never shot anywhere but in the air. These, he thought, were mitigating circumstances. He was condemned to death, however, and took the position of the soldier in order to die with dignity. He was repeatedly tried and sentenced and reprieved, and dosed heavily with whiskey and morphine, but nothing could remove from his mind the impression that his fellow-travellers, being Southerners, sought his life, and he continued to weep and supplicate until we arrived at our journey's end.

At Bamberg, thirteen miles from Branchville, there is a break in the S. C. Railroad, and travellers must take a coach for forty-two miles to Johnson's Turn Out, whence they go by rail to Augusta. It was not possible to get a bed in Bamberg, which was filled to overflowing, but our driver lived upon the road five miles from the village, and to his house accordingly we were carried. His fare consisted of myself, a young lady from Georgia returning from boarding-school, and her brother, who escorted her. The driver was loud in praise of his horses and of a "through cut" which he had made through the woods, and which saved all the danger and mud of the big road. We were mighty lucky to get him, he allowed, if he did say it himself. But we met other drivers in his through cut, each of his horses was thrown down once, the carriage was nearly capsized over a bank, and at last he was effectually silenced by a tall stump which broke one of the single-trees and delayed us fifteen minutes. A little before midnight we reached the log-house he had spoken of, and were very glad of a roaring light-wood fire and beds upon the floor. In the morning the farmer, a paralytic old man, came into our room and talked while breakfast was getting ready.

Sherman had been through that country and made him a poor man. He never was wealthy, but now he had n't anything. The soldiers came into his lot one morning early, and they just overrun everything. They did n't burn any of the buildings but the cotton-house. It had a matter of thirty bales in it, though. He would have run it out into the woods, and dropped it about, but it was all in the seed. All the poultry went, and all the bacon except some jowl pieces. When he begged for some of the good meat, they turned round and asked him if he had n't three sons in the rebel army and two sons-in-law, and called him a d—d old rebel. He told them he was n't much of a rebel at the jump, but when the war got a-going it sort o' inspired him. They seemed to know as much about his business as he did. They got all his honey, too, and his knife. He saw a parcel of the Yankees round a bench in the yard, and some mighty fine pieces of the comb there, so he said to them, "Gentlemen, I reckon I can have a piece of the comb." "All right, old fellow," says one, a little Irishman or Scotchman or German he was: "Dad, lend me your knife and I 'll cut it for you." So he handed him the knife, and sure enough he did cut off a big piece, but he put the knife into his pocket, and that was the last of it. "He had more use for it than I had," he said. Then they took away every horse he had and every saddle. He was not abused himself or any of his family, though he did n't stand back for them, either. They made a fire in the yard, one parcel of them, and began to dance round it, but he went out and told them he could bear to see his property burnt and stolen, but to make him look on and see them dancing over it was a little too much and he would n't bear it; so they stopped it. One thing the war had taught him anyhow. He would never try to hoard up money again. What he could make he intended to eat and put on his back. He had n't eaten cheese for four years, and hardly any meat, but for the future he should live well.

Breakfast, when it was served, hardly kept the implied promise thus made us, but it is seldom in these Southern farm-houses that one finds food at once good in itself and well prepared. The old man surveyed the rye coffee and hominy and corn bread and sausages with audible satisfaction. I asked about the freedmen on the farm. At one time he said he had owned thirty-four. The able-bodied young men, seven or eight in number, had been carried off by the Yankees, but the rest remained and had been at work this year, doing tolerably well. At the division of the crop they claimed a third part, and he wanted to give them only a sixth. Nothing was said about terms at the beginning. Finally he had to get a Yankee from the court-house, and he told him he was poor and pretended to be very obstinate about the one-sixth; so the Yankee gave the negroes a right hard talk, and made them take one-fifth, and call themselves lucky to get that. Next year he was going to have an understanding. His negroes said they would work for one-third; he had four white men hired to run the ploughs, at twelve dollars a month and board and washing, and he intended to plant pretty much all his land in cotton. He thought more cotton would be planted in Barnwell in 1866 than in any previous year. Now, if the negroes would only work, he did n't know but it might be a good thing that they were free, and he asked the Georgian and myself what we thought about it; we were city raised, were n't we? and knew more about things than he did. He also enquired of the Georgian if old Joe Brown was not the governor of that State, and if it was true that England had declared war against the United States.

As we were leaving, I asked what we should pay him for our entertainment. "Nothing," he said, "he never took a dollar from a man for lodging in all his life." In a minute he added, "You must talk to the old woman about that." She entered just then, so we asked her the same question, and paid a dollar and a half apiece. On the way the driver, of course, talked about Sherman's army, pointing out this house as the place where so many hundred bushels of corn were destroyed, that as the place where two splendid pianos were smashed to pieces with axes, that other as having been occupied by Sherman as his headquarters for two or three days. "It would n't do for him to travel through this country now. Too many of the boys would want him." As in other parts of the State the devastation was not nearly so great as my preconceived notions of it. But few of the houses near the road had been destroyed, and near the road, I was told, the destruction had been more complete than elsewhere.

"They burnt my house smack clean, sir," said the driver, "and every bit of furniture that I had except some that the niggers saved for me. I was worth fifteen thousand dollars the day the war broke out, and the day it ended I just had my horse that I rode home on. But I 'm a young fellow. My father lost everything, too, and he 's an old man. They put fire to the corners of the house, and then two of 'em held him and made him look at it burning. The women folks would try to save some of the things out of the fire, and when they came running out with books or anything the Yankees would snatch 'em and throw 'em back on to the fire. The old man had to go down to my sister's—she 's married and lives near where you stayed at last night—and she gave him a bed, or he 'd had to sleep out in the open air; and when he went down the next morning to look round, sir, one of the niggers told him he might leave; Sherman gave her the place, she said. Called him a grand old rascal and all sorts of names."

"What did he do with her?" the Georgian asked.

"Why, he could n't do anything. He 's an old man, seventy-two years old, and she was a big strapping nigger; could ha' killed him with one hand."

"Does he keep her there now?"

"No, by G—, he do n't. You may bet she did n't stay there long after I came home. They told me the story."

"And she 's left the plantation?"

"Yes; and when she comes back she 'll come back in the spirit. Nobody is exactly certain where she is, you know. Some think she 's gone to Charleston or somewhere on the coast, and some think she 's got lost in the big swamp."

"A heap of 'em out in my country get into the swamps and get lost. I do n't know as it 's true, but I 've heard that there 's men out there that have n't got anything else to do, and if you mention any nigger to 'em, and give 'em twelve dollars, the nigger 's sure to be lost in a very few days."

"I know four right here in Barnwell that have been drowned some way within the last two months. Niggers never were so careless before. They go into the swamps and nobody can find out anything about 'em till by-and by they 're seen floating down the river. Going to the coast, I reckon; that 's where they 're fond of going."

"Well, now," said the Georgian," it 's queer that the niggers that were the best before the war, the ones that we trusted the most, and thought the

most of, and gave every privilege, are the same ones that turn out the meanest."

The driver admitted that this was the fact, and the Georgian continued:

"And the niggers that we thought were the grandest rascals, stealing and lying and everything else, are the ones that do the best now. A nigger has got to know you 're his master, and then when he understands that he 's content. There was one of our niggers, I 'll bet my father has given him more than two thousand lashes since I can remember; he just lived in the woods in old times, but he 's the best nigger we 've got now. When we hired the hands this year, he was hired with the rest. I was at home myself, and after they 'd been working a day or two days, I went out into the field, and they were n't doing anything hardly. So I went up to the house and told my father that the negroes were not doing anything, and this particular nigger I told him I thought was doing all he could to prevent the rest from working; and I 'm going to discharge him, says I. Very well, my father told me. He gave me full power to discharge any of them I wished; but, says he, let 's give them a talk first. I was away that evening, but father called them up and told them that I was dissatisfied with the way they worked, and he mentioned this nigger in particular. Well, he stepped out right at once and said, says he: 'Whoever would say that I prevented the rest from working or did n't work well myself, is capable of telling anything.' As much as to call me a liar, you see. Well, the old gentleman told 'em all at home to say nothing to me about it when I came back. He knew there would be a row sure if I heard it, and they all meant to keep it secret from me. But at the supper-table I heard my little brother telling my mother the circumstances, and very soon I got it all out of him. I got up from the table right away and took my walking-cane and a big navy pistol that I 've got, and I walked right out of the house. In the yard I met my brother-in-law, and he saw by my looks there was some trouble, and asked me what it was. 'I 'd got a nigger to frail,' I told him, 'that had been calling me a liar.' 'All right,' he said, 'he 'd go out with me.' So we went on down to the quarters together, he and I. When we got to this nigger's house I called for him and out he came. As soon as I saw him, I jumped for him, and I laid the cane unto him—it was a kind of a riding-cane—just as hard as I could lay it, over the head or anywhere. He did n't like it much, and blamed if he did n't run in on me and get hold of the whip. Then I took the pistol and I did n't stop to cock it, but I hit him two or three times with it as quick as ever I could strike. The pistol went off and the nigger thought I 'd killed him. 'Oh! Master Henry,' he says, 'I never thought you 'd do one of your own niggers so that you raised yourself.' 'I 'll learn you,' says I, 'to call me a liar;' and we took him and tied him up and I gave him one of the best frailings he ever got in his life. My father came out, though, and took him down. He can hardly hobble about, but he was so afraid I 'd kill the nigger that he walked away out to the quarters and took him into the house, and washed his head himself and bandaged it up for him. But he 's been the very best hand we 've had since that time. Frail a nigger and he knows you."

There was much talk of a similar character between the two young men, and they had an inexhaustible topic of conversation in their varied adventures as soldiers and scouts and spies during the late war. All day we were riding steadily at a very good rate of speed, and early in the evening, without accident, we arrived at the Turn Out, where we were provided with beds, or, rather, with certain fractional parts of beds, and with breakfast on the following morning. In that desolate little hamlet I saw nothing and heard nothing which would merit reporting, and the railway ride across the Savannah River into the State of Georgia was equally destitute of incident.

THE LONDON TIMES IN TROUBLE.

LONDON, December 30.

NOT having been in China, I cannot say whether the love of stereotyped routine may not be stronger in the Celestial Empire than it is with us. But of all the countries that I am acquainted with, I can assert confidently that England excels all others in a rigid adherence to custom simply as custom. It is an unwritten law of English daily journalism that every editorial should occupy not less than one nor more than one column and a half, and should consist of three paragraphs, and three paragraphs only. From time to time a newspaper makes a bold effort to break through the tradition, but somehow or other the innovators get astounded at their own audacity and relapse into the old prescribed form. So in the same way to-day, as on the last day of every year since time immemorial, the interests of the reading public are deliberately sacrificed to a journalistic tradition. It is the fashion on such days to have no leading articles, and to supply their place by one long dreary summary of the year. Nothing can well be duller than these annual retrospects. Too long for anybody to read, too cursory to be used for reference, they serve no purpose except to wear out the patience of the public for whom they are supposed to be written. Newspaper editors are sharp enough as a class, and know all this as well as anybody. But it is the custom to have such summaries, and in England an old established custom is not a thing to be disregarded with impunity.

To an American reader the one feature of any interest in these reviews would be, I fancy, the allusions contained in them to the termination of the civil war. It is curious to anybody who remembers how, on the last day of 1864, our newspapers took occasion to discourse on the text that another year had passed without bringing the North any nearer to its insane purpose of restoring the Union, to note the language now held about America by the leading pro-Southern newspapers. The *Times* at last has made the gratifying discovery that, "though the numbers of the Northern army were out of all proportion to its exploits, the troops which were, from time to time, actually engaged displayed creditable discipline and remarkable valor." The same paper, which was never weary, twelve months ago, of ridiculing everybody who suggested the possibility of the Union being restored, now informs its readers that "there is every reason to hope that the United States will deal successfully with the problem of internal reconstruction, and that the people will re-enter on a career of material improvement and expansion." The *Daily Telegraph* delivers an eulogy on the unparalleled splendor of a whole nation's clemency; and the *Saturday Review* performs the process of devouring its own words with a gusto which is creditable to its powers of digestion. When I read, as I do in its annual retrospect, that "to those Englishmen, and they are the vast majority, who have the heart and the sense to take pride and pleasure in the well-doing of a free and kindred race," and so on and so on, I feel a sort of mental confusion as to how it is that I could have been for so long one of a vast majority, together with the writers of the *Saturday Review*, without ever discovering the fact. If, mindful of the Scriptural exhortation concerning the danger of all men speaking well of you, you grow alarmed at this concurrent chorus of praise, you may, perhaps, be consoled by learning that the *Standard* still cherishes its old antagonism to the North, and gravely warns its readers that the time will come when the world will reject "the non-establishment of a well-ordered balance of power in Northern America by an intervention that would have saved the American people three years of desolating warfare."

Apropos of newspapers, the club world for the last few days has been occupied with stories of dissensions between the managers of the *Times* newspaper. In all such matters it is very difficult to arrive at the exact truth. Shrewd men of the world, like the conductors of the leading English journal, are not likely to let the world into the secret of their disputes until such time as their connection is finally severed. On this account, I am not disposed to place implicit reliance on the stories circulated in society as to the details of the rumored crisis in Printing House Square. I can only give them to you for what they are worth as the *on dits* of men about town. It is said, then, that for the last week or two the barometer at the *Times* office has stood at "stormy." You may, possibly, be acquainted with the fact that the chief ostensible proprietor of the *Times* is Mr. John Walter, late M.P. for the county of Berkshire. A great and not very intelligible mystery has always been maintained as to the exact proprietorship of the journal in question. On one occasion, when some remark was made on the subject in the House of Commons, Mr. Walter declared that he was by no means as influential in the paper as he was supposed to be. Whether this gentleman is the virtual holder of shares entered in the names of sleeping partners, or whether his profits as printer of the paper—a post secured to him by the terms of the partnership deed—exceed his profits as part proprietor, are points about which opinions differ. As a matter of fact, there is no doubt that he reaps the lion's share of the income derived from the *Times*, and that he is the ultimate authority in all matters relating to the paper. In other words, there is no person employed in its management whom Mr. Walter could not dismiss if he were so minded. His father and grandfather took a very active part in the management of the paper; and it is on record that in one instance, at the outset of the Puseyite movement, when some one of the young Oxford writers of the day wrote an article expressing sympathy with Dr. Newman's views, old Walter posted up to London the very moment he caught sight of the article, to stop what he considered rightly a most fatal error. The present inheritor of the Walter interest has of late years kept himself studiously aloof from any active interference in the conduct of the *Times*. A man of large property, a county member, and a local magnate in Berkshire, he has hitherto, according to an expressive, though vulgar expression, done his utmost "to drop the shop." In his place in Parliament he was a steadfast supporter of the Palmerston Administration, and markedly expressed views on more than one occasion

not in accordance with those advocated in the journal of which he was the reputed owner. In his private capacity he was much more desirous of being known as a large landed proprietor than as Walter of the *Times*. Thus, for many years the practical management of the paper has been delegated entirely to Mr. Delane and other members of the *Times* staff, who formed a sort of happy family party, united in more than one instance by ties of marriage.

At last, so report says, this mutually satisfactory arrangement has been disturbed. Mr. Walter, according to the current story, recently informed Mr. Delane that he was not satisfied with the manner in which the paper had been conducted of late. Upon this, according to the same gossip, Mr. Delane tendered his resignation, and several of the staff expressed their resolution to leave if his resignation was accepted. In fact, for a time, it was thought there was likely to be a complete break-up in Printing House Square. Now, however, it is rumored that the quarrel has been made up; and that no important change will be made in the management. As I said before, I do not vouch for the accuracy of these statements. I simply mention them as current in quarters likely to be well informed on the subject. I almost disbelieve in their truth, if I may say so, from their intrinsic probability. It is so natural the proprietors of the *Times* should be dissatisfied with the position of the paper, that people are apt to assume the fact of their so being. I have very little doubt that the assertion commonly made by the persons connected with the paper is true, and that the actual net profit of the paper is larger now than it ever was before. I am told, too, on good authority that the circulation increases steadily. This fact, however, I feel sceptical about. Any man who is in the habit of travelling about England must, I think, share my scepticism. The *Times* has lost its "chance" custom. In the railroads and omnibuses you hardly see anybody reading the *Times* now; the news-boys find it does not pay to sell it on the streets; the suburban news-venders never keep it on stock; they supply a very large number on order, but they no longer take in copies not ordered beforehand. The truth is, the penny papers have supplanted it as popular organs of opinion. It is still *the* newspaper of the governing classes, but it is no longer the chief English journal. For this fact the gentlemen who have managed the paper are very little to blame. When once it became clear that a penny newspaper could be made to pay, it became clear also that sooner or later the *Times* must either lower its price to a penny or be content to see other competitors surpass it in circulation and in the influence attaching to a vast constituency of readers. The only valid cause of complaint against the management is not that the *Times* cannot compete in popularity with a paper like the *Daily Telegraph*, but that it has forfeited its reputation for political sagacity. The utter failure of all its predictions with reference to the American war is beginning to tell against it. Then its reckless advocacy of Governor Eyre has proved to be a mistake in policy as well as in principle; and its bitter animosity towards the idea of reform is, to say the least, a hazardous experiment. Moreover, in a merely intellectual point of view, it has not of late exhibited its former supremacy of talent. Constantly other newspapers are beforehand with it in news. Leaders and reports in other papers get more talked about than those in the leading journal.

The Crimean year was the apogee of the *Times's* greatness and grandeur Its one formidable rival, the *Morning Chronicle*, had been finally vanquished in the contest, and both proprietors and managers fancied that they had established their power on an immovable basis. With security there came carelessness, and the result has been the gradual decline of its influence. On the whole, I think this is a circumstance for which the public has cause to be grateful. Personally I have a great respect for the talent and good sense with which for many years the *Times* was conducted; and, with all its faults, I own it had also signal virtues. The heyday of its greatness will, I think, always remain one of the most brilliant periods of English journalism; and if the despotism of the *Times* were simply to be replaced by that of some younger and more energetic rival, I should see little ground for satisfaction. Happily, this is not likely to be the case. It is most improbable that the combination of circumstances which conferred on the *Times* its temporary dictatorship should ever occur again. We shall have, I hope, a number of influential and successful papers in coming years, but I trust we shall never have one again able to speak, as the *Times* at one time could do, in the name of England. A monopoly of power is dangerous for any rulers, but above all for an anonymous and irresponsible body such as in the day of the Crimea held sway in Printing House Square.

With the exception of these reports concerning the *Times*, there has been a complete dearth of any public news. During these Christmas holidays all politics are forgotten, and till Parliament meets, in February, we are not likely to hear much of political discussion. There has been some talk of late of Mr. Bright's accepting a seat in the Russell-Gladstone cabinet, but I believe the rumor to be utterly unfounded. If Earl Russell is defeated, as I expect, on the reform question, he will possibly form a complete coalition with the advanced liberals, but not till he has tried his fortune alone; he will certainly not ally himself with the member for Birmingham. I have some reason to believe that Mr. Bright has lately devoted himself more sedulously to commercial matters—a fact that is utterly irreconcilable with any idea of taking office.

The death of Sir Charles Eastlake has left vacant the presidency of the Royal Academy. The question of his successor excites much interest in the artist world; but I suppose there is little doubt the office will be offered to Sir Edwin Landseer.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, December 29, 1865.

THE Christmas music in all the more fashionable centres of ecclesiastical attraction has been this year uncommonly fine. Many rising composers had written masses expressly for the occasion; and these, interpreted by the leading artists of the day, seem to have been eminently successful. That performed at the Church of the Madelaine, by Camille de St. Saëns, so well-known for his admirable transcriptions of Bach, has added a very green leaf to the chaplet already so worthily won by him.

A beautiful mass was performed at the Chapel of the Tuileries on Christmas, in presence of the court, the King and Queen of Portugal, their sister and brother-in-law, Princess Hohenzollern and her husband, and a numerous gathering of distinguished guests specially invited. In the evening a "family dinner," of a very magnificent description, took place at the palace, and happily cemented the reconciliation which has just been brought about between the Emperor and his too outspoken cousin. Here, where every little detail of court life is scrutinized with interest, as "straws" showing "which way the wind blows," it was remarked with satisfaction that the occupants of the Palais Royal went on foot to the Tuileries, thus freeing their visit of every appearance of etiquette, and giving to it the air of a merely private family affair. The Imperial hosts are said to have responded to this token of returning kindliness and good-will by giving a most affectionate reception to the Prince and Princess. All the numerous members of the Imperial family were present at this gathering, with the exception of Princess Anna Murat, now Duchesse de Mouchy, who, after the splendors of her marriage at the Tuileries, and her reception by the people of over thirty villages in the neighborhood of Mouchy-le-Castel—with no end of triumphal arches, bouquets, addresses from *maires* in official costume, and charity-children in book-muslin, torchlight processions, and grand displays of rockets and Bengal fires—is spending her honeymoon with her youthful bridegroom in the old dwelling of his historic ancestry, in the midst of a population whose affectionate veneration for the Mouchy family offers a curious contrast to the indifference of the Paris of to-day for the great names of the past. The Prince Imperial, who, being in his ninth year, is becoming quite a man in his own eyes, was allowed for the first time to eat his Christmas dinner with his "august" relatives.

The traditional roast-beef and plum-pudding which, since England was England, have constituted the orthodox Christmas dinner on the other side of the Channel, are only seen here on the tables of the English residents. The American colony substitutes turkeys for roast-beef, but largely patronizes the traditional pudding, and is by no means oblivious of mince-pie, though this latter is seldom prepared exactly according to the standard of its English original. But no lover of Christmas and Christmas cheer, in England or out of it, has ever been able to imitate the famous "plum-broth" which, served up in a massive, antique silver tureen of Brobdignagian proportions, has formed for ages the distinguishing feature of the Christmas dinner of the kings and queens of England. This "broth" is, in fact, a liquid edition of the orthodox pudding, with the same deep hue of old mahogany, verging on blackness, the same delectable and enticing odor, the same peculiar mellow richness of flavor, luscious yet chastened, and laying, alas! the same heavy tax on the powers of the digestive organs. But easy as would seem, to ordinary mortals, the task of diluting the "solid pudding" to the consistence of water, no one has ever succeeded in imitating the "plum-broth," of which the secret, strictly guarded, is handed down from generation to generation by each successive "head cook" at Windsor Castle to his immediate successor.

The young King and Queen of Portugal (who had so much difficulty in getting a leave of absence from the Portuguese Chambers, and whose "outing" was delayed for some weeks after permission had been given to their Majesties to leave the kingdom, because the Chambers obstinately

refused to let the precious two-year-old baby, the heir to the crown, accompany his royal parents, who were equally determined not to go without him), have been making the most of their brief liberty. They enjoyed themselves immensely in Italy, dispensing with state and etiquette, seeing all the Queen's old friends, and visiting everything of interest within reach. During their stay here they have been just as busy, and have had their time pretty well occupied in sight-seeing. They wound up their explorations on Saturday by going to the magnificent new Théâtre du Chatelet, and, getting back from there about twelve, lost no time in putting on masks and dominoes and going to the opera-ball, which takes place every Saturday night at this season, beginning exactly at midnight. The frantic, glittering, many-colored whirl of sights and sounds so attractive to the pleasure-loving people of Paris, was witnessed by their youthful Majesties, of course, from the decorous precincts of a stage-box.

Queen Maria Pia, not yet eighteen, and the mother of a couple of boys, shares largely the want of personal beauty which is the appanage of her House. Prince Humbert, though not handsome, has a refined and very intelligent face, the plainness of whose features is redeemed by a magnificent forehead. Princess Clotilde, far from pretty, looks so good, so kind, and so honest, that her face is pleasing, despite its plainness. But the young Queen of Portugal, though said to be very amiable, and adored by her husband and all about her, is plain almost to ugliness. Her complexion is as white as wax, her hair is violently "carrotty," and her features are as inharmonious as possible. The redeeming point in her personal appearance is her figure, which is splendid; tall, shapely, and well-devel oped. She dresses admirably, and her manners are at once dignified and pleasing. The young King is a fine-looking fellow, not handsome, but with an open, intelligent face, a most winning smile, and charming manners. He is highly educated, well-read, an accomplished musician, and a universal favorite.

The great attraction of the hour is the pair of great dolls, dressed in the styles of the First and Second Empire, now exhibiting in the tempting windows of Siraudin, the well-known ex-member of the Legislative Assembly, poet, playwright, philosopher, now the first maker of artistic sugar-plums in Paris. The dolls are about four feet high, of wax, and wonderfully got up. The "First Empire" wears an immensely long train of crimson velvet embroidered with silver wheat, over a petticoat of white satin entirely covered with the same magnificent embroidery, an apology for a *corsage*, coming scarcely lower than the arm-pits, and edged with a standing ruffle of lace, a turban of the same crimson velvet, with jewels in the band, long white kid gloves fastened above the elbow with a cameo bracelet. Every line about the figure (which holds a little fan in its right hand, and with its left is plucking behind at its long train, as though fearing an entanglement in walking) indicates an attempt to produce the effect of length without thickness, the tightly-gored petticoat being of the most attenuated narrowness. The "Empire" of to-day sports a gorgeous robe of very rich *moire* of a pale gray shade, with cupids so cunningly wrought in the same as to give the effect of Gobelins tapestry; the skirt, excessively long behind and displayed over a crinoline of most fashionable proportions, is bordered with a deep trimming of dark green velvet, almost covered with gold ornaments, according to the *furore* of the day; the *corsage* and sleeves are trimmed and ornamented to match; the head is covered with a mass of short puffy curls *à la Newfoundland*, ornamented with bands of gold and surmounted with one of the microscopic bonnets now in vogue; a lace shawl and white gloves complete the toilette, and the little lady holds a rose in her hand. All Paris is flocking to the Rue de la Paix to admire and laugh at the pair of little figures, so well illustrating the two extremes of fashionable folly they so faithfully represent.

The double line of ugly wooden booths, looking like magnified packing-cases, which a paternal municipality allows the petty manufacturers of the capital to set up for a fortnight at this season along the Boulevards, have just made their appearance, and are rivalling, on a lower scale, the more costly attractions of the shops. The week before New Year's Day is always a very carnival of buying and selling, the amount of money thus "turned over" during the last few days of each expiring year being something fabulous.

All the theatres are bringing out new pieces in honor of the season. Mademoiselle Brohan, the popular actress at the Théâtre Français, has just drawn a prize of 50,000 fr. in a lottery, and a sister-artist, Mademoiselle Ehlers, has added another to the long list of victims to Moloch and crinoline, having been burned to death on the stage of the opera at St. Petersburg. The various courses of lectures lately introduced among the amusements of Paris are being "improved" by the co-operation of pairs of speakers, who take opposite sides in the discussion of the topic of the evening; and returning grandees are opening their salons for the coming winter. But the topic which will be uppermost in the general mind of this region for a week to come is faithfully reflected in the letter just found in the post-office, addressed to "The Infant Jesus. In Heaven. To be given to St. Peter," and containing an urgent entreaty, from the child-writer, for "plenty of New Year's presents." STELLA.

Correspondence.

THE FUTURE RELATIONS OF NORTH AND SOUTH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Having, since the termination of the war, occupied nearly five months—from July until the latter part of December, 1865—in making an extended tour through the Southern States, passing over portions of South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Tennessee, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Texas, it has been suggested to the writer that the general result of his observation and experience in the South, more especially as regards the present disposition of the people and the feeling they entertain toward Northern men, might possess sufficient interest for the public to justify him in offering a brief summary of his conclusions upon those questions which at the present time justly occupy so considerable a degree of public interest.

A detailed and carefully elaborated report is not, of course, to be expected from one whose business at the South was of a purely commercial character, which of necessity prevented him from giving the subjects herein briefly alluded to that attention and careful study they require; and even if the writer were competent to the task, the nature of the data from which he has drawn his inferences and conclusions precludes the possibility of any such undertaking. The following views are therefore submitted, without apology for their crudeness, the writer merely premising that his statements have no greater merit than their sincerity, and that all relations of facts and actual occurrences may be relied upon as literally true and capable of abundant substantiation.

It will scarcely, I think, be denied, by any disinterested and unprejudiced observer of the popular feeling as it exists in the Southern States to-day, that so general and all-pervading is the hatred and distrust at present existing among Southerners of all classes against men of the North, particularly against all persons born or educated in the New England States, that although, aside from this fact and the general insecurity of life and property at the South, the inducement to invest capital is very great, yet, under the circumstances, no Northern man would be justified in giving up a permanent and profitable business at the North in the hope of securing a larger return for his money by investing it at the South. Whenever the inhabitants of the Southern States shall have realized sufficiently the great change that has taken place in the nature of their institutions and the character of their labor, and consent to receive emigrants from the North with courtesy and good-will, instead of suspicion and dislike; whenever they shall be willing to lay aside their foolish and unworthy jealousy and give the "Yankee" fair play, and extend to him the right hand of fellowship, *then*, and not till then, will Northern men and Northern capital be justified in seeking a field for industry and investment at the South. At the present moment, so far is this from being the case, that in the interior of the cotton States a man had better hail from the state prison than from Yankeeland. Threats are freely uttered as to what methods will be resorted to to rid them of all "abolitionists" when the military shall have been withdrawn; and I state a fact that any Northern gentleman of "radical" sentiments who has ventured among the Southern people since the conclusion of the war will confirm, when I say that it is hardly more safe to differ in opinion from the prevailing Southern idea of the incapacity of the negro to-day than before the war. Any man who expects to go South and be able to express his opinion in favor of negro suffrage, and the right of the black to political equality with the whites, will be disappointed. The presence of the United States troops *may* protect him in the large towns and cities, but his life will be in constant danger wherever his sentiments are known and the protection of the soldiers is withdrawn.

This feeling of hatred toward Northern men professing "abolition" sentiments is not confined to any particular class. It appears to be as common among their best educated and more prominent citizens as among the less influential and most ignorant. As a general rule the women of the South exceed the men in the bitterness of their vituperation; and, singular to say, the clergymen of the different denominations vie with one another in the expression of the most bigoted, uncharitable, and unchristian denunciations of Northern character and motives; inculcating rather a spirit of revenge than the virtues of moderation and forgiveness. The young men

and women are almost unanimous in their animosity against the North; and the educators of the public youth, the professors in the different colleges and seminaries, manifest anything but a true spirit of loyalty and hearty acquiescence in the course of events.

The great and radical difficulty in the way of a perfect reconciliation between the people of the North and South appears to be the fact that, however much the Southerners may regret and deplore their folly in going to war, yet nearly all still believe sincerely that the *right* was on their side. In the language of one of their journals, "the *right* of secession, as a question, stands as it stood before the war; and the only thing in reference to it that is settled is the inability of the South to carry it into effect." Instead of recognizing their present sad condition as a just and well-merited punishment, brought on by their own rashness and presumption, the inhabitants of the Southern States are now wasting their time in useless regrets as to what is done and cannot be undone, or in worse than useless plans for effecting their purpose in some other manner.

It may as well be understood by the Northern people first as last that a genuine, loyal, Union sentiment, as it is felt and recognized at the North, is almost entirely unknown at the South. *Individuals* there are, without doubt, who sincerely acknowledge the benefits resulting from the union of these States; but the great body of the Southern people at the present time regard the national authority as an usurping military tyranny.

Far from being convinced that the close of the war was the death-struggle of State-rights, they look forward to a period when the United States shall have become involved either in a foreign war or in financial confusion to again assert and maintain their independence.

At the present time there is not the slightest reason to suspect the existence of any immediate design of again taking up arms against the national authority, yet it is plainly to be observed that no feeling is more earnest and deep-seated among the great majority of the Southern people than their desire to live apart from the North; and I have no doubt that the inhabitants of the Southern States to-day, if permitted to do as they please, would vote themselves out of the Union with even greater unanimity than in 1860. The stand-point from which they now regard the position of affairs differs decidedly from that occupied by the Northern people. Everywhere I found among their best educated and most cultivated citizens a firm belief that "the end was not yet." I have frequently been told with great emphasis that this nation could not hold together for five years under any circumstances. Their belief in the righteousness of their cause, and its expediency from a political point of view, appears to have been shaken very little by the surrender of their armies. There were many of the shrewder class of politicians at the South who opposed secession in its inception and progress not so much from opposition to the policy itself, as in view of the war and consequent disaster it would bring upon them. These men hoped by constantly agitating the subject to bring about their end without war; they believed they could in time convince the voters of the Western States that their interests lay rather with the South than the East, and this once accomplished they did not doubt that separation would follow peacefully. Now, by the process of events and the policy adopted at Washington, these men, from their original opposition to the *war*, not to *secession*, have become the advisers and guides of the Southern people.

This being the case, it is easily to be understood that the inhabitants of the South to-day are only prevented from manifesting their inclinations by the pressure of the national authority, exerted as it is by and through our military forces; and as soon as the soldiers are withdrawn, and the Southerners are permitted to speak and act as they please, it must be *expected* that the old spirit will again be exhibited. If they are impatient and restless now, what is to be hoped for when all restraint shall have been withdrawn? I repeat that I saw no reason, while in the South, to apprehend a second attempt at a *forcible* disruption of the Union, but I believe that we of the North must expect, and be prepared for, a steady, united, and persistent effort on the part of the Southern people to accomplish the dissolution of the present form of government, and the erection of a Southern confederacy, by and through other agencies than the bayonet. To what end is it to be supposed their organizations tend? So long as the will remains, and their minds and hearts are unchanged, so long will there be danger, constant danger, of an effort to attack the integrity and unity of this Government.

It would really appear as if it were impossible that opinions *could* differ as to the means to be employed to bring the South into a proper frame of mind. I believe that there would be but one sentiment at the North in regard to the subject, if all understood exactly what is the attitude of the Southern people to-day. What would be thought of the wisdom of an individual who, having been attacked by an assassin, had conquered him after a desperate struggle, and then not only assisted him to rise, but handed him back the weapon just aimed at his own life?

I have spoken of a class of Southerners who were in favor of secession if it could be brought about peaceably, but who opposed the *war* from the knowledge that it would tend, even if successful, to lower the value of their slave property, etc. These men to-day urge that had their ideas been adopted, separation would have been accomplished; and they allege that the mistake the Southern people committed lay *not* in the end they sought to attain, but in the *means* through which they sought to effect that end. Many among them feel assured that if, instead of secession, they had "fought for their rights" under the old flag, they would have secured the co-operation of many at the North, and, by revolutionizing the national Government, would have reconstructed it to suit themselves, leaving out New England and the more radical States of the North-west. These men have a more pernicious effect upon the minds of the Southern people than the leaders of the secession movement, many of whom are convinced that they are whipped for all time, and who bitterly hate all the advocates of peaceable secession, because they think that had they come forward at the critical moment and given their assistance, instead of hanging back and stigmatizing the movement as premature, the South would have been victorious in the struggle. For this reason and for others, I cannot but regard the policy of the Administration in refusing the late leaders of the Southern people any participation in reconstruction as unwise and impolitic. I am thoroughly of the opinion that such men as the Confederate Vice-President, Stephens, of Georgia, are prevented by the existing policy from doing much good which they feel inclined to do; while the men in power at the South, possessing infinitely less influence with the masses of the Southern people, are doing their utmost to *retard* the Union movement instead of accelerating it. If the present policy be persisted in, it will not be difficult to indicate a programme of operations which will be commenced so soon as the Southern representatives can regain their seats in Congress. From what I heard and saw in all parts of the South, it is safe to assume that one of the first steps to be taken will be a claim for compensation for every slave that has been freed, every rail that has been burned, and every peck of corn taken by Northern armies at the South. The national debt will be attacked either in front and without disguise, under the plea that, since the North has obliged the South to repudiate the Confederate debt, it is unfair to ask them to assume any part of that contracted to overwhelm them; or else a flank movement will be made in favor of a reduction of taxes and a low tariff. In one word, every effort of political intrigue will be exhausted to swamp our national credit, in the hope that in the confusion sure to ensue in case of their success, the Southerners may find an opportunity to effect their purpose.

Under these circumstances it would appear as though no other means *could* be adopted for the immediate future than the retention of a strong military force at the South and the diffusion of information among the masses of the Southern whites, in order that they may be *educated* into a belief that their true interests and future welfare require that they should remain *in* the Union and *of* it. The origin of the late war may be traced to the ignorance prevailing among the Southern whites in regard to the intentions of the North. That ignorance still remains in full force.

The educational influences which are now being exerted on the minds of the rising generation at the South, whether at home in the family, at school, or in society, are such as, unless they can speedily be done away with, or counteracted in some manner, must certainly render the future political leaders at the South as inimical to the federal Union as their predecessors.

No more certain method, in my opinion, can be adopted to render disaffection toward the national Government permanent, and keep awake the spirit of hostility toward the North, at present so painfully manifest in all parts of the Southern States, than the system of education as at present administered at the South. It is a matter of boast among the people that they hate the Yankees, and their children hate them worse still. I believe that a deliberate attempt is now being made to bring up the youth of the South to adopt as their first duty to one day reassert the heresy of State sovereignty. Ask almost any Southern boy under ten years of age what he intends to do when grown up, and he replies, "Fight the Yankees"—a remark sure to be applauded as an evidence of spirit.

Northern people may disregard this fact, and argue that time will soften the asperities and diminish the unkindness of the Southerners, but it was precisely this teaching and this feeling that made the late war possible, and so long as the people of the Southern States persist in inculcating the idea that the position of the South to-day is similar to that of Poland or Hungary, so long will an element of disaffection exist which may do much harm at some future time.

With regard to the future condition of the freedmen at the South, if left entirely to the mercy of the Southerners, it is not difficult to forecast their fate. They will be obliged, in one way or another, to work for a scanty pittance, punished mercilessly for the slightest infringement of whatever arbitrary and unjust laws may be imposed upon them, and if they attempt to better their condition, or resist the impositions practised upon them, they will be shot down like dogs. In many parts of the Southern country the position of the late slave is far worse than when held as a chattel, since then it was his master's *interest* to look after his health and physical well-being, while now the interest of his employer ceases at the moment he becomes unable from sickness or accident to render service in return for what he receives. It is the universal impression among Southerners that the negro is destined to extermination, and the desire to see the last of him is freely expressed. But while he yet remains among them they wish to obtain the full benefit of his service, and, as they have no idea of free labor, any attempt they make to oblige the black to work is, to a greater or less extent, based upon the old system of slavery. No stronger argument can be adduced in favor of maintaining a military force at the South, than the necessity of affording protection and assuring justice to the freedmen. The danger of insurrection among them, of which so much is heard at the present time, will be rendered less, so that the Southern people can hardly object on that score. But the fact is, that all fears of an extended, organized, and systematic uprising on the part of the blacks are merely the offspring of the excited imaginations of the Southern people, rendered more vivid by their knowledge of the wrongs the blacks endured.

As the attention of the American public at the present moment is in no small degree directed toward the question of the probable future supply of cotton, and the amount on hand in the Southern States at the conclusion of the war, I append the result of my investigations upon these subjects during the five months I passed in the cotton States.

I estimate the amount of old cotton in good condition at the termination of hostilities in the South as approximating eleven hundred thousand bales. To this must be added the crop of the present season, which I judge to be nearly a half-million bales, making the entire amount of cotton, old and new, in the country, available before the crop of 1866, to be about sixteen hundred thousand bales (1,600,000). Allowing that a very much larger amount has been concealed than was generally supposed, and, after making the most liberal additions for all possibilities, the amount of merchantable cotton in the Southern country from the 1st of May, 1865, up to the 1st of September, 1866, will still be less than two millions of bales.

As regards the future of cotton, so much depends upon what measures are adopted to regulate labor and restore order and tranquillity at the South, that it is unsafe to hazard an opinion with any degree of assurance. Up to a very recent period, I felt quite certain that the quantity of cotton to be expected next season would not exceed, if, indeed, it amounted to, one million bales; but in view of the great exertions which are being made by Northern capitalists, and the unexpected energy developed by many of the poorer class of Southern whites in prosecuting the cultivation of the staple, two millions of bales are within the limits of possibility. A. W. K.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

In the present rage for collecting everything that relates to the history of America—Revolutionary, rebellious, local, general, and particular—when any scrap of engraving, printing, or coin that is connected with our great historical names and events calls forth the competition of apparently limitless purses, it is remarkable that one branch of national progress has been entirely neglected. We mean the illustration of American intellect, as exhibited in the printed literature of the country. No one has yet turned his attention to making a collection of books written by Americans. How scarce they become in a few years, and how difficult of access, may be seen by any one who takes a book like Duyckinck's "Cyclopedia of American Literature," and tries to consult the writings of almost any one of the minor authors there commemorated. He will soon find that neither public libraries nor book stores will afford much help, and for all practical purposes a large portion of what has been is almost as inaccessible as if it never existed. As an instance at hand, we notice in Dr. Gardiner Spring's lately published autobiography a list is given of his writings, amounting in number to about sixty distinct publications, including twenty-two octavo volumes. Probably no library in New York possesses a quarter of them. Of course, with books issued in provincial towns and country districts, the chance of their preservation is proportionably lessened. Perhaps there is something in the nomadic habits of our people unfavorable to the preservation of relics of this kind, for it is a curious fact that most of the rare American early printed books that grace the shelves of our collectors are procured from London, and, even after all the drafts made on that great reservoir, more curious things of this sort can be "picked up" in England than can be found here. What we would urge the collection of is not, however, books that lay claim to be rarities, but simply the original works that point out the prevailing currents of thought, and are identified with the intellectual movements of the country. That much of value exists unrecognized is certain. The history of no science can be written satisfactorily without a knowledge of the progressive steps of its advancement. John Stuart Mill says of a work on political economy, by John Rae, published in Boston in 1834, and never heard of by the present generation: "In no other book known to me is so much light thrown, both from principles and history, on the causes which determine the application of capital;" and other instances might be given. A complete collection of American educational works would be of great value and curiosity. In fact, in every pursuit that has engaged attention among us a perfect series of books is desirable. It is one of the latest discoveries of bibliography that there is no such thing as absolute rubbish—nothing, in fact, but what may have a value for some classes of enquirers, and consequently should not be allowed to perish.

—A new work by Henry Fawcett, professor of political economy at the University of Cambridge, and M.P. for Brighton in the new Parliament, has just been published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co.—"The Economic Position of the British Laborer." His "Manual of Political Economy" has lately reached a second edition. The pursuance of studies under so great an affliction as a complete loss of sight is of rare occurrence, and still more the appearance of any one so circumstanced in public life. Professor Fawcett was born in 1833, the son of a Wiltshire gentleman. He was educated at King's College, London, thence passing to Cambridge, where he obtained very high mathematical honors and graduated as seventh wrangler in 1856. He adopted the law as his profession, but ten years later his legal studies were interrupted by the peculiarly distressing accident whose consequences influenced his future life. In the autumn of 1858, Mr. Fawcett was spending the vacation at home, and, while engaged in partridge-shooting with other members of his family, he received two stray shots from his father's gun, each shot piercing the centre of either eye-ball and rendering him hopelessly blind. This lamentable occurrence made a change of pursuit necessary, and he consequently devoted himself to political economy. His election to the professorship of that science at Cambridge followed in 1863. It has been filled with singular honor to himself and with undoubted benefit to the university. As a public speaker, Mr. Fawcett has made a most favorable impression at several late meetings of the British Association. He contested the representation of Southwark and the borough of Cambridge previously to his triumphant return by the Liberal party at Brighton, whence he enters the new Parliament under the most favorable auspices, and will, undoubtedly, be heard of among the partisans of legislative progress.

—A reprint has just been issued by Messrs. Willis & Sotheran, of London, of a rare little tract, to which their attention was no doubt drawn by the similar undertaking of the late Mr. George Livermore, of Boston. It has often been said that the soldiers in Cromwell's army were each supplied with a pocket Bible, though no evidence existed to show what edition it could be. A short time since the tract in question was discovered, and is no doubt what every Commonwealth soldier was furnished with by the Government, though only two copies are now known to be in existence: one among the "King's Pamphlets" in the British Museum, and the other in Mr. Livermore's collection. It is entitled "Souldier's Pocket Bible, containing the most (if not all) those places contained in Holy Scripture which doe shew the qualifications of his inner man—that is, a fit Souldier to fight the Lord's Battels, both before the fight, in the fight, and after the fight;" London, 1643. Mr. Livermore printed privately a few copies for distribution among his friends of this curious relic of the Cromwellian era, including two copies on vellum, which were among the first specimens of typography on that material executed in this country. The London reprint is also a fac-simile, with an introduction by Francis Fry, the Biblical collector, and editor of the beautifully executed fac-simile edition of Tyndale's New Testament.

—"The Pictorial History of the Civil War in the United States," by Mr. Lossing, the author and artist, after long and careful preparation, is now passing through the press. The first volume will probably be issued in February. The great popularity and wide circulation of Mr. Lossing's "Field Book of the Revolution" suffice to show that the public appreciate

the unique combination of the pen and the pencil for which his works are remarkable. Volume I. of the "Pictorial History" will contain the early civil and military history of the conflict from the opening of the first scene in the Democratic Convention at Charleston, in the spring of 1860, to the close of the battle of Bull Run, in July, 1861. Its six hundred pages include more than four hundred illustrative engravings. About one hundred and fifty of these are portraits of prominent men on both sides—governors, generals, statesmen, etc. The remainder comprise views and maps of battle-grounds, forts, arsenals, ships of war, weapons, medals of honor, military costumes, and a great variety of other subjects, all helping the "education of the eye" in a knowledge of the material forces of the great conflict. The succeeding volumes will be issued with as little delay as possible consistent with their careful execution. The last will contain biographical sketches in dictionary arrangement of all the prominent actors in the war, loyal or disloyal, male or female, with fac-simile of the signature of each, an elaborate analytical index to the whole work, etc. The enterprise of the publisher, Mr. George W. Childs, of Philadelphia, has ably seconded the efforts of the author and artist. The "Pictorial History" will contain, when complete, two thousand illustrations, and will rank among the handsomest books ever produced in this country. The popularity of the subject, and the demand for books relating to it, continue unabated. For a "Naval and Military History of the Rebellion," issued by Messrs. D. Appleton & Co., mainly condensed from their "Annual Cyclopædia" for each year of the war, the publishers are said to have received, in a short space of time, orders for eighty thousand copies.

—The third volume of Prof. Rawlinson's historical work, "Five Great Monarchies of the Eastern World," is just published by Mr. Murray. One more volume will complete the work, and thus place within the reach of general readers the best résumé yet made of the results of archæological study in the East. The work shows how far the materials amassed by the labors of Sir Henry Rawlinson, Botta, Oppert, Dr. Martin Haug, Burnouf, Max Müller, Layard, and other scholars, both English and Continental, are available for the reconstruction of the historic past, and the reproduction of whole chapters in the world's record that had died out of human memory. The earliest Chaldean empire (an entirely new discovery, unknown to the ancients) and the monarchy of Assyria occupy the first and second volume of Prof. Rawlinson's work. They are derived almost entirely from monuments, inscriptions, ancient remains, etc. In the new volume, relating to the third and fourth empires, Media and Babylonia, firmer ground is reached, the narratives of the Greek historians by turns reflecting light on, and receiving elucidation from, the crumbling material fragments of vanished civilization that reward the diligence of the explorer. Among the interesting topics fully discussed are the religion of Zoroaster and its sacred book, the "Zendavesta," in its connection with the earliest phase of Aryan religious belief, as preserved in the Sanscrit Vedas, the extent and remains of ancient Babylon, the progress in astronomical science of its inhabitants, for which they were celebrated by all the nations of antiquity, etc. Not the least valuable portion of Prof. Rawlinson's book is its richness in illustration, the three volumes containing nearly six hundred drawings of Assyrian, Chaldean, and Babylonian antiquities. The fourth and concluding volume will comprise the ancient empire of Persia, and complete the survey of Eastern dominion ere the sceptre passed to European hands.

—In the absence of stirring literary news at home, the French papers abound in gossip respecting the illustrious exile, Victor Hugo, who is now made the theme of more *canards* than any writer since Lord Byron. He is said to have received from his Brussels publishers a sum equal to 150,000 francs for the forthcoming book, "Les Travailleurs de la Mer;" and for a series of volumes of poems, "Les Chansons des Rues et des Bois," the first of which was lately published, 40,000 francs per volume for twelve years' right of publication. The Brussels edition of this first volume consisted of three thousand copies, and that printed under the same copyright for the Paris market of ten thousand. As his gains by "Les Misérables" are said to amount to nearly half a million of francs, the sum total of his receipts reaches a very respectable "figure." His literary activity keeps pace with the public eagerness, and a new book by Victor Hugo, the incidents of which are laid in England, to appear simultaneously in French and English editions, has already been secured by an eminent London publishing firm. "Les Travailleurs de la Mer" will be issued in an American translation by Mr. Carleton, the publisher of "Les Misérables."

—The relics of pre-historic races so abundantly found in Central France, and famous for the information they afford respecting a fauna and a human population formerly existing in that region under conditions that mark a very early stage in man's history on the earth, are about to receive due illustration in a work devoted to the subject. It is entitled "Reliquiæ Aquitanicæ, being Contributions to the Archæology and Palæontology of Perigord and the adjoining Provinces of Central France, by Edward Lartet and Henry Christy." It will contain numerous well-executed plates of the weapons, tools, and ornamental work in stone, bone, and horn of the prehistoric cave-dwellers of Perigord, also of the osseous remains of contemporaneous animals. The work will form about twenty parts in quarto, each containing six plates and letter-press. Another important ethnological work may be mentioned as relating to a different branch of the same class of enquiries, "The Oriental Races and Tribes Resident and Visitors of Bombay," a series of photographs with letter-press descriptions by William Johnson, of the Bombay Civil Service. It is magnificently issued in folio, at five guineas per volume.

—Though scarcely a purely literary topic, yet, as connected with books and interesting to a large class, a brief mention may appropriately be made here of the new system of reporting the legal decisions of the English courts, adopted with the sanction of a council of the most distinguished members of the profession, headed by the Attorney-General, Sir Roundell Palmer. The evil attempted to be remedied is one of long continuance and growing inconvenience. The number, expense, unofficial character, and imperfections of the rapidly increasing series of legal reports which every lawyer must keep up with, has been an acknowledged grievance for more than a hundred years past, and the principle of unchecked competition rather increased the mischief. At the present time there are fourteen distinct sets of reports in progress of the various courts, costing about £30 per annum, and produced without any uniformity of principle. The gentlemen connected with eleven of these series have accepted appointments under the council, who undertake to issue a complete and carefully prepared set of reports by the most able and experienced reporters, under independent professional control, published with expedition, regularity, and uniformity, at the moderate price of five guineas per annum. The details of the plan are given in the announcement of the council, and appear to be well considered and adapted to the wants of the legal profession. The reports will be issued in three divisions: I., the Appellate; II., the Common Law; and III., the Equity series, either of which may be separately subscribed for. They will be issued in monthly parts, and will include copies of the statutes of each session relating to the law that are important to practitioners. A weekly publication, called *The Weekly Notes*, will be continued during the sitting of the courts. They will consist of short notes of the decisions in the several courts in each week, and will include points of practice. They are intended for information to the profession as to the current decisions, and not for citation as authority.

—To all persons of confirmed literary taste catalogues of books are pleasant reading, both from the facts that they convey and the associations suggested by the articles which they contain. Turning over some of the late lists of the London old-book sellers, it is amusing to note the curious articles on sale, and the money value of each, determined, of course, by the practical rule of supply and demand, and often with results seemingly incongruous if judged by any more refined standard. Thus, a relic that would be worthy of a place in the most select library—an edition of the Greek poet, Lycophron (Geneva, 1601), "rendered famous by having been once the property of the immortal Milton, who has inscribed on the fly-leaf, Sum ex Libris, Jo Miltoni, 1634, and has also added a considerable number of notes on the margin," is valued at the not immoderate sum of £52 10s. by its possessor, Mr. Ellis, of King Street, Covent Garden. The same enterprising dealer has a copy of the much-coveted "First Folio Shakespeare" (1623), apparently above all price, as none is mentioned. It is described as "one of the finest copies extant, not excepting that of Miss Burdett Coutts, which cost her £787, and in one respect the most desirable copy known, being the only one existing in old morocco binding of the commencement of the last century. It is preserved in a case made from the wood of Herne's oak, in Windsor Park, carved with the poet's arms and monogram." Another dealer offers a volume, "Gesneris Mithridates" (1555), "with two lines autograph and signature on the title, su. Ben Jonson, and remarkable passages underlined by the dramatist," for £3 13s. 6d., and a presentation copy of Burke's "Reflections on the Revolution in France" (1790), with the autograph inscription, "From the author, with great respect, to Miss Goring, E.B.," for £1 6s. Coming down to later times, we see in another catalogue a volume of original manuscripts of the late Thomas Hood, "a most interesting collection, entirely in the handwriting of the eminent poet and humorist, containing a variety of his published and unpublished writings, all in the finest preservation, mounted and inscribed with great care and nicety in a royal folio volume," valued at £26 5s., and a French work, "Costumes Françaises—Civils, Militaires, et Religieux," "formerly in the possession of

W. M. Thackeray, and containing original designs by him, presenting all the vivid life and character so peculiar to his pencil," estimated at £12 12s. These specimens are enough to prove that if relics of saints are at a discount, the current prices of relics of literature show no symptoms of a falling market.

—Mr. Frank Buckland, the worthy son of an eminent father, Dean Buckland, the great geologist, has in press a third series of his "Curiosities of Natural History," in two volumes post octavo, with illustrations, to be published by Mr. Bentley. Mr. Buckland's exertions for the promotion of pisciculture and the increased production of fish have won him the friendship of all lovers of the angle. It may interest many of them to know that he will shortly appear as editor of a new magazine to be called "Land and Water," dealing with the various sports of field and foam. With this magazine will be incorporated "The Fisherman," a monthly periodical conducted by Mr. Cholmondeley Pennel, so as to make it the organ of all devotees of the gentle sport.

CHASTELARD.*

"CHASTELARD" is not destined, in our judgment, to add to the reputation of the author of "Atalanta in Calydon." It has been said—we know not on what authority—that it is an early production, which the author was encouraged to publish by the success of the latter work. On perusal, this rumor becomes easily credible. "Chastelard" bears many signs of immaturity. The subject, indeed, is one which a man might select at any age; but the treatment of it, as it seems to us, is that of a man still young. The subject is one of the numerous flirtations of Queen Mary of Scotland, which makes, like so many of the rest, a very good theme for a tragedy. A drama involving this remarkable woman has, by the fact of her presence alone, a strong chance of success. The play or the novel is half made by the simple use of her name. Her figure has been repeatedly used, and it is likely it will continue to be used for a long time to come; for it adapts itself to the most diverse modes of treatment. In poetry, after all, the great point is that the objects of our interest should be romantic, and from every possible point of view Queen Mary answers this requisite, whether we accept her as a very conscientious or as a very profligate woman; as a martyr or simply as a criminal. For the fact remains that she was supremely unhappy; and when to this fact we add the consideration that she was in person supremely lovely, that she embodied, if not all the virtues, at least all the charms, of her sex, we shall not be at loss to understand the ready application of her history to purposes of sentiment. And yet, whoever takes her in hand is held to a certain deliberate view of her character—the poet quite as much as the historian. Upon the historian, indeed, a certain conception is imposed by his strict responsibility to facts; but the poet, to whom a great license is usually allowed in the way of modifying facts, is free to take pretty much the view that pleases him best. We repeat, however, that upon some one conception he is bound to take his stand, and to occupy it to the last. Now, the immaturity of Mr. Swinburne's work lies, if we are not mistaken, in his failure to make very clear to himself what he thought about his heroine. That he had thought a great deal about her, we assuredly do not doubt; but he had failed to think to the purpose. He had apparently given up all his imagination to his subject; and, in so doing, had done well; but it seems to us that in this process his subject had the best of the bargain; it gave him very little in return.

Mr. Swinburne has printed at the beginning of his play a short passage from that credulous old voyager, Sir John Mandeville, wherein he speaks of a certain isle toward the north, peopled by beautiful and evil women with eyes of precious stones, which, when they behold any man, forthwith slay him with the beholding. The author's intention, then, has been to indicate a certain poetic analogy between these fatal syrens and his heroine. The idea is pretty; the reader makes the *rapprochement* and proceeds; but when, as he advances in his reading, it dawns upon him that it is upon this idea, as much as upon any other appreciable one, that the tragedy rests, he experiences a feeling of disappointment which, we are bound to say, accompanies him to the end. He recurs to the title-page and finds another epigraph, from Ronsard, which the author has very prettily translated in the body of the play;

> "With coming lilies in late April came
> Her body, fashioned whiter for their shame;
> And roses, touched with blood since Adam bled,
> From her fair color filled their lips with red."

The reader's growing disappointment comes from his growing sense of the incompetency of any idea corresponding at all exclusively with these poetic fancies to serve as the leading idea of the work. Out of this disappointment, indeed, there comes a certain quiet satisfaction; the satisfaction, namely, of witnessing the downfall of a structure reared on an unsound basis. Mr. Swinburne, following the fashion of the day, has endeavored throughout his work to substitute color for design. His failure is, to the reader's mind, an homage to truth. Let us assuredly not proscribe color; but let us first prepare something to receive it. A dramatic work without design is a monstrosity. We may rudely convey our impression of the radical weakness of "Chastelard" by saying that it has no backbone. The prose of the poetry just referred to—that salutary prose which, if we mistake not, intervenes between poetic thought and poetic expression—is that Mary was superlatively fascinating to the sense and superlatively heartless. To say, in poetry, that a woman slays a man with her jewelled eyes, is to mean in prose that she causes every man to love her passionately, and that she deceives every man who does love her. As a woman of this quality, if we fully disengage his idea, Mr. Swinburne accepts Queen Mary—in other words, as a coquette on the heroic scale. But we repeat that this idea, as he handles it, will not carry his play. His understanding of Mary's *moyens* begins and ends with his very lively appreciation of the graces of her body. It is very easy to believe that these were infinite; it was, indeed, in Mr. Swinburne's power to make us know absolutely that they were. It were an impertinence to remind him how Shakespeare makes us know such things. Shakespeare's word carries weight; he speaks with authority. The plot of Mr. Swinburne's play, if plot it may be called, is the history of the brief passion aroused by Mary in the breast of the French adventurer who gives his name to the work. He has followed her to Scotland and keeps himself under her eye; she encourages his devotion, but, meanwhile, marries Darnley. On the night of her marriage he makes his way into her presence, and she makes him half welcome. Thus discovered, however, in the *penetralia* of the palace, he is arrested and cast into prison. Death is the inevitable result of his presumption. Mary, however, by a bold exercise of her prerogative, pardons him and sends him an order of release, which, instead of using, he destroys. Mary then visits him just before his execution, and, in a scene which appears to us an equal compound of radical feebleness and superficial cleverness, finds him resolved to die. The reader assists at his death through the time-honored expedient of a spectator at a window describing the scene without to a faint-hearted companion within. The play ends with these pregnant lines:

> "Make way there for the lord of Bothwell; room—
> Place for my lord of Bothwell next the Queen."

There is, moreover, a slight under-plot, resting upon the unrequited passion of Mary Beaton, the queen's woman, for Chastelard, and upon her suppressed jealousy of her mistress. There is assuredly in all this the stuff of a truly dramatic work; but as the case stands, it appears to us that the dramatic element is flagrantly missed. We can hardly doubt, indeed, that there was an intention in the faint and indefinite lines in which all the figures but that of the Queen are drawn. There is every reason to suppose that Mr. Swinburne had advisedly restricted himself to the complete and consistent exhibition of her character alone. Darnley, Murray, and the four Marys are merely the respective signs of a certain number of convenient speeches. Chastelard, too, is practically a forfeit, or, rather, he and Mary are but one. The only way, in our judgment, to force home upon the reader the requisite sense of Mary's magical personal influence was to initiate him thoroughly into its effects upon Chastelard's feelings. This, we repeat, Mr. Swinburne has not even attempted to do. Chastelard descants in twenty different passages of very florid and eloquent verse upon the intoxicating beauties of his mistress; but meanwhile the play stands still. Chastelard is ready to damn himself for Mary's love, and this fact, dramatically so great, makes shift to reflect itself in a dozen of those desperately descriptive speeches in which the poetry of the day delights. Chastelard is in love, the author may argue, and a lover is at best a highly imaginative rhapsodist. Nay, a lover is at the worst a man, and a man of many feelings. We should be very sorry to be understood as wishing to suppress such talk as Chastelard's. On the contrary, we should say—let him talk as much as he pleases, and let him deal out poetry by the handful, the more the better. But meanwhile let not the play languish, let not the story halt. As for Mary, towards whom the reader is to conceive Mr. Swinburne as having assumed serious responsibilities, we may safely say that he has left her untouched. He has consigned her neither to life nor to death. The light of her great name illumines his page, and here and there the imagination of the cultivated reader throbs responsive to an awakened echo of his own previous reading. If Mr. Swinburne has failed to vivify his persons, however, if he has failed to express his subject, he has at least done what the unsuccessful artist so often turns out to have done: he has in a very lively man-

* "Chastelard. A Tragedy. By Algernon Charles Swinburne." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866.

ner expressed *himself*. "Atalanta in Calydon" proved that he was a poet; his present work indicates that his poetic temperament is of a very vigorous order. It indicates, moreover, that it is comparatively easy to write energetic poetry, but that it is very difficult to write a good play.

THE FATHER OF THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.*

In furnishing these three fair and admirably wrought volumes as a biography of his kinsman, Mr. Wells has rendered a high service to truth, and has established claims too well-grounded ever to be questioned, in behalf of a man of the loftiest make and of the amplest usefulness to stand henceforward first on the roll of honor as the father of the American Revolution. We have not a single abatement on the score of criticism by which to reduce our gratitude to Mr. Wells for a grateful and needed public service. There can be no question that until Mr. Bancroft, even in his enthusiastic representation of the character and work of Samuel Adams keeping within the limits of sober truth, had informed readers of this generation what a conspicuous part he had so nobly performed, that wise patriot and high-souled man had failed of his just meed of fame. The felicity of Mr. Wells's opportunity, and equally so of the mode in which he has improved it, lies in this fact, that the means existed for securing late justice to Samuel Adams, without any ingenuity of special pleading, any contesting by argument or detraction of the claims and services of other men. There certainly is in the tone and reasoning of the biographer a spirit of assertion and vindication, but it is a most honest and manly spirit of standing for the truth of history. And his arguments are facts. They are presented with calm dignity and with a beautiful candor. He need fear no contestant. With the manifold and cumulative evidence left in the wreck of a once immense amount of original documents, he had in his hands, or was able to gather from a wide distribution among autograph collectors, the means for the most successful accomplishment of the task he had undertaken.

We confess, ourselves, that with such information as we had drawn from our common historical and biographical literature, we had not only failed to appreciate the character and services of Samuel Adams, but had almost taken up the shadow of a prejudice against him. True, one may quote from his contemporaries, as Mr. Wells has done, generous encomiums and specific tributes of homage and gratitude bestowed by them upon him. But some of these are qualified and balanced by drawbacks. His own kinsman, John Adams, has written in his diary and letters sentences of noble eulogy about him, and might even be regarded, on the strength of these utterances, if they stood alone, as asserting for the elder patriot the full preeminence which he will henceforward enjoy. But he, too, is sometimes unappreciative if not niggardly in his praise, and, from some unexplained cause of alienation, failed to sustain his wise and fostering friend when he was the victim of a temporary and not deserved unpopularity. As a general statement, it must now be affirmed that up to the publication of these volumes that elder patriot did not stand on the record, nor in the hearts of his living countrymen, as the chief representative and most able and devoted pioneer and agent of the cause of American independence. To that lofty honor he is entitled.

It suited the ends of the abettors and minions of arbitrary power in the interest of the British ministry, and, we are sorry to have to add, it favored the calculating and timid policy of some of Adams's colleagues in the first two Continental Congresses, to represent him as a scheming and self-seeking demagogue. His poverty, it was said, secured him from the risk of any personal sacrifice, and his rigid Puritanism was but the mask of an unscrupulous and hard hypocrisy.

The circumstances of the times, and the method by which Samuel Adams prepared and trained the minds of the people, particularly through caucuses, town-meetings, speeches, and a skilful use of his pen in newspapers, for slowly maturing results which he foresaw and they did not, made it very easy to affix upon him the character of a demagogue as his repute among strangers, especially for the ministerial party in England. And the character of a real demagogue is as odious to us now, in this republic, as it was then to the king and ministry. It has taken exactly a complete century to draw out the full difference for our apprehension between what Samuel Adams really was and what his enemies represented him as being. What New Englander of mature years but can call up before him the image of a village politician, a party manager, a lobby waiter, or a Congressional log-roller filling out the fullest reality of the demagogue? To men in authority, especially with lucre, conceit, and patronage as its concomitants, Adams seemed to exhibit some of the phenomena of that hateful character, and their prejudices or fears supplied the rest. They knew of him as neglecting all thrifty business; as poor and, indeed, insolvent; as seeming even to neglect his family; and as always on hand as manager and adviser in mischievous machinations; as hanging round ship-yards, and loitering with mechanics, and forming clubs, and distributing inflammatory documents; and then appearing in a sham humility and unobtrusiveness on public occasions, as if to engage in an unprejudiced discussion of matters, a decision on which he had cunningly anticipated by a sly indoctrination of his tools and fellow-demagogues. So Adams seemed to Hutchinson—perhaps even to men better than Hutchinson, and certainly so to some who were much worse than he. Indeed, the wisest and shrewdest contemporary of the noble patriot would hardly have risked a wager upon the likelihood of his coming at last to a halter or to a bronze statue. It is not strange, when all the facts of the case are considered, that the shadow of the obloquy and the hate which the enemies of Adams so sneeringly vented against him during the ten years preceding the Declaration of Independence, should have, in a measure, clung to him ever since. He was always poor. He did neglect worldly thrift. He was sagacious and cautious and temporizing in a way to suggest the possibility of slyness. He could keep the secrets of two sets of enemies from each other, and so, on occasion, to those who did not know the rigor of his virtue, he was an object of their common distrust.

We can but briefly and imperfectly sketch the real man, and we attempt it for the same reason for which we have written the preceding paragraphs, viz., to make our readers, especially young men, sharers in the tribute of gratitude which we owe to Mr. Wells for his laborious and almost faultless work, and, through the means afforded in its pages, sharers in the venerating regard due to its great subject.

Samuel Adams passed through his eminent and useful career with unsullied integrity, with unselfish devotion to others, incorruptible by bribes and flatteries, by which he might easily have won a fortune and a noble title. He was a Christian man of the highest type; devout, God-fearing, scrupulous, consistent; and softening down the Puritan style of his piety only to reduce the old rigidness and obtrusiveness and intolerance once associated with it, without abating from its penetrating thoroughness of sincerity in heart and life. He was simple in manners and mien, and frugal, as both necessity and principle induced him to be, in household economy. He was a most faithful and endeared father, husband, and friend. He was richly furnished with inward resources of conviction, patience, forbearance, self-mastery, and skill in reading and dealing with humanity. Often had he to draw on these resources for his own guidance and comfort alike amid friends and foes.

His lineage, like that of Franklin, was drawn through a parentage of the good old Massachusetts and Boston stock of thrifty but frugal households, of humble and self-supporting men and women. He was born in Boston September 16 (O. S.), 1722, and graduated at Harvard in 1740. On taking his master's degree, three years afterwards, he maintained the right of popular resistance to arbitrary rule, a thesis the practical demonstration of which was to be the endeavor and the full accomplishment of his life. Turning away from the study of law which he had begun, he entered his father's counting-room as his assistant. That father's business was brewing. Embarrassments of various kinds prevented that parent's success in trade, but he sustained an honored position in the community, and was one of the representatives of Boston in the General Court. The son was active in forming a political club and in the establishment of a newspaper for political discussion. The year of the Stamp Act, 1765, just a century ago, marks the commencement of his real work, for which all before had been wise and effective preparation. He was just at the right age at the crisis when a mind and character like his were needed to lay wisely and to conduct vigorously measures which looked far on into years for their full fruitage, and required the most cautious and temperate dealing, lest the grand result to be aimed for should be perilled.

With a most practical insight into the tendency and the irresistible consummation of the measures instituted by the British ministry, through the counsels of Bernard and Hutchinson, to bring the Colonies under a thraldom to Parliament which would be undistinguishable from absolute servitude, he followed the progressive encroachments step by step, and educated his townsmen first, then the people of his own province, and, finally, the people of the twelve other provinces, to prepare for resistance. It was an irritating truth, which he expressed in homely terseness of phrase, that from the first date of their recognition as being in existence, "England had rather milked than suckled her American colonies." In none of our histori-

* "The Life and Public Services of Samuel Adams. Being a Narrative of his Acts and Opinions, and of his Agency in producing and forwarding the American Revolution. With Extracts from his Correspondence, State Papers, and Political Essays. By William V. Wells." Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1865. 3 vols.

cal volumes so graphically as in these before us does the fatuity of the course pursued by the mother country present itself to the reader, and this effect is wrought by the progressive development of the controversy as pursued stage by stage in the admirably written papers of exposure, protest, and remonstrance by Samuel Adams. He appears to have been a diligent reader and an intelligent digester of the works on constitutional law which were then accessible. He rarely adorned his pieces with rhetorical art, but he always crowded them with sagacious and practical matter level to the comprehension of the common people.

The quality of the man is most strikingly displayed when we consider the sort of service to be done in his generation, the sort of influence to be exerted and extended over an ever-widening space of population and territory, and his marvellous adaptation to the emergency of time and work. Each of the most effective measures and plans, beginning ten years back from their culmination in the Declaration of Independence at Philadelphia, was initiated by him. He was the inventor and deviser of them all, without a single exception. The evidence of this exalted claim, as rightfully maintained for him, is spread over these volumes and presented with generous zeal and a cogent force by Mr. Wells. Looking back along the line through which the historical development advanced, we discern one by one the links of the chain of events; we see how patiently they were wrought, how thoroughly they were welded, how firmly they were united. With a calm and resolute self-possession and an absolute "mastery of the situation," did this noble and far-sighted patriot keep his gaze upon the future and do heroically and wisely the exacting duty of each passing hour. He deliberated cautiously over each step and effort. His moderation was never surprised into haste, or even into ardor, through impatience or heated zeal. In no single instance through the weary and intricate controversy can we find a token of rashness, or judge that he went too fast or too far. His shrewd maxim was, always to keep his opponents in the wrong. And from time to time, at intervals just long enough to apply the test of trial, he compelled them to confess that they had been wrong, either by their own retraction or by facing the mischievous results of their obstinacy. He educated his own fellow-citizens, and even many leading men over the whole country, to contemplate the inevitable necessity of war if they would avert subjugation. And he wrought this critical process without hurrying them or frightening them by his over-activity or by any passionate recklessness. He sought out young, earnest, enthusiastic, and yet trustworthy associates; he won their confidence, he engaged their co-operation, and he inspired and guided them. He guarded carefully against internal treachery, leaky confidants, and plausible compromisers. Modest and unobtrusive, indifferent to public honors, hating display, he always yielded the precedence to others whose aims were the same as his, and he allowed tributes and honors which were most fairly his own to be attached, without protest or challenge by himself, to less scrupulous claimants. He was indubitably the first man in America to foresee, and the first in the privacy of his own conviction to believe, that the issue would come to open war; and that if the people were faithful to themselves the opportunity would be offered to them of constituting themselves the most privileged and prospered nationality on this earth. But he kept this vision to himself till others reached his own point of view. The grand and exacting aim which tried his sagacity and in which his consummate genius fully triumphed, was to feel after till he found, and then with delicate care to strengthen, a bond of sympathetic union between the people of all the colonies, which, when they themselves recognized it, would bring them into co-operation, would combine them in resistance and harmonize their measures and plans. This delicate task was to be done among people previously divided by alienation and feuds, on which the British ministry largely relied to prevent the great accomplishment on which Samuel Adams had resolved. His large correspondence at home and abroad, of which we have but fragments, and his newspaper articles and the public documents from his brain and pen, are proud memorials of his unrivalled and single devotedness and of his successful championship of a triumphant cause.

We commend the volumes before us to our young men, and to their parents. They will pledge their readers to patriotism and virtue.

WHEELER'S DICTIONARY OF THE NOTED NAMES OF FICTION.*

The shadowy "beings of the mind" are by no means, indeed, the most unreal of things. In truth, in several respects they are the most real of all. They are certainly apt to be *realized* to the mental apprehension with a no less vividness, intensity, and distinctness than belong to things in the world of fact. What does it matter to the inmates of the nursery whether or not Jack the Giant Killer ever had actual existence? And just so is it in after years with our Robinson Crusoe, our Hamlet and Macbeth, our Jeanie Deans and Captain Dalgetty. Then, as forces in the intellectual, moral, and social world, their potency and sway are not inferior. As regards durability and permanence, the products of the imagination have greatly the advantage. How often in these days are we called upon to abandon and wholly reverse our most firmly established and previously unquestioned ideas of historical personages and events? Our fondly cherished idols are rudely broken down or transformed to vileness, or some hideous monster in our previous estimation is presented for our reverent worship or loving embrace, unless, perchance, conflicting theories, equally well-supported, leave us nothing whatever to which we can hold.

The character and story of Henry VIII. may undergo the most surprising metamorphoses—changes so striking that we shall with difficulty know the new personage under the old name—but the Blue Beard of the nursery tale is quite beyond the reach of disturbing critics. Much more is it true that, in the realm of fiction, so-called, a thing of beauty is, literally, a joy *for ever*. Then, as giving the real truth of things in actual life, the characters in fiction which genius brings forth as types of distinctly marked classes, and as the presentment in strong relief of peculiar traits and phases of humanity, have a special value which does not always attach to historical personages, and especially to the imperfect and erroneous record of them which is all we can ever hope to have.

Now, we have long had what the Germans call *real*-encyclopædias, with dictionaries of biography, cyclopædias of agriculture, and what not; but Mr. Wheeler's is the very first attempt at a dictionary of fiction. The idea was a happy one, and what now strikes everybody with wonder is that it was never conceived and carried out before; but the wonder ceases in a good measure when we consider the difficulty of the task. It was a fortunate thing for the undertaking that it should fall into so good hands. Dictionary-making has been Mr. Wheeler's occupation for some years in connection with the works of Worcester and Webster; and his habits of diligence and thoroughness, with his good taste and scholarly culture and acquirements, have exceedingly well fitted him for this work of his own origination. But he has not labored in the execution of it without assistance. He has industriously sought and largely received contributions from literary friends, and from some whose pursuits eminently qualified them to render such assistance.

The vocabulary, of the same general description, included in the appendix to the late edition of "Webster's Dictionary," is the basis of this volume. This contains, however, nearly seventeen hundred new articles, and more than a thousand new and apt citations, besides the addition of certain peculiar features which materially enhance its value. The work is limited to proper names, but includes within its scope not merely the heroes of classical poetry and prose romance, but those which figure in the old legends and ballads as well as in the popular mythologies and superstitions. To hunt up these, as the author has done, and to give us what is to be ascertained of their origin, must have been no light labor. The book will be found, we think, on full trial to be more nearly complete in its comprehensiveness, and far nearer to perfect accuracy in detail, than could have been anticipated in regard to a first work of the kind.

Literature is full of allusions such as this book aims to explain, and of which the larger part are but half understood by ordinary readers, while the best-read and best-informed will often have occasion to welcome the assistance here offered. In fact, now it is furnished, the volume must be reckoned an indispensable hand-book for all who read at all. How often, indeed, do writers and speakers themselves employ a stereotyped allusion, as, for instance, to the purse of Fortunatus, without actually knowing what it means! And who can afford to stumble on year after year, hearing or reading such things with but a faint comprehension of their meaning and force, now that the means of accurate information are made ready to his hand? What was the "Minerva Press;" who "the veritable Jenkins;" who was "Old King Cole;" who were the "two Kings of Brentford;" who the "Cambuscan bold;" who and what the "Vicar of Bray?" What do we mean when we speak of ranting "in King Cambyses' vein;" of "outdoing Termagant," "out-heroding Herod," "dining with Duke Humphrey," and the like? Such allusions had once all the freshness and life of such as are now made to things rife and passing; but, as handed down, they inevitably get worn, faded, and comparatively empty, and sometimes are a *vox et præterea nihil*. If we keep them in use, we want the means of reviving as well as we can their freshness; at any rate, we want to understand those who used them in their original newness.

* "An Explanatory and Pronouncing Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction; including also familiar Pseudonyms, Surnames bestowed on Eminent Men, and analogous Popular Appellations often referred to in Literature and Conversation. By William A. Wheeler." Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1865. 12mo, pp. xxxii., 410.

A very valuable feature of the work is that which concerns the orthoëpy of the names. The author has been at great pains to determine the proper pronunciation, and employs a scheme of notation well fitted for his purpose; he has also a few pages of explanations on some of the nicer points of English pronunciation, but more especially on peculiarities of languages foreign to the English; indeed, we know not where else is to be found so complete and succinct a view of the phonological peculiarities of the leading languages of Europe. Perfect agreement upon nice points in phonetics is a hopeless thing; but we think the manner in which this part of the work is done will give general satisfaction to intelligent phonetists; and it will not be deemed a superfluity by any who value accuracy in pronunciation. Even those who will not care to employ the Spanish pronunciation of Don Quixote or Don Juan will like to be informed what it is; and for those foreign words which no well-bred person would ever think of uttering in any other than their proper national fashions, the author's guidance may be safely followed. His long familiarity with this subject, and his habit of doing nothing by halves, have made him very thorough in this matter.

We must not pass without mention the supplementary index of real names with pseudonyms attached, nor omit the word of especial commendation which the book deserves as a rare specimen of accurate typography.

POEMS BY DAVID GRAY.*

Since Lord Houghton published the "Life and Letters of John Keats," and revealed the ardent growth of that young poet's genius in all its pathos and sorrow, a peculiar tenderness has been felt toward all young aspirants for literary fame, and the result is that many men have printed verses who had only poetic feeling, which they mistook for poetic power. They were ambitious young men who struggled up from narrow circumstances with the brave purpose of making the world listen to them. Such was Ebenezer Elliott, the corn-law rhymer; such are Alexander Smith, Philip James Bailey, and Sydney Dobell; and such was David Gray. The essential characteristic of these men is always a strongly subjective and undisciplined power. But though feeling is a prime condition in a poet, and the highest poetry will reveal clearly the poet's soul (as Wordsworth's, for example), there is far more than this necessary to the making of a Tennyson or a Browning. It requires much discipline in the merely mechanical work of verse-making, a wide range of general knowledge, accurate observation of nature, something of Shakespeare's insight into men, and, finally, the conscious reticence of power, to make a great poet; and when judged by any such standard, all these poets fall miserably below it.

In David Gray's case it may be cruel to apply the scalpel, but, after reading this volume through carefully, we can assign it almost no place in poetical literature. His poetry has all the faults of what has been aptly called the spasmodic school. "The Luggie," his longest poem, celebrates the beauties of the little stream by which he lived and died, but it had no adequate revision, and many of its lines halt in measure or are disfigured by words which convey more sound than sense and are not poetical. Such are "*dilucid* air," "being *undeflowered*," "the *saponaceous* loam," "fair *delapsion*," and "the *sarcenent* mists." Then, further, there is nothing completed. We have looked through "The Luggie" in vain for a single picture, such as you often find in Keats and Shelley, which we could quote. There are none. He labors and strains for language, as Keats sometimes does, and this makes the poetry harsh and unmusical. This poem is in the vein of Thomson's "Seasons," and what Gray wrote, "When I read Thomson I despair," is precisely our feeling on comparing the two poets. We despair of Gray. His "Luggie" is not nearly so good poetry as the "New England Seasons," which Percival wrote at sixteen and which his friends have thought not worth publishing.

The other poems in the volume are a series of sonnets, "In the Shadows," which are chiefly personal, written when disease lay heavy upon him, "Poems Named and Without Names," and "Miscellaneous Sonnets;" but their only value is their promise. He writes most naturally about the simple pleasures and associations of his childhood, as in "The Luggie," though the sonnets show greater accuracy in versification and more poetic power.

But the story of his life as the record of manly endeavor has far more value than his poetry. He was born on the 29th of January, 1838, on the banks of the Luggie, about eight miles distant from the city of Glasgow, the son of a Scotch hand-loom weaver. He was a self-educated lad, and was intended for the ministry in the Free Church of Scotland. Early in life he found delight in poetry, and "devoured the poets, from Chaucer to Tennyson." These awakened in him a poetical ambition, which first shone out in the Glasgow *Citizen*, a paper which was the first to herald that late Scotch luminary, Alexander Smith. Then he took fresh courage and ventured a literary life in London, where he met with kind favor at the hands of Lord Houghton, but was soon stricken down by incipient consumption, and died a year later, December 3, 1861, at his home in Merkland, the day following his sight of a specimen-sheet of his Luggie. He passed away tranquilly, almost his last words being, "God has love and I have faith." It is the story of his struggle to be heard—from his quiet cottage home up through London mendicancy to the recognition by literary men—pathetic and tragic, that imparts interest and value to the book. Few young men ever had kinder words spoken of them after death than David Gray. First, there is a carefully written introductory notice by Lord Houghton; next, a memoir by James Hedderwick, himself one of the minor Scottish poets; and, lastly, final memorials, charmingly written by Robert Buchanan, whose "Poet Andrew," in the "Idyls and Legends of Inverburn," is the poetical rendering of young Gray's life. These two were sworn friends, but Buchanan has the brighter genius and promises much for Scotch poetry. In closing this notice we think instinctively of the late George Arnold, a poet of much higher rank than Gray, but who was stricken down, like him, in all his young promise. Aside from the poetical value of this book, which is so slight, it would be well if the legion of young literary aspirants about us would read both the memoirs and the poems. They would learn that there are higher things in life than the writing of poetry or posthumous fame; and the sad story of Gray's life would cure many of scribbling verses.

* "Poems by David Gray. With Memoirs of his Life." 16mo, pp. 239. Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1865.

TWO BOOKS TOO MANY.*

Mr. Calvert won a little note, some years ago, by his essay on "The Gentleman," which is now reprinted in a third edition, and the fact that he did win this note by so slight an effort is an encouraging proof that it is exceedingly easy to achieve renown in this country. We seem to have, as a generation, a great kindness for the essayists, and we do singular reverence to the bent brows of meditation. If the reader will recall the names of those writers on whom we have bestowed a few months' immortality during the last five or six years, he will be surprised to find how great a number of them are the authors of essays, or reflections, or kindred productions, blending moral instruction with milky criticism and watery speculation. Whether modern conditions are not favorable to creative efforts in literature, or whether we really like speculation best, we do not know, but it is certain that we are all given frightfully to comment.

Mr. Calvert's book is no worse than many others of its kind, except that it is very turgid and boyish, at times, in style. One comes upon such words as *teemful*, and *upstretching*, and *pre-resolved*, in English ambitious, certainly, but not otherwise very bad. The great fault of the book is, however, the generic fault of the class of literature to which it belongs. In some hundred and fifty pages of disquisition one learns nothing original or new concerning gentlemen. Does it surprise us to be told that gentlemanliness, in the good sense, is, with rare exceptions, a Christian virtue? We know very well that gentlemen are not rapacious, nor ostentatious, nor ungenerous, nor sensual, nor cruel, nor, in fine, vulgar; and we know that Lord Chesterfield's theories of politeness are not those of a gentleman. We know that Don Quixote, and Sir Philip Sidney, and Socrates were gentlemen, and that Bayard was as much a gentleman as a Frenchman of his time could be. Mr. Calvert has very little else to tell us, though he says these things in a vastly greater number of words. His scenes are old, his instances not modern, and there is such labor visible in the application of his anecdotes and axioms as discourages the reader from ever thinking on the subject himself. One of the concluding passages of the book is the following, from which much of the manner and material of the book may be known:

> "Every gentleman will not always be above selfishness, and, from their aggregate qualifications, men may bear unchallenged the choice appellation, who will at times use their opportunities for their own advantage. But a gentleman will be negatively rather than positively selfish. He may dine oftener than one with disinterested digestion would on capon and Burgundy; but he will not rob a hen-roost."

"The Gentleman," for the reasons given, seems to us a superfluous book; but as for Mr. Calvert's volume of poems, it is worse than useless, for bad verse is one of the worst things in the world. We may forgive a man for an idle essay, but human nature resents a poetic failure as an aggression. We shall not, however, have any criticisms to make on Mr. Calvert's book of poems, but shall suffer it to pronounce its own condemnation. It contains, first, a number of lyrics in celebration of a child called "Anyta," then brief poems

* "Anyta and Other Poems. By George H. Calvert." Boston: E. P. Dutton & Co.; New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866.
"The Gentleman. By George H. Calvert." Boston: E. P. Dutton & Co.; New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866.

on miscellaneous subjects, and then a series of sonnets addressed to the great men of all ages. "Anyta" is metaphysical and rhapsodical, and each thought or feeling is supposed to complete itself in a single impulse of song, as in "In Memoriam."

"Mysterious child!
In thee uppiled
Are treasuries of love and beauty,"

cries the poet to the being of his song. She is "lusty Freedom's brave child," and her "dear motions all swing to a rhythm such as angel-ears quaff." She is "a myth entrapped in flesh from its antique cloudy land, delighting in the sudden mesh spun by beauty's lightsome hand." On summer days her face has "a pensive opal blaze," and she is told:

"The Sun his children doth embrace,
In flame his arm they feel:
Through love it is he rolls through space
Each ordered orbit's wheel.

"From several suns the fervor warms
Thy new coruscant path,
And burns with love the hydra-harms
That multiply with wrath.

"But not a beam from us outstarts
To beck thee on thy way,
But it returns upon our hearts
To bless us with its day,—

"A day elate with love's own light,
Illumination pure—
A spark seraphic, kindled white
By inward sufflature."

The miscellaneous poems are as strange in their way as "Anyta." If any one but Mr. Calvert had written the following, would he not have been supposed to be joking?

"From sleepless nature, myriad-faced,
Upglimmers such a sea of eyes,
My brain, with sibyl-lights belaced,
Illumined wills it will be wise.

"And thought is chafed by orphic hints,
The common glistens weird and strange,
And melt the firmest forms and tints
In mystic sequences of change.

"And all about are sights and sounds
That suckle rapture, since began
Creation's radiant rhythmic rounds
Through rose and beetle up to man."

About all this we have nothing to say, except that we have not chosen the worst nor the best things out of Mr. Calvert's poems.

The North American Review. January, 1866. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields.)—Those who note the absence of a leading literary article from this number of "The North American," cannot fail at the same time to be struck by the variety of other topics discussed. The first paper is on "The Conditions of Art in America," and the reviewer argues that we have not yet great art because feeling has been wanting in the people, knowledge in the critics, and study in the painters. Alluding to the many-sided character of genius, he thinks it probable that many an American who could have been a painter or sculptor, like Da Vinci or Buonarotti, has become an inventor, because there has been more demand for machinery than for art. He demands that critics should educate themselves to know good from bad in art, after which it will scarcely be possible for them to mislead the public; that artists themselves should be their own severest critics. He pronounces Church's "Niagara" and Ward's "Freedman" good art, as compared with "The Heart of the Andes," "The Rocky Mountains," "The Greek Slave," and "The Indian Girl," which are only clever. The writer on "Secession and Reconstruction" advocates as means of perfect reunion permission for the South to protect its manufactures until it shall be able to compete with the North, together with the extension of suffrage to the negroes. "Alone neither can be sufficient; together, the successful result is by no means certain, but it may be hoped for." Another writer, on the "Courts of Conciliation" which exist in France and Denmark, advocates the introduction of some such means of arbitration (in which equity is the principle consulted, and from which lawyers and their agents are absolutely banished) for the decision of disputes to which the Southern freedmen are parties. A third article (that on the President's message), dealing with kindred matters, does justice to the President's liberal views and good intentions, but advises a very cautious and gradual return to civil authority in the late rebellious States, where the writer sees no cordial disposition to return to the support of the Government or to deal fairly with the freedmen. At the same time, the writer does not fail to lament that the vote of Connecticut and Wisconsin in regard to negro suffrage should have been such as to weaken the President's confidence in the Northern sense of justice, and to confirm him in his reluctance to give the men lately slaves all the rights of freemen. "Our Financial Future" is a paper of very great value, written in so light and easy a spirit as to make the rather dry topic very attractive. The reviewer advocates direct taxation as the best and speediest means of paying off the national debt. We presume the article on "Henry Clay" is by Mr. Parton, whose contributions to the "Review" do equal credit to that periodical and their author. We do not remember to have read anything from Mr. Parton's pen so good as this article, in which much that is worth knowing about Henry Clay is rescued from panegyric, and made criticism and history. Mr. Parton, always vigorous and earnest, seems at last to have survived the faults that blemished his earlier books, and we do not well know how the present paper could be written in better English or better spirit. Mr. Sanborn's comprehensive and lucid paper on "The Present State of the Prison Discipline System" favors the adoption of the Irish system, with the workings of which the writer has made himself thoroughly acquainted. There is a very lively little paper on "Children's Books of the Year," another on "Hours of Labor," and an article by Mr. Howells on "Ducal Mantua." The last is a pleasant historical sketch of Mantua nominally since the downfall of the Roman Empire, but is mainly devoted to Mantua under the Gonzagas. One is not often led as pleasantly through a long succession of rulers, of whom it might fairly be said that each one was worse than the other. Their vices and crimes, however, have all those charms of picturesqueness in which Italian vice and crime are never wanting. Mr. Howells has made out of their chronicles a very entertaining chapter in Italian history—all the more so for opening up a field with which but few readers are familiar. Public attention has for so many generations been concentrated on the story of the Popes and the republics that little is known of the petty princedoms, and yet the history of Mantua is but the history in miniature of any European kingdom during and after the Middle Ages. One rises from the perusal of Mr. Howells's narrative with the question on one's lips—which he does not answer—how, out of so small a population, the dukes got the money to pay the expenses of such jolly lives. The critical notices, though full and varied enough, do not equal those of former numbers in vivacity.

Cotton-Stealing. A Novel. (Chicago: Walsh & Co.)—The effects in this fiction are of vastly greater number than the causes; and, indeed, seem rarely to flow from such causes as are developed. When you have read the book through, you are aware of a great deal of action to a purpose which seems indifferently served by it. Federal army gentlemen do much in the prohibited cotton traffic during the war, and seem to accomplish nothing—not even their own disgrace; while a secession hero and heroine form a hideous compact to sell the enemy of the South all the cotton they can, and the heroine further pledges herself even to marry a Yankee, as a final blow at the North. She keeps this pledge, with no particular result that the author makes known. All the time, however, this Leetle Ledonc is in love, to madness, with Kendal La Scheme, the villain-hero of the book, who turns her love and the love of other unhappy females to the account of the South, and marries nobody, though there is no reason suggested why he should not have married them all, as far as the South is concerned. Plot there is none, properly speaking, though there is intriguing without end; and there is little giving in marriage, though there is much love-making. The tender scenes between La Scheme and Leetle are, of course, sadly mixed up with bloodshed and politics. "'Leetle!' said he. Her reply was a child's action. In love to him, her woman's heart was as a child's heart and nestled in its faith in him. He rested his cheek on hers, and asked, 'Darling! what is the matter?' 'They told me Generals Van Dorn and Price were to attack Rosecrans at Corinth to-day. I believed we would wipe them out; but my heart does not feel victory, and you were not here.'" Naturally, this gentle being signs the compact of cotton, matrimony, and vengeance to the North in her own blood; and she is quite as willing to shed the blood of others for the Confederacy. She has a horse which she loves above anything on earth, except La Scheme; but she kills this horse at Memphis, in order to stuff the cavity, left by disembowelling it, with bottles of quinine and percussion caps, and then have the carcase conveyed out of the federal lines for burial (so reads the order which Leetle wheedles out of the commanding officer), where the Confederates easily find it. In fine, she is a far deadlier female than any other fire-eater of her sex concerning whom we remember to have read.

It is a pity that an author who is not without literary power, and who has evidently made some observation of character and manners in the South-west, should have wasted himself and his material in such a book as this. If he is a young man, he may outlive it, for few people will read it; and he may yet write something better. If he is of mature age, we have no hope for him, and can only offer him the assurance of a profound compassion.

The Late English Poets. Edited by Richard Henry Stoddard. (New York: Bunce and Huntington. 1865.)—Though a book requiring far less research than the "Melodies and Madrigals" of Mr. Stoddard, which THE NATION had occasion to praise so cordially some weeks ago, the present compilation is marked by the same good taste and judgment in selection and proportion. The editor's object was to offer us acquaintance with the best poems of the more recent English poets, devoting his space rather to those whose reputation does not yet equal their merit, and taking it for granted that no intelligent reader would care to have poems of Tennyson or the Brownings repeated in his volume. Except in the case of Mr. Swinburne, he has given entire poems, and we have no fault to find with his choice of poems from any writer. There are twenty-eight poets represented, whose works, in many cases, have not been reprinted in this country, or whose fame in other cases has not passed the critical circles. Many appreciative readers of poetry will here learn to know, for the first time, the excellence of the two Arnolds, Matthew and Edwin, of Charles Turner, and Frederick Tennyson, while they will be glad to be made more familiar with others whom one or two poems have already endeared to the popular mind. Mr. Stoddard's selections are made with the instinct of a poet, and we are glad that he does not hesitate to quote a very long poem (like Kingsley's "Andromeda") where it happens to be the poet's best.

Poems of Religious Sorrow, Comfort, Counsel, and Aspiration. Selected by F. J. Child. (New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866.)—We confess that we like the quaint elaboration of this title, and we have to express no sense of disappointment in looking through the volume, for we find there not only piety but poetry. Positively, there is nothing from Dr. Watts in the book,

while there is in it whatever is best in the religious feeling of the poets, who are far better comforters and counsellors than the hymn-makers. It is a book for thoughtful people of devotional sentiment, who care rather to be consoled and elevated than instructed in theology, and therefore it gives much from Milton, from Wordsworth, from Tennyson, from the Brownings, from Whittier, from Longfellow. Neither are minor poets, who have once given expression to a thoughtful sense of devotion, neglected; while the awe and the sweetness of the spirit of early Christianity find utterance in the noblest of the old Latin hymns. There are three German poems, from Luther, Klopstock, and Von Canitz—and, of course, Petrarch's "I'vo piangendo i miei passati tempi" finds a place. The rest of the poems are English, and, in very great number, modern. Indeed, the sincere spirit of modern literary art is eminently favorable to the expression of religious feeling, and many of the loftiest and loveliest psalms are by poets of our own day. The nature of the collection may surprise some persons who

——"judge the Lord with feeble sense,"

doubting if He loves good poetry well enough to inspire it; but whoever takes up the book with an enlightened idea of the prophetic office of poetry, will find the best sentiments of religion interpreted to him in words of excellent beauty.

Every Saturday: A Journal of Choice Reading, Selected from Foreign Current Literature. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields.)—The title of this periodical leaves little for criticism to say concerning it, for it is scarcely desirable to speak critically of matter which is taken out of English magazines and newspapers and appears here at second-hand. The sole original virtue which publications of this class can have is one of judicious selection, and *Every Saturday* will increase in this virtue, we hope, as it grows older. We observe a wish to give variety in the topics chosen, and a due acknowledgment is prominently made to the sources from which they are drawn. But as for the articles themselves, we do not find them first-rate, and, indeed, they are of the flavor of too much literature printed for the first time in our magazines—a kind of literature which is produced apparently for the perusal only of the class which writes it, which is to say, the young ladies. *Every Saturday* is of the size and general presence of *Once a Week*. The design of the title-page is rather cheap and poor.

The Pilgrim's Progress. By John Bunyan. (Sever & Francis, Cambridge.)—The merits of this edition, which first appeared in 1864, are its convenient form, clear typography, and richness of paper and binding. Its only defect consists in retaining two or three very inferior wood-cuts, which not even the University Press can make respectable or in place. They occupy separate leaves, and might easily be omitted.

Picciola. By X. B. Saintine. (Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.)—One of the series of the "Riverside Classics," and in all respects commendable. The illustrations are by Leopold Flameng, and have many good features.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Good Gray Poet. A Vindication. Bunce & Huntington, New York.

Hans Brinker; or, The Silver Skates. A Story of Life in Holland. By M. E. Dodge. James O'Kane, New York.

Illustrated Life, Campaigns, and Public Services of Philip H. Sheridan. By C. W. Denison.—Roanoke; or, "Where is Utopia?" By C. H. Wiley. T. B. Peterson & Brothers, Philadelphia. (Frederic A. Brady, New York.)

Harper's Weekly for 1865. Vol. IX. Harper & Brothers, New York.

The Myriapoda of North America. By Horatio C. Wood, Jr., M.D. Sherman & Co., Philadelphia.

Ballads and Translations. By Constantina E. Brooks. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

Mr. Dunn Browne's Experiences in the Army.—The Phenomena of Plant Life. By Leo H. Grindon. Nichols & Noyes, Boston. (James Miller, New York.)

Elements of Political Economy. By Arthur Latham Perry. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

Thomas a Becket, a Tragedy, and Other Poems. By G. H. Hollister William V. Spencer, Boston.

Hermann, or Young Knighthood. By E. Foxton. Lee & Shepard, Boston.

The Life and Public Services of Andrew Johnson. By John Savage. Derby & Miller, New York.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

The grant of public lands made by Congress to the several States for the purpose of promoting instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts, is beginning to bear fruit in the establishment of agricultural colleges and schools. In seeking the wisest methods of spending the money thus appropriated by Congress, the trustees or governors of such institutions would do well to observe the progress of German opinion in this matter of agricultural education. The schools first established in Germany, like that of Hohenheim, near Stuttgart, and that of Tharandt, near Dresden, were isolated institutions, placed at a distance from any university or polytechnic school, and supposed to be in themselves complete, well equipped, and well balanced. As they proposed to teach not only the general principles of the sciences which underlie the practice of agriculture, but also the practical details of the farmer's or forester's business, the schools owned large farms and forests, which were managed by the directors or by professors of the schools, and were intended to keep before the students a practical example of the judicious management of a great estate. The experience of the last fifty years has developed three strong objections to the schools thus constituted: First, their collections, laboratories, cabinets of apparatus, libraries, and other means and appliances of instruction have been necessarily inferior to those of the richer universities and polytechnic schools; secondly, they can, as a rule, command the services only of second-rate teachers, partly because the salaries are necessarily low, and partly because the isolated position of these schools is distasteful to most scientific men; thirdly, it has generally been impossible to find the very different qualities of a practical teacher and a practical farmer united in the same person. And yet, unless the director at Hohenheim possesses both these different capacities, either the teaching or the farm must suffer. We need not believe the whole of Liebig's accusation when he bitterly says that the teaching at Hohenheim has been false and the conduct of the estate ruinous, and that, in general, it would have been better if there had been no teaching of agriculture at all in Germany for the last fifty years; but it will be wise to be warned in time against these two serious mistakes from which the German schools have so much suffered—first, isolation; second, the owning of a great farm. While the isolated schools are languishing in Germany, other and better institutions are rising to replace them. In 1863 the University of Halle established an agricultural department, under the charge of Dr. Kühn, bearing to the university exactly the same relation as the department of medicine or of pharmacy. In 1864 this new department had as many students as the old and famous school at Hohenheim. In the year just closed, the University of Leipzig has established a chair of agriculture, to be filled by Prof. Knop, long in charge of the old agricultural station at Möckern, and the admirable polytechnic school at Carlsruhe has added a department of agriculture to its mathematical, engineering, chemical, and commercial departments. These new establishments possess only a few small fields for purposes of experiment, and it is distinctly understood that their students are to obtain their instruction in practical farming on private estates, and, if possible, before they come to the schools. The reasons for this change of policy are sufficiently clear. The general principles of physics, chemistry, and natural history are the same, whether they are to be applied to agriculture, pharmacy, or manufactures, only the special subsequent application will vary. When a strong university or technical school adds to its ordinary corps of instructors two or three special professors of agricultural subjects, and places at the disposal of the student of agriculture all its other resources and appliances, it is altogether probable that better special instruction will be thus offered to the student, with a much more liberal general culture, than can possibly be obtained at an isolated and comparatively feeble special school. Hence the sudden success of the new class of agricultural schools in Germany. A just economy of the resources placed by Congress within the control of the several States will suggest a seasonable consideration of German experience in the organization of agricultural instruction.

—A cheap mode of preparing carbonic acid is of importance, because of the many useful applications now made of this gas. A manufacturer of soda-water at Paris, M. Orouf, has recently perfected a method of preparing carbonic acid, which seems very simple and economical, and at the same time presents points of scientific interest. The gaseous products resulting from the complete combustion of coke, after having first been forced through water in order to cleanse and cool them, are made to pass through a solution of carbonate of soda. This solution retains the carbonic acid, and bicarbonate of soda is formed, while the nitrogen of the gaseous mixture escapes into the air. After all the carbonate of soda has been converted into bicarbonate, the flow of gas from the fire is stopped, and the liquor is heated by a current of free steam. At the temperature of boiling water bicarbonate of soda is decomposed. Hence, all the carbonic acid which had previously been absorbed is now evolved as gas, and there is left behind nothing but the original solution of monocarbonate of soda, which may immediately be used over again in the same round. The carbonic acid thus obtained is said to be chemically pure, though charged with vapor of water, which can be readily separated by condensation. The single portion of carbonate of soda with which the operation was started may be used over and over again indefinitely, since none of it is consumed or in any way altered.

—At a recent meeting of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Sir David Brewster exhibited a piece of amber from the kingdom of Ava weighing about two pounds and a half. The specimen is remarkable in that it is intersected in various directions by thin veins of a crystallized mineral sub

stance. These veins are in some parts of the mass as thin as a sheet of paper, and in other parts about the twentieth of an inch thick. An examination of a portion of the thickest vein has proved the mineral to be carbonate of lime. Pieces of amber of two or three pounds weight are rare. A specimen weighing one pound is valued in Prussia at fifty dollars. The largest piece yet found is in the Royal Museum at Berlin; it weighs eighteen pounds, and is said to be worth upwards of seven thousand dollars.

—A fatal accident lately reported in Massachusetts, under circumstances which at first admitted of a doubt whether death had been caused by the breathing of coal-gas from a stove without draught, or by other poison intentionally taken, brings to mind the recent researches of Hoppe-Seyler on poisoning by carbonic oxide. By an ingenious application of spectral analysis he detects the presence of carbonic acid in the blood. Blood which has dissolved this exceedingly poisonous gas gives the same lines in the spectrum as normal arterial blood. If sulphide of ammonium be added to normal blood, the mixture gives an altered spectrum, with only a single line placed between the common lines named D and E, whereas the like addition of sulphide of ammonium to blood poisoned by carbonic oxide produces no change at all in the lines of the spectrum. Before being submitted to analysis, the blood must in all cases be largely diluted with water. The poisoned blood can retain the oxide of carbon for several days, but the examination should, nevertheless, be undertaken without unnecessary delay.

—Statistics of the quantity and quality of soldiers' food have a scientific interest, because they present the results of a long experience in feeding adult men so as to keep them in full health and strength. In England fixed rations of three-quarters of a pound of meat and one pound of bread are issued to the soldiers, and the rest of their food is procured from their own pay. According to Dr. Lyon Playfair, the average diet of soldiers in peace and war may be stated as follows, in ounces and tenths of an ounce:

	In Peace.	In War.
Flesh-formers,	4.2	5.4
Heat-givers { Fat,	1.8	2.4
Heat-givers { Starch, etc.,	18.7	17.9
Starch, equivalent of heat-givers,	22.1	23.5
Total amount of carbon	12.0	12.7

The peace diet above given was obtained by examining the statistics of food issued to the English, French, Prussian, and Austrian armies, while the war diet included, in addition to these, the Russian, Dutch, United States, and so-called Confederate States armies. Great Britain is the only country which does not possess a special war diet, and the want of it was one of the causes of the frightful mortality of the Crimea. During the latter part of the Russian war, the rations of the English soldiers were increased; but the diet of the English army when engaged in the arduous work of war is, according to Dr. Playfair, unworthy of the country—twenty years behind the actual state of science and a hundred years behind the practice of other nations. To ascertain what well-paid soldiers, engaged in occupations which would represent moderate war work, found it necessary to eat, Dr. Playfair obtained returns from the garrison of sappers and miners at Chatham. This garrison is composed of men versed in trades at which they work when not employed on fortifications or in the field. The exact food consumed by four hundred and ninety-five men during twelve consecutive days was carefully weighed, and the results were expressed as follows in ounces and tenths of an ounce:

Flesh-formers,	5.1
Heat-givers, { Fat,	2.9
Heat-givers, { Starch, etc.,	22.2
Starch, equivalent of heat-givers,	29.4
Total amount of carbon,	14.8

It will be seen that this dietary resembles much the war dietary, except that the starch and, consequently, the carbon is increased, because of the large use of potatoes in garrison. Dr. Playfair concludes that a war diet should supply at least five and a half ounces of flesh-formers in the food. He estimates that this quantity is necessary to enable men to march fourteen miles daily, carrying sixty pounds weight, without being obliged to consume their own tissues in obtaining the necessary force.

—In a series of experiments which were published some months since, the French chemist Pelouze had shown that the yellow color which can be brought out in glass by the addition of carbon, phosphorus, boron, silicon, hydrogen, or aluminum is due to the action of these bodies on a compound of sulphur which is always to be found in the glass of commerce. He found that glass made of materials entirely free from sulphur remained perfectly colorless on being subjected to the influence of the several substances above enumerated. That sulphur really produces such a yellow coloration may be shown directly by coloring glass, either pure or impure, with sulphur or a sulphide. There now remained a curious point to be decided, viz., whether selenium, which is so closely analogous to sulphur, would also color glass. It is upon this point that M. Pelouze has recently contributed a note to the French Academy. By adding selenium to ordinary window-glass he obtained a perfectly transparent product of a fine reddish-orange color which recalled the color of certain varieties of topaz. Though the proportions of selenium were varied between one and three per cent., the color obtained was always of the same shade and degree of intensity.

—In the collection of Japanese objects at the Dublin Exhibition were some very curious illustrated treatises on physics, zoology, botany, and anatomy. The letter-press of these was not particularly intelligible to European visitors, but the illustrations are spoken of as excellent, and indicative of advanced knowledge in the several subjects to which they relate. The cuts representing bandaging, amputation, the use of the lancet, and so forth, are said to have been almost precisely similar to those which would be found in a European work on surgery, and many of the plates on osteology and natural history were equally good.

—Dr. Druitt, of London, calls attention to the use of hot water as a remedy for profuse perspiration. If a part of the body which is perspiring be bathed with water as hot as can be borne without pain till it becomes decidedly hot and red, the skin will become dry and will continue so for some time. The water may be used by sponging or by immersion. This use of very hot water is recommended to persons who perspire to a distressing degree in hot weather, or who are annoyed by a disagreeable perspiration of some particular part, as the arm-pits, hands, or feet. Even the night-sweat, which is so distressing a symptom in certain diseases or enfeebled conditions, may often be checked or lessened by the judicious use of this simple remedy. The method is suggested not, of course, as a cure for disease, but as an easy mode of relieving unpleasant symptoms.

Fine Arts.

MUSIC.

MUSIC OF THE WEEK.

Concerts have been plentiful the past week. Miss Parepa finished her series of three, and gave an extra one on Thursday. Both programme and performance on Tuesday were very fine. The orchestra played the overture to "Melusine" and one of the "Fidelio" overtures, besides a very singular but not beautiful piece by A. von Kontsky, called "The Awakening of the Lion." It was remarkable chiefly for the drum part. Mr. Mills played his "Fantasia from Faust," and Liszt's "Rhapsodie Hongroise." The gem of the evening, however, was Mr. Rosa's rendering of Schumann's "Abendlied" and of two little pieces by F. David. His tones were clear and full of soul, and his execution beautiful. He is the artist of the company. Miss Parepa was not so fatigued, and was therefore in better voice than at the previous concerts. She sang "En vain j'espère, Robert," with almost dramatic fervor, and "Voi che sapete," from "Le Nozze di Figaro," magnificently. In Ganz's *bravura* piece, "Sing, Birdie, sing," she displayed again her remarkable management of her voice, but she made no more impression on the feelings than she did before. If music is a language that is spoken by one heart to another, Miss Parepa is not eloquent. We feel like applying to her what an eminent father of the church said about the dialectics of the sophists: "She plays about the heart—*circum præcordia ludit*—without ever penetrating it."

On Wednesday evening the company of Messrs. Juignet and Drivet gave one representation of the *opéra-comique*. This was a mere tentative effort, and as such was very unhappy, and to be regretted. We have no doubt that when the new theatre on Fourteenth Street is completed, if a well-selected company is brought here, the *opéra-comique* will flourish. It will not interfere with the Italian opera, but there is a large class of people who will enjoy it more; and if the operas are mounted with the care that French directors and French taste require, there will be a great benefit to the public taste. But the other night the house was much too large for the voices; the singers, with one exception, were very poor; and no pains were taken in the arrangement of the stage. The pieces chosen for the performance were two of the best of the modern French comic opera—"L'Eclair," by Halévy, and "Les Noces de Jeannette," by Victor Massé. "L'Eclair" was produced in 1835, about six months after the performance of "La Juive." It was received with enthusiasm, and gained for its author the cross of the Legion of Honor. It is a little singular that the two works of that year are better than any of those that preceded or followed.

It would have been better if something else, some one-act opera, had been substituted in the place of "L'Eclair" by the directors, for the three acts were shortened to two in a very unsatisfactory manner, and Madame de Lussan replaced Mlle. Ayosto at the last moment. It is but fair to say that she did well, considering the limited time she had to prepare herself for her part. M. Genty, who took the part of *George*, made a very bad impression, but he also was improvised, and does not pretend to be a singer. From M. Armand we hoped much more. He is awkward, and sings in a hurry, as though he were reciting and were anxious to get through his lesson. His accent is provincial, and his gestures very ungraceful. His voice was apparently good, and some notes were very sweet. We hope that he has some parts in which he will do better than in *Lionel*. He evidently has capacities, and with careful study and attention to his manner and acting, he may be listened to with pleasure when he appears here next winter.

The only good singer of the evening was Mlle. Naddie. But even she could not save "L'Eclair" from falling dead on a cold house. She ought to be judged of only in "Les Noces de Jeannette," which was the redeeming feature of the evening. Victor Massé is one of the most agreeable of the writers for the comic opera. He had a brilliant success when in the *Conservatoire*, and was a pupil of Zimmermann and Halévy. He was sent to Rome by the French Academy, and studied in Italy two years, after which he travelled in Germany. In 1852 he brought out his first opera, "La Chanteuse Voilée," and in 1853 "Les Noces de Jeannette," since which time his pen has been prolific. He writes too fast, and without sufficient revision to secure excellence to his works; but they are full of bright and sparkling airs, and of lively dialogue, of which this opera is a very good example. It has been played here several times before, with Miss Hinkley, Miss Kellogg, and Mlle. Cordier as *Jeannette*, but we think that the part has never been so perfectly sustained, or the music so well and carefully rendered, as it was by Mlle. Naddie. Without being pretty she is graceful; she knows exactly the extent of her part, and neither overacts nor underacts; she is not mannered, but free and natural. Her voice is clear and fluent, and she sang with precision and without effort the difficult "Air de Rossignol," hardly letting the audience know that it demanded skill, so easy was she. She fully appreciated the music, and gave it the full expression. "Parmi tant d'Amoureux" she rendered beautifully, with suppressed tears in her voice. M. Harndorff has hardly a good enough voice either in quantity or quality for the stage, as he is himself aware; but he is a good actor, lively and quick, and displayed much art in the way in which he avoided and smoothed over the difficulties of his part, and gave Mlle. Naddie efficient support.

If Messrs. Juignet and Drivet will not injure themselves by any more unequal representations, but will get three or four more singers as excellent and efficient as Mlle. Naddie, we shall have a delightful season next winter, when we shall hope to hear not only "Les Noces de Jeannette" again, but "Marie," "Zampa," "Les Diamans de la Couronne," and many other operas that we have so long desired in vain.

On Wednesday evening, Messrs. Mason and Thomas gave the first of their soirées of chamber music to a small but appreciative audience, at Dodworth's Hall, which was dark and cheerless, the gas-pipes being frozen by the extreme cold weather. Three pieces were performed, the first being the quartet in G, No. 1, by Mozart, which caused all to feel happy and cheerful, and fully made up for the dim light. The trio in D, op. 70, No. 1, by Beethoven, came next, with its beautiful dramatic slow movement, expressive of the passion which the composer entertained for the Countess Marie d'Erdoedy, to whom he dedicated it. The remaining piece was the sextet of Brahms, in B flat, op. 18. Johann Brahms was once called by Schumann the Mozart of the nineteenth century, such remarkable musical power did he exhibit in his early years. This sextet, with its beautiful and passionate passages of melody, is a witness of the precocity of his musical intelligence and of the rare development of his fancy; but the praise of Schumann was too enthusiastic, and the later career of Brahms has not fulfilled these auguries of his greatness. May the weather be more propitious and the audience larger at the next soirée on January 24! The artists who give them are actuated solely by a desire to promote musical culture, and always consider themselves fortunate if they come out with whole purses at the end of the season. In the same spirit they give one or two concerts every summer at Farmington, Conn., and occasionally at other places.

The third of Mr. Theodore Thomas's symphony soirées took place on Saturday evening, with a good programme and able performers. It was, as a whole, the finest concert of the kind that we have heard in New York for some years. The opening symphony was the one in C, op. 30, of Bargiel, and is a striking work. The *allegro* is noticeable for a strongly marked rhythm, and, though worked up from a very simple phrase, rises sometimes to passages of considerable power. The *andante* contains a beautiful melody, though the orchestration is not equal throughout, and in parts weak. The *minuet* is sparkling and fresh, with good points made by the little trills and shivers of the flutes. The *finale* is in the same spirit as the first movement. The symphony will bear frequent repetition, for it is by no means exhausted at a single hearing, and will be a welcome addition to the orchestral *repertoire*. Miss Parepa sang the scena and aria, "Ah! perfido," Beethoven, op. 48, with more power and feeling than anything we heard at her own concerts. The same can be said of the aria from Handel's "Susannah." Her rendering of the passage, "Thy will be done," was exquisite. Mr. Carl Wolfsohn, of Philadelphia, played Chopin's fantasia in F minor, op. 49, coldly. His style is hardly suited for a large concert-room, and he did not seem to enter thoroughly into what he was playing. He did not re-create the piece. He seemed to drag a little in the time at the beginning, and his rendering of the *lento* passage was not pleasing. The Liederkranz Society sang splendidly a beautiful "Volkslied" for male voices, and, being loudly applauded, gave another chorus almost as fine. Mendelssohn's overture, "Zum Mährchen von der schönen Melusine," was the next orchestral piece. Mendelssohn, in one of his letters to his sister, says that it was suggested to him by an opera of Conradin Kreuzer's which he disliked, but which contained one scene of a mermaid combing her hair that struck his fancy. The beautiful Melusine, as every one knows or ought to know, was one of the most celebrated of the French fairies, who, as a punishment for some action, was changed every Saturday into a serpent from her waist downward. She married a count of Poitiers, but, being seen by him in one of her transformations, was imprisoned for life in a dungeon of Lusignan. That is the theme of the beautiful overture, sweet, like most of Mendelssohn's music—too sweet, perhaps. The only remaining piece was Beethoven's fantasia in C minor, op. 80, for piano, chorus, and orchestra, which was carefully performed. The orchestra admirably seconded Mr. Thomas in his endeavors to give good music, by playing throughout with a right spirit and with precision. The careful drilling and good leadership of the conductor was manifest.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, January 13, 1866.

THE feature of the week has been a heavy decline in gold, stocks, and produce. Gold, which had been steady for several months between 144 and 148, suddenly lurched downward early in the week, and on Wednesday touched 136½, closing to-day at 139¾. Produce of all kinds naturally sympathized, and heavy losses are reported in wheat, flour, pork, etc. In produce there has been a partial rally within the past day or two, and, as stocks at the seaboard are light, prices may possibly be sustained for the present at or near present quotations. For many months foreign merchandise has been, with few exceptions, bought and sold for gold, so that it has not felt the effect of the tumble in the gold room; indeed, in the coffee and sugar markets a somewhat improved enquiry is noted. But the fall in gold and stocks has naturally tended to impair confidence, and there is an unwillingness to sell on credit. The West is well stocked with goods, and several descriptions of dry goods are cheaper there than here. The South, however, continues to consume quantities of dry goods and general merchandise and to pay for them in cash or cotton. No specific cause has been assigned for the sudden fall in gold. The increased demand abroad for our securities; the prospect of conservative legislation in Congress; the failure of some speculators for the rise, and the abandonment of the game, in despair, by others; each of these causes had its influence in producing the result. That gold had been too high, in view of the policy of Government, the receipts from taxes, and the general prosperity of the country, can hardly be questioned. A premium of 25 per cent. would, in the opinion of many, suffice to express the redundancy of the paper currency. When Gen. Lee surrendered, and peace became imminent in April, 1865, gold fell to 127, and sound men believed it would never again pass 130. It is difficult to gauge in figures so delicate and impalpable an essence as public confidence; but if we are really going to reduce our paper currency by $200,000,000 in two years, and if our bonds are going hereafter, as heretofore, to be the favorite investment of small capitalists in Central Europe, a premium of 30 per cent. will soon seem as extravagant as a premium of 100 seemed twelve months ago to those who knew the real situation of affairs and the real prospects of the rebellion. One curious feature of the recent decline in gold may be noted. It was entirely unexpected. For two months it has been impossible to find speculators willing to sell gold on long options at any material concession from the cash price. There was not a man in Wall Street, it seemed, who expected that gold would fall below 140. As soon as it began to fall, everybody rushed in to sell, and as much as ¼ and ⅜ of one per cent. was paid this week for the use of gold for one day. But before the fall no one dreamed of selling short.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, exchange, gold, and money markets:

	Jan. 6.	Jan. 13.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104¾ex c.	104	....	¾
5-20 Bonds, old	104⅞	103⅞	....	1
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	101¾	....	¼
10-40 Bonds	93¾	93⅝	⅛	....
7.30 Notes, second series	98⅜	98	....	⅜
New York Central	96	93¾	....	2¼
Erie Railway	95¾	91	....	4¾
Hudson River	108	106	....	2
Reading Railroad	105¼	102¼	....	3
Michigan Southern	72½	69	....	3½
Cleveland and Pittsburg	82¾	77½	....	5¼
Chicago and North-western	35½	32	....	3½
" " " Preferred	60¼	58¾	....	1½
Chicago and Rock Island	107¼	103⅞	....	3⅜
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	100⅝	95	....	5⅝
Canton	45	43	....	2
Cumberland	44¼	42½	....	1¾
Mariposa	14¼	12¾	....	1½
American Gold	141⅞	139¾	....	1⅞
Bankers' Bills on London	109	108¾	....	⅛
Call Loans	6	7	1	....

Again we have to report an almost uniform decline in prices. On several occasions during the week the decline took the shape of a panic, and everyone rushed to sell stocks at any price. These fits were generally succeeded by sharp reactions, in which the parties who had just sold rushed in to buy, every one fearing to be the last in the race. But, in fact, there is no appearance as yet of anything like a substantial rally from the decline. The oldest and most popular of the commission houses report no consumptive demand for stocks. Capitalists are all holding off, in expectation of the promised contraction of the currency. Railway men, seeing the steady decline in earnings, are selling their stocks and not replacing them. Erie, which has been for some time the leading speculative stock, and which had been held at an extravagant price by the clique connected with the direction, "broke" on Friday, and sold down to 88, against 97 on Wednesday. To-day it sold as high as 92, and as low as 89, closing at 91. Nothing has yet transpired about the February dividend, but the report to the Legislature, previously mentioned in this column, and the reports of other roads, show clearly that if it is paid, the money will have to be borrowed, as heretofore. New York Central, which is not earning five per cent. in paper, has been firmly held at 93 and upward—higher than 10.40 bonds, which pay 5 per cent. in gold. Old Southern, which pays nothing, is being bought up by a clique, and may possibly be cornered. Such an operation may retard, but can hardly alter, the issue. For a time the operations of this or that speculator or clique of speculators may impel prices in an unnatural direction, but in the end intrinsic values must govern. Pittsburg, a 4 per cent. stock, fell on Friday to 74½. A few months ago it sold at 45, and a few weeks ago at 97. Rock Island is in the hands of a clique, and is still maintained above par; the earnings show a steady falling off. The North-western stocks have declined, but hardly as much as might have been expected in view of the heavy debt of the company and the enormous mileage run. If, as seems probable, we are going to have a period of slack traffic on the railways, low fares, and heavy expenses, the North-western property may yet fall into the hands of the bondholders. Fort Wayne, notwithstanding quarterly dividends of 2½ per cent., fell to 93, but closed yesterday at 95. This is probably one of the best railway concerns in the country, but it yields to the general tendency. A peculiar feature of the market, to-day, was a general failure of deliveries. This indicates an extensive closing of short contracts, and shows that the previous speculation had been on a scale totally disproportioned to the volume of floating stock in the Street. It is not unlikely that this condition of affairs may lead to fresh attempts to corner some of the more active stocks. It is in the power of any one of several heavy speculators to force up the price of Pittsburg or Old Southern or any such stock to prices considerably above those now ruling, by simply buying a line of stock and refusing to lend it. The finale of such operation is not likely to be profitable to the cornering party, as the public are seldom willing to purchase a stock that has been cornered. But such operations, though they may yield no profit to their contrivers, nevertheless inflict severe loss on the Street.

The Committee of Ways and Means have reported a measure to Congress in exact conformity with Secretary McCulloch's recommendations. Without disrespect to the committee, it may be mentioned that nothing less was expected. For four years it has been the sole function of the Ways and Means Committee to record and embody in bills the behests of the finance minister. The committee was never known to have an opinion of its own. It has faithfully done as it has been bidden. Whether the members have best discharged their public duty by delegating to the Secretary of the Treasury the office of doing their thinking for them, is a question which time will enable their constituents to discuss. Grave objections may be urged against the abandonment of the Sinking Fund, which was a solemn guarantee given to bondholders when they subscribed for our securities, and the repeal of which involves an indirect form of repudiation. And while the country may, perhaps, contemplate without uneasiness the passage of an act which empowers Secretary McCulloch to sell U. S. bonds bearing almost any rate of interest, running for almost any length of time, at any price, for almost any kind of securities or money, it cannot be concealed that the grant of such enormous power would be viewed with alarm if it were made to any one in whom the public had less confidence. Criticism of the bill is, however, quite superfluous. It will pass in the shape which the department likes best; and, in the main, if its provisions can be carried out, it may do good. A conviction gains ground daily that there can be no safety or comfort in business of any kind until we can get back to some stable standard of values, and the mercantile community are prepared to endure a great deal in order to secure this desideratum.

Considerable scandal has been created in Wall Street by two prominent accidents during the past week. Mr. Carr, of the well-known firm of Carr, Taylor & Co., departed suddenly on this day week for Europe under very peculiar circumstances, and on Friday another active firm in Broad Street was reported to have failed, leaving some large checks uncovered. It resumed again next day, under circumstances of some mystery. In the open Board there have been several failures. These accidents, which can have surprised no one who has been a careful observer of the wild speculations of the past two or three years, are calculated to unsettle confidence and check the loose habits of the Street. It is generally feared that other Jenkins and Ketchum cases may come to light should the present decline in values continue, and the sifting process now in progress be carried on for a few weeks more.

HOME

INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - -	$2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - -	3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - -	77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND

INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

DIVIDEND NOTICE.

CONTINENTAL INSURANCE COMPANY,

No. 102 BROADWAY.

CASH CAPITAL	$500,000 00
SURPLUS	1,032,889 34
TOTAL	$1,532,889 34

THREE-FOURTHS OF THE PROFITS OF THE BUSINESS DIVIDED TO ITS CUSTOMERS, WITHOUT IMPOSING ON THEM ANY LIABILITY WHATEVER.

NEW YORK, January 9, 1866.

This Company has this day declared

A Semi-Annual Dividend of Seven per Cent.

to its Stockholders, payable to them or their legal representatives, on and after THURSDAY, 11th inst.

GEO. T. HOPE, President.

H. H. LAMPORT, Secretary.
CYRUS PECK, Assistant Secretary.

HOFFMAN FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY.

Office, 161 Broadway, New York.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - - - - - $200,000

WILLIAM B. DIXON, President.

JOSEPH W WILDEY, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.

B. SEAMAN, Cashier.

ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier.

GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CASH CAPITAL, - - - $1,400,000 00

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom, and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-ensuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies by receiving a note for one-half when the premium amounts to over $30.

THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

$912,342 00,

and

$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

$1,400,777 16.

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the policy holders.

COMPETENT AGENTS WANTED.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

Where I Can Ensure,

WHAT I CAN ENSURE AGAINST,

AND

WHAT IT WILL COST ME.

I CAN ENSURE IN THE

NATIONAL LIFE AND TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,

243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,

OPPOSITE CITY HALL PARK,

Authorized Capital, - - - Half a Million,

AGAINST EVERY DESCRIPTION OF ACCIDENTS that can happen to me on Sea or Land.

I can ensure my life on the purely Mutual Plan, either by an Endowment, or a Life Policy, or a Ten-year Non-forfeiture Policy.

$25 secures a General Accident Policy for $5,000, with a Weekly Compensation of $25.

$10 secures a Marine Policy for $10,000 for a voyage to any European port, covering loss of life at sea from accident.

$167 35 per annum secures an Endowment Policy for $5,000, with profits payable at the age of 50, or at death to a person 25 years of age.

$96 90 per annum secures a Life Policy for $5,000, with profits, to a person 25 years of age. A Loan of one-third of the Premium, or Life, or Endowment Policy will be given, if required, without note.

POLICIES ISSUED AT ONCE.

NO MEDICAL EXAMINATION REQUIRED for General Accident Policies.

Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS		$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00	
Temporary Loans	92,630 00	
Real Estate	10,000 00	
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00	
Government Sec., value	144,514 00	
Cash on hand	18,042 34	
Interest due	3,085 58	
Premiums due	6,785 26	
PRESENT LIABILITIES		$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS		198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers; whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

ASHER TAYLOR, President.

H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.

PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

B. C. MORRIS, President.

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E. W CLARK & CO.,

BANKERS AND BROKERS,

35 SOUTH THIRD STREET, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

DEALERS IN GOVERNMENT BONDS AND TREASURY NOTES, CERTIFICATES OF INDEBTEDNESS, QUARTERMASTERS' VOUCHERS, COMPOUND INTEREST NOTES.

STOCKS and BONDS of all kinds BOUGHT and SOLD on COMMISSION.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

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A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, or body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

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SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

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SPECIAL GOLD MEDAL.

(From Watson's Weekly Art Journal.)

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"They are an exceedingly good substitute for an Organ, and I can speak of them in the highest terms."
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THE PARLOR ORGAN,

with the recent improvements of Mr. J Carhart, is, without exception, *far superior* in QUALITY, POWER, SWEETNESS, VARIETY and EXPRESSION OF TONE. DURABILITY OF CONSTRUCTION, ELEGANCE OF CASE—POSSESSING IMPROVEMENTS APPLIED BY US ONLY.

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THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

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Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

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WERE AWARDED THE HIGHEST PREMIUMS

At the State Fairs of

New York,	Illinois,	Virginia,
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Vermont,	Wisconsin,	Tennessee,
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And at numerous Institute and County Fairs, including all the Fairs at which they were exhibited the past three years.

The GROVER & BAKER ELASTIC-STITCH SEWING MACHINE is superior to all others, for the following reasons:

1. The seam is stronger and more elastic than any other.
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LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

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Economical Housekeepers Use

PYLE'S SALERATUS. | PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
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Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

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MAKE THE

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and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

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FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

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EAGLE GAS COOKING STOVES AND RANGES,

GUARANTEED TO BAKE PERFECTLY.

HEATING STOVES, GUARANTEED TO HEAT ROOMS PERFECTLY.

Also,

KEROSENE OIL COOKING STOVES,

The best in market, have regular SIDE OVENS, and guaranteed to BAKE PERFECTLY, and not to Smoke or Smell.

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Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

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PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
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Send for a descriptive Circular.

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J. H. JOHNSTON & CO., 150 BOWERY, N. Y., sell at lowest rates

American Gold and Silver Watches,
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Fine Swiss Watches.

The handsomest Detached Lever Watch in the market for $25.

PURE GOLD WEDDING RINGS.

Fine Jewelry, diamonds, silver ware, and best quality silver-plated ware of our own manufacture.
Articles sent free of expense to all parts of the country, and satisfaction guaranteed.

Pacific Mail Steamship Company's

THROUGH LINE

TO CALIFORNIA,

TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,

AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street, at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, *via* Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

	FIRST CABIN,	SECOND CABIN,	STEERAGE,
ON STEAMERS....	**$325.**	**$225.**	**$100.**

Panama Railroad ticket invariably $25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, *via* HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

F. W. G. BELLOWS, AGENT.

WILLIAM SELLERS & CO.,

1,600 HAMILTON STREET, PHILADELPHIA

MACHINISTS', FOUNDERS', SMITHS' and BOILER-MAKERS' TOOLS.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

CONGRESS, to the surprise of most people, has admitted the negro to vote in the District of Columbia, and without any qualification. We wish, for our part, it had insisted, when doing away with the color qualification, upon every man's knowing how to read before exercising the franchise. The opportunity was a good one for setting an example that the States might have followed, and the great principle of equality before the law would have been as firmly established by a measure of this kind as by the one which has been passed. Pictures are now being drawn in some quarters of the dreadful effect which this vote will have in "irritating" the whites of the District; but it is really time that we had heard the last of this argument. If justice can only be done, and the Government can only keep faith with the blacks, by irritating a portion of the whites, the latter must get used to being irritated, and the Government to irritating them. Four years ago this precious sophism was put in the foreground of the battle against emancipation, and events have revealed its value. The only way in which the blacks could completely avoid giving offence to any of their fellow-citizens would be to betake themselves out of the world; but, from so benighted and degraded a race, devotion of this kind to the public comfort is hardly to be expected.

THERE is a scheme on foot to equalize the bounty of all volunteers who served during the war. It appears there has been already paid in bounties upwards of three hundred millions of dollars, or nearly one-tenth of the national debt. If each man who served were paid, as is proposed, as much as would bring his bounty up to four hundred dollars, three hundred millions more would be necessary, making in all nearly one-fifth of the national debt. This calculation does not include State bounties, which were probably as much more, and it must be remembered that every cent of this money was borrowed and is still due. If, therefore, the payment of the recruiting expenses of all the States were to be assumed by the general Government, as has been proposed, the total amount would probably reach nearly two thousand millions—all paid for bribing men to do their duty. The whole bounty system was one of the most frightful sources of corruption ever opened on an afflicted people. An attempt to equalize the bounties would open another almost as bad, and would call from their lairs once more a whole swarm of unclean animals in the shape of claim agents, whose frauds and rascality would throw the bounty-brokers of the war, bad as these were, completely into the shade. What Congress ought to be doing, instead of considering such preposterous schemes as this, is framing a good militia law, which would give us a trained army of the bone and sinew of the country whenever we wanted it, on short notice.

WE believe the accounts received by prominent commercial houses in this city from their agents at the South represent a great change as having come over both planters and negroes since Christmas, and the relations of the two parties as being now very much more cordial and encouraging than they were two or three months ago. The negroes have got over their dream of having the land divided amongst them on the opening of the new year, and the planters have got over their absurd fear of a general insurrection on Christmas Day, with the usual accompaniment of arson and murder. Contracts are therefore now being freely made, and with a good prospect of their being fairly kept on both sides. There is nobody, we are satisfied, in the whole Union, who will not feel devoutly thankful if the labor problem of the South can only be settled in this way.

IN the effervescence of Mexican affairs, an atom of trouble for us has been thrown to the top. The Liberals have taken Bagdad, and, it is said, taken it with the help of American soldiers. Bagdad, like most other places on this continent which have inherited the names of famous towns, is probably of no great importance, and the gravity of the case is merely in the assistance we are supposed to have given. General Sheridan declares from his post at New Orleans that he does not believe any of our soldiers were concerned in the capture. *Apropos* of Mexican affairs, General Weitzel, having protested against the execution of seventeen Republicans captured by the Imperialists as a "horrible barbarity," has received a direct snub from General Mejia, who declares the prisoners in question to be bandits, and informs General Weitzel that he will hereafter return, unanswered, all letters couched in the language of his protest.

MR. EMERSON ETHERIDGE, who does not approve of the President personally, does approve of the presidential policy of reconstruction. He says in a recent letter, that the Union's and the President's best friends will be found among those who have been their worst enemies; while the people at the South who will be found most unfriendly to the restoration of good government, are those dark spirits who wish to have the presence of the troops continued there for the protection of the rights of life and property; or, as Mr. Etheridge expresses it, for the purpose of increasing the calamities of our Southern brethren, and augmenting their humiliation. There is no doubt that, on this principle, Mr. Etheridge is the friend of the President *par excellence*.

THE re-election of Mr. Sherman to the Senate from Ohio, by a vote of 94 to 41, is to be regarded as no very decided expression of conservative feeling, although General Schenck, who is defeated, is of more radical politics than Mr. Sherman. There was, no doubt, a feeling among many who would otherwise have preferred General Schenck that the course of Mr. Sherman during his past term ought to be approved by re-election, especially as there was no very wide disparity of opinions between the two candidates after all.

MR. JOHN BELL, of Tennesse has written a letter favoring negro suffrage, with a property qualification of $250; and declaring for th admission of negro testimony in the courts, especially in all cases

which black men are concerned. He believes that their testimony will generally be found as truthful and candid as that of white men of the same degree of education. He forebodes, however, the early extinction of the African race in a state of freedom.

SECRETARY MCCULLOCH has brought out in his communication to the House on the subject of the decrease of our commercial marine some facts worth knowing. The loss to us in tonnage during the war is not, as commonly supposed, four or five million tons, but only, in round numbers, nine hundred thousand. Of these, eight hundred thousand were really transferred to foreign owners, and only one hundred thousand were destroyed by pirates—a very much smaller amount than has been usually imagined. But Mr. McCulloch advises against any modification of the act of 1797 that would permit those American owners who have transferred ships to foreign flags during the war to restore them now to American registry, apparently because he believes them to have been guilty of an offence deserving at least such punishment as is involved in a refusal to grant them any indulgence. While all honor is due to those who made heavy sacrifices of their property rather than resort to this expedient to save it, it is, perhaps, but right to consider that many merchants would doubtless have been unable to meet the just claims of creditors if they had refrained from doing so, and that their duty to refuse to adopt it under these circumstances may fairly be doubted in consideration of the fact that the Government afforded them absolutely no protection. During four years they were liable to be plundered with impunity anywhere outside our own harbors, and many had their whole fortunes in their ships. Under these circumstances, it is hard to say that they were not entitled to resort to any means of security that offered itself. And, as to their want of patriotism, it is not quite clear that ship-owners should have been called on to make sacrifices from which the rest of the community were entirely exempt.

THE execution of Mrs. Grinder at Pittsburg has furnished the reporters with a splendid opportunity for the display of their very remarkable powers of composition, as the scenes which occurred at the gallows were very revolting, and Mrs. Grinder's conduct full of striking "effects." We shall probably now have a series of homilies upon the question of inflicting capital punishment upon women; but there is only one thing which needs to be said about it, and on this the strongest advocates of capital punishment will agree. No matter how illogical it may be to make distinctions between the sexes in punishments, when there is none in the crimes for which the punishments are inflicted, if the hanging of women excites more sympathy for the offender than horror of her crime, it were better not to hang her, for the great object of hanging is not to put the murderer out of existence, but to deter others from imitating him. We shall, however, never find a substitute for hanging, either in the case of male or female criminals, that will satisfy the public, till the discretionary power of pardon in cases of capital punishment is taken away from governors, and everybody else, and a sentence of imprisonment for life is made really irrevocable.

THE Government, in the pursuit of its oblique policy of punishing the treason of rebels under the name of some minor offence, has caused the arrest of the guerilla Mosby. He is charged with having hanged two Union soldiers during the war in retaliation for the alleged murder of some of his men.

OUR special correspondent at the South in a recent letter alluded to certain reports which implicated the commanding officer at Beach Branch, S. C., in certain acts of injustice and cruelty on the part of the planters towards the freedmen. Lieut. Wood, 104th U. S. C. T., assures us that our correspondent was misinformed. He says:

"I was in command at Beach Branch up to Nov. 12, 1865, and nothing of the kind occurred. There is no foundation for the story whatever. My course while in command at Beach Branch was such as to meet the approval of my superior officers. I had but one object in view, and that was to render impartial justice to both black and white."

THERE has been more countermarching in Mexico. The French approached Chihuahua in great force, and President Juarez and his Cabinet retired in great haste. The latter, when last heard from, were at El Paso, while the national forces remained fifty miles from Chihuahua, "annoying the French."

THE young King of the Belgians was received by the people with the liveliest enthusiasm when entering Brussels. Arriving in the market-place Marché-aux-Herbes, such an avalanche of bouquets saluted him that he was obliged to rein in his horses, or leap over the flowers. The populace took advantage of the pause to press close to the King, crying out, "Sire, to-day, as yesterday and always, we are for you and liberty." The young King, who was very pale, clasped the hands extended towards him, and replied, "I know, to-day as always." His brother, the Count of Flanders, was melted to tears, and, letting his bridle-reins fall, bowed to the throng and reiterated his thanks.

GREAT cordiality seems to exist between the Emperor of Austria and the Hungarians. Francis Joseph has received deputations from the Diet, as well as other visits without number, at his Imperial residence of Buda. The correspondent of the *Indépendance Belge* relates that his majesty was so overcome by the multitude of these visits that on one occasion he confused the speeches intended for two deputations, and delivered each to the wrong body. But as they both came to nearly the same effect, the deputations, except in respect to some trifling details, were perfectly satisfied.

IN her speech at the opening of the Cortes, the Queen of Spain took occasion to declare herself true to the purpose heretofore expressed of respecting the independence of the American states once colonies of Spain. This declaration was made *apropos* of the recognition of San Salvador. The Chilian difficulty is attributed to refusal, on the part of Chili, to make reparation for insults offered to Spain during her difficulties with Peru.

IT is announced that Francis II., ex-King of Naples, has no idea of leaving Rome, as long as the Pope remains there, though this may not be long. The Pope, whose cheerfulness has been a matter of surprise, does not disguise his sadness now, nor conceal his fear that the fulfilment of the treaty of September, 1864, will probably be the signal for his withdrawal from Rome.

THE special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Jan. 20, 1866.

THE week closes with one great act of legislative justice accomplished, so far as the passage through the House of Representatives of the negro suffrage bill for this District may be so considered. The debate upon the measure, though too long protracted, developed points of much interest. Its advocates were able to show that the colored people of Washington are the owners of a million and a quarter of property, on which they pay taxes; that they take and read over 5,000 daily newspapers; that they own twenty-one churches and about as many schools, built and maintained almost wholly by their own money; that they furnished a much larger quota of volunteers for the war, in proportion to population, than the white men of the District; that they are as intelligent and moral as any class of people in similar social station; and, finally, that the suffrage to be conferred upon them relates wholly to the municipal affairs of this District, in which their interests are as directly involved as those of the whites. This, it must be admitted, was a strong showing; and no small share of the final success of the measure is due to the fact that its opponents were able to allege nothing against it save the trite and threadbare arguments of negro

inferiority and degradation, which failed to hit the mark of this individual case. Indeed, many of those who voted for this bill are warm opponents of universal negro suffrage.

It is important to explain that the rejection of the amendment requiring the ability to read as a qualification for voting, by the large majority of 64, was owing to the fact that the Democratic members threw their vote solid against it, with the avowed object of making the bill as odious as possible to its more moderate friends. Yet it is significant that not a single vote was lost to the bill because of this defect which would have been thrown for it when providing for qualified suffrage only. This indicates the extraordinary cohesion of the great Union party in the House, which carried this bill through by more than two-thirds majority, although two days before unable to agree in caucus whether or not to go for the naked principle of negro suffrage, without prescribing qualifications therefor. It is proper to state that quite a number of Republicans representing districts in Southern Ohio, Illinois, etc., whose constituencies consist largely of negro-haters, were very qualmish upon making this record. But they made it. The only votes thrown against the bill, besides the 39 Democrats present, were those of nine border slave State Unionists, and six recusant Republicans from the West, three of whom represent Indiana districts. The issue was not "dodged" by any one—twelve members only failing to vote, and those were necessarily absent.

Now that the bill is passed, and it is settled that it will also pass the Senate by nearly as heavy a majority, it is confidently predicted that it will encounter a Presidential veto. If the President is more disposed to conciliate the South than to co-operate with the present Congress in what it deems wise legislation, he will undoubtedly veto not only this measure but many others likely to be enacted. But all outgivings of his purpose are wholly without knowledge on the part of those who make them, the President himself being very reticent regarding his relations to the Congressional majority.

Mr. Stevens's proposition to restore the Southern lawyers to practice in the United States courts without requiring of them an oath which not one in a hundred of them can honestly take, met with unexpected opposition in the House. Although passed by the narrow majority of five, a motion to reconsider was entered, and it is doubtful whether any report in favor of its principle will be made.

That Congress is not wholly bent upon the consolidation of power in the hands of the federal Government, as some persons have feared, was evinced by the very strong vote by which it rejected the bill to charter a great corporation for the purchase and settlement of lands in the late rebel States. It evidently means to leave to the States all that class of subjects relating to partnerships and corporations, so far as they do not affect inter-State commerce or run counter to great national interests.

DIARY.

Monday, January 15, 1866.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented petitions from ministers of the African Methodist Church in Missouri and Illinois, praying for the right of suffrage for the negro in the late rebel States. Referred. A number of petitions were presented praying for further protection to American industry. Referred. Mr. Sherman offered a resolution prohibiting any appointment to the United States Military or Naval Academy of parties who have taken part in the rebellion, and removing a person named in the resolution who had been placed in the Naval Academy on the recommendation of a Kentucky Congressman. The bill securing to all railroads equal rights and privileges was defended at length by Mr. Foot.

In the House, credentials of three representatives elect from Arkansas were referred to the Committee on Reconstruction. Mr. Conkling offered a constitutional amendment basing representation in Congress upon population, excluding all persons to whom the right of suffrage is denied by State laws on account of color. Referred. Mr. Darling moved to instruct the Judiciary Committee to report on the expediency of amending the naturalization laws so as to require ability to read the Constitution as a condition of citizenship. Adopted. Mr. Broomall moved that a vote of the black men of the District of Columbia be taken to decide whether the white men should be allowed the elective franchise. Laid on the table, 138 to 12. Mr. Stevens offered a resolution that the Judiciary Committee report upon the expediency of so modifying the test oath of July 2, 1862; as to allow attorneys to practise their profession without taking said oath. Adopted, 82 to 77. The bill extending suffrage to colored men in the District was debated by Messrs. Kasson and Price.

January 16.—In the Senate, Mr. Chandler offered a resolution declaring non-intercourse with Great Britain, on account of her refusal to make reparation for damages to American commerce by her subjects during the rebellion. Laid on the table—ayes, 25; nays, 12. Mr. Davis spoke three hours against the bill for negro suffrage in the District.

In the House, the joint resolution from the Senate authorizing the Reconstruction Committee to send for persons and papers was adopted—yeas, 126; nays, 35. The discussion of the District negro suffrage bill was continued by Mr. Julian in its favor, and Messrs. Sitgreaves, Randall, and J. L. Thomas against it.

January 17.—In the Senate, the credentials of W. A. Graham, Senator elect from North Carolina, were received and laid on the table. Mr. Wilson reported a new bill for the organization of the army on the peace establishment. It provides that there shall be hereafter five regiments of artillery, twelve of cavalry, and fifty-five of infantry—ten regiments of the latter to be colored troops. It also provides for one lieutenant-general, five major-generals, and ten brigadier-generals. The bill was postponed. Mr. Doolittle spoke at length against the resolution for provisional governments over the lately rebellious States.

In the House, a bill to incorporate the U. S. Mutual Protection Homestead Company, with a capital of $3,000,000, and extensive powers to purchase, lease, settle, and convey lands and loan money, with a view to the colonization of the Southern States, was debated. It was opposed as conferring exclusive and almost unlimited privileges on a private corporation, as of doubtful constitutionality, as a dangerous precedent, and as a stride towards consolidation. The bill was laid on the table—ayes, 120; nays, 32. The discussion of the District negro suffrage bill was continued by Messrs. Conkling, Hale, and Van Horn, of New York, and by Mr. Thayer, of Pennsylvania.

January 18.—In the Senate, the bill for the admission of Colorado as a State was reported but not acted upon. A joint resolution for the distribution of 500 copies of the "Writings of James Madison," sending copies to 100 public libraries, to each State and Territory, and to each member of Congress, was passed. Mr. Nesmith, of Oregon, spoke at length in favor of the President's policy, against the doctrine of State suicide, and against negro suffrage. Mr. Wade, of Ohio, made a strong speech in favor of the rights of the four million freedmen and against hasty reconstruction. The Senate passed a bill granting the franking privilege to Mrs. Mary Lincoln.

In the House, the Committee on Claims made an important report against any and all claims presented or to be presented for damages to their property by our army from any citizens of States lately in rebellion. Mr. Jenckes reported the bankrupt bill of last session, with amendments. Made a special order for January 30. The discussion on the District of Columbia negro suffrage bill was concluded, Messrs. Clarke, of Kansas, and Boutwell, of Mass., in its favor, and Mr. Johnson, of Penn., against it. The House then came to a vote on a motion to postpone the bill till March. Lost—ayes, 34; nays, 145. Mr. Hale, of N. Y. (Rep.), moved to recommit the bill, with instructions to amend by restricting the right of suffrage in the District to all persons of whatever color coming within three classes following:

1st. Those who can read the Constitution of the United States.

2d. Those who pay taxes on property.

3d. Those who have served the United States in the war.

Mr. Schenck moved to strike out the property qualification. Carried. The House then refused to recommit the bill for amendment—ayes, 53; nays, 117. The bill was passed—ayes, 116; nays, 54—in its original form, which strikes out the word "white from all laws and ordinances relating to citizenship in the District of Columbia.

January 19.—In the Senate, the credentials of William Marvin, senator elect from Florida, were presented. Mr. Sumner read letters written from that State, stating that four-fifths of the Legislature elect were rebel officers and that the people of Florida were more hostile to the Government of the United States than ever. Laid on the table. The bill to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau was taken up. Mr. Hendricks opposed it as expensive and unconstitutional. He said the section confirming for three years the possessory titles to lands granted by General Sherman's field orders was a wholesale confiscation, and beyond the power of Congress. Mr. Trumbull replied at length in defence of the bill, maintaining that the war power of the Government had not ceased, and that the President and Gen. Grant still regarded the South as in insurrection. An amendment was adopted confirming the titles to lands for three years instead of permanently.

In the House, the Naval Appropriation Bill was considered, amended, and laid over. Mr. Deming, of Connecticut, spoke upon reconstruction, opposing premature action, and declaring the general disloyalty of the South. Mr. Smith, of Kentucky, spoke on the other side. Adjourned to January 22.

January 20.—The House was not in session. The Senate passed the bill authorizing the President to appoint pension agents and to define the boundaries of their districts. The bill to extend the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau was taken up. Mr. Cowan moved an amendment restricting its operation to rebel States. Mr. Trumbull objected that this would exclude Kentucky, Maryland, etc., where the late slaves need protection. Mr. Guthrie spoke against it, saying that it was not in the bond of union that Congress should send officers of the Freedmen's Bureau to Kentucky to regulate its domestic relations. Mr. Pomeroy defended the bill. Adjourned to January 22.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE principal facts embodied in Col. Eaton's "Summary Report of the District of Columbia" have been already published by us. An interesting account is given of the Government farms in St. Mary's County, Md., which have produced, "with great economy of labor, the best crops in that section of the State." Thirteen hundred acres, in addition to the gardens of the freedmen, have been under cultivation. "Besides the work on the crops, barns, fences, etc., have been built, and other permanent improvements made." The number of persons on the farms has averaged 500, about half of whom are laborers and receive regular wages. Elsewhere in Maryland the colored people are subjected to many hardships and outrages, including personal assaults, which go unpunished if the assailant is white. The law excludes the negro from bearing testimony in his own behalf, and he is unable to compel the good faith of his employer. The apprenticeship law still causes much

wrong by the unjust separation of families. Col. Eaton says he has aimed "to act not so much by direct authority as to secure the best possible administration of bad laws, and exercise an influence in favor of their speedy amendment." The intelligence offices opened in Washington and Alexandria have proved of the greatest usefulness. From July 21 to November 1, 773 persons obtained work under contract and were registered; and as many more probably were helped to situations. "Several calls for labor have been received from railroad and mining companies at the North, by which the introduction of a large element of colored labor is desired. For various reasons these calls have not yet been answered."

Some trouble has been caused among the freedmen in Mississippi by injudicious addresses and improper interference on the part of officers in no wise connected with the Bureau. Such harangues and intermeddling have been expressly prohibited.

The Alabama planters conspired, on the 1st of January, to reduce the wages of their employees on the expiration of their contracts. The freedmen not only refused to submit to this reduction, but demanded an increase, and it had to be granted before they would renew the contracts. Present wages, including medical attendance, food, and quarters, amount to $10 for men, and $8 for women, monthly. The demand for laborers exceeds the supply, especially for field-hands. It is said that over five thousand Northern men are industriously at work in the State.

Great improvement has taken place in Georgia in the relations between the freedmen and their former masters. "Jayhawkers" (*i. e.*, the evil-disposed whites) have been compelled to give over persecuting the freedmen and trying to secure their services at insufficient rates of compensation. The negroes, on their side, are more tractable, respectful, and law-abiding, and disposed to enter into reasonable contracts.

—The farmers of Somerset County, Md., recently held a county meeting to fix the prices of labor. These were, omitting details of specific kinds of work, $10 a month, or $120 a year, with board, for men, and $36 for women. They recommend declining "to hire day labor in any department of their business when hands can be more advantageously hired by the month or year."

—The James River farmers met at Turkey Island, on the 5th of January, and adopted certain regulations for the purpose of an "Organization of Labor," as follows:

"2d. A first-class field-hand shall be paid by the year $130—a first-class field-hand shall be paid by the month $10; a second-class field-hand shall be paid by the year $105—a second-class field-hand shall be paid by the month $8; a third-class field-hand shall be paid by the year $70—a third-class field-hand shall be paid by the month $5; a first-class woman (field-hand) per month, $5; a second-class woman (field-hand) per month, $3.

"4th. Each hand hired by the year shall have deducted a 'per diem' (*pro rata*) for sickness, holidays, or absence by leave of the employer.

"5th. Each hand hired by the month shall be subject to the same deductions as those hired by the year, and, in addition, shall be charged one dollar a month for their fuel during the months of December, January, February, and March.

"6th. For disobedience of orders or insubordination, each hand will be charged one dollar.

"7th. For leaving the farm without permission, one dollar will be charged each hand in addition to the loss of time.

"8th. Each hand will be responsible for injury or loss to the stock and farming utensils, if occasioned by negligence, and the amount deducted from his wages.

"13th. No hand will be employed who has been discharged for misconduct or violation of contract.

"16th. The rations shall be as follows: For men, three pounds of meat per week; for women and boys, two pounds of meat per week, or its equivalent. For men, fifteen pounds of meal per week; for women and boys, twelve pounds of meal per week."

These wages are professed by those offering them, among whom are some of the wealthiest and most prominent citizens of Virginia, to be "fair and liberal." It is hard to guess what they mean, or on what grounds they have the effrontery to face the world with such a claim. Taking the several qualifications into consideration, we believe that no farmer would expect to obtain laborers at much less than twice these rates in those parts of the Union which have not been ravaged by war, where the laborer's government exists by consent, and measurably under the control of the laborer; where, in case of dispute with his employer, he can expect to have justice administered by courts of law before which both parties will appear on equal terms; where the laborer's children are provided with education with little or no expense to himself, and where his ambition to improve their condition and his own is respected and encouraged.

—A correspondent of the New York *Times*, dating at Richmond, January 18, states that

"Throughout the whole State county meetings have been held for the purpose of fixing prices of labor, and in many instances they have been liberal and generous, while in others they have agreed on rates which will be ruinous to the working-classes and productive of trouble in the future. The reports of these meetings," adds the same observer, "conclusively prove the fact that equal and fair-handed justice will not be rendered in every instance unless forced by the Freedmen's Bureau or some similar organization. Property-holders are naturally prone to get as much labor as possible for a small outlay of money, and, with this desire, the reluctance to give up supreme control of the negro combines in producing concerted movements to grind and oppress the emancipated blacks."

With regard to the social condition of the late capital of the rebellion the correspondent of the *Times* says:

"Garroting and other similar means of attack, for the purpose of robbery, are nightly occurrences, and the columns of the local newspapers teem with accounts of such assaults upon every class of people here, high and low, white and black. . . . It seems as if a moral ulcer had fastened itself upon this section, and, eating its way to the vitals, threatens to permeate the entire body politic. The characteristic recklessness of the Southern people fosters the growth of this deplorable tendency, and it is also strengthened by the poverty and despondency entailed on this people by the result of the war. The intelligent classes are more or less affected, which statement is proven in the fact that they are partially indifferent to the startling and daily increasing amount of wickedness with which they are surrounded."

—The New York National Freedmen's Relief Association has published its Fourth Annual Report. Its income in 1865 was $291,624, of which $139,926 were contributed in cash and $135,978 in goods. England (chiefly), and France, Switzerland, and Holland, have contributed of money $40,690, and of goods $37,853. Its disbursements have been mainly for supplies for the relief of the physical needs of the freedmen; $181,030 have been expended or are in process of distribution for this purpose; $60,590 were paid for salaries of teachers, disbursing agents, superintendents, and officers. The Association has 206 teachers in the South. They have about 10,000 pupils under their charge, exclusive of the adults in the night-schools. It supports two colored Orphan Homes—one in Florida and one in South Carolina. After the present winter the Association will, practically, re-organize as an Educational Commission, although it may still retain its present name. Of course it needs, and will continue to need, the support of the liberal. The president is Francis George Shaw, and the treasurer, Joseph B. Collins, 40 Wall Street.

Minor Topics.

THE electric telegraph is usually so prompt in imparting to the press throughout the country a knowledge of public events at Washington that we are rather surprised to have found no reference in the despatches of the daily papers to the visit which Master Richard Coker has paid to the President. For information touching the occurrence we have been obliged to wait the slow processes of the post, which has at last brought us the facts in the Washington *Republican*.

Had there been among the conductors of our daily press a tithe of the enterprise which should animate them, we should have had at least three dispatches from Washington concerning the visit of Master Coker to the President. The *Post* would have announced:

WASHINGTON, Jan. 5, 12 M.

"Master Coker has given the President an interview at the White House."

And the *Tribune* of the following day would have declared:

"The *Herald* report that Master Coker had called upon the President is understood to be a newspaper hoax."

To which a later edition of the *Times* would have added:

"Master Coker has called upon Mr. Johnson. There is no truth in the report that he tried to assassinate the President."

But no effort was made by the daily press of New York thus to rescue this event from oblivion, and, except for us, the metropolis might have gone for ever empty of information so valuable. Our task

is all the more difficult from the fact that we must ground the unblushing public in the knowledge that Master Richard Coker is a distinguished juvenile vocalist; whereas, if the affair had been telegraphed from Washington, every one would have been ashamed to confess that he knew nothing of Master Coker, who "is thirteen years of age, and possesses a wonderful soprano voice." These gifts qualified him to go and pay his respects to the President, which he did, receiving Mr. Johnson's felicitations upon his great success in what the *Republican*, with a very pretty stroke of rhetoric, calls "the vocal world," if, indeed, the President did not himself use the elegant periphrasis. In return for this politeness, Master Coker, "who possesses good conversational powers" (newspaperee for talks well), no less than a wonderful soprano voice, took the President to task for living in such poor style. Master Coker said, in his fine conversational way, that if he were President he would have richer and more beautiful things about him. This must have taken Mr. Johnson somewhat aback, but he was evidently not to be put down by good conversational powers, for he rallied, and, placing his hand on Master Coker's head, replied:

"You must remember that in this country we judge of men by their intellectual greatness and moral worth, and not by their wealth or position."

He might have added that this was a nation which rather begrudges its chief-magistrate a well-furnished house; that it had been possible for the press to accuse the widow of a President of carrying away the very rubbish in the White House which awakened Master Coker's disdain; and that he ought to have some respect for it because the Republic prized it so highly. These reasons for living shabbily would have come home to a youth of Master Coker's conversational powers, we think; but perhaps he also appreciated the reasons the President did give, which, if not quite a candid response to Master Coker's remark, had at least the charm of novelty. The *Republican* trusts that the President's lesson "will not be lost upon him in his future visit to the glittering and princely courts of Europe," and we hope that the advertisement of his visit will be no loss to the distinguished juvenile vocalist's friends, who probably intend to take him to the glittering and princely courts in question, after first making our own public acquainted with so famous a singer. We think Master Coker could make the crowned heads a suggestion or two which would improve them; and we confess that we greatly enjoy the whole affair of his visit to the President. It betrays a quickness of expedient in his friends which augurs well for the vocalist's future, and shows how a frightfully overworked public servant can be turned to practical account even in moments of relaxation.

The trial of the suit brought by Mr. Swanborough, of the Birmingham Theatre, against the comedian, Mr. Sothern, for a breach of engagement, has developed some very odious traits of human nature. The engagement was made last autumn, just before Mr. Sothern's malady of the throat obliged him to submit to an operation, and it was in consequence of the severity of the disorder that he broke the contract, and refused to appear more than five of the seventeen nights agreed upon with Mr. Swanborough. But, the first night of all, Mr. Sothern had disappointed the audience by failure to play, and the manager had to return the people their money, as well as some four or five pounds claimed by dead-heads, who had paid nothing to come in. After this the Birmingham play-goers became very cold and critical, and Mr. Swanborough lost a good deal of money by his engagement with Mr. Sothern, although the comedian appeared in that character of *Lord Dundreary* which elsewhere had never failed to draw vast houses. The manager had recourse to the expedient of *papering* in order to fill his theatre, but the audiences thus admitted on free passes, though encouraging in numbers, were but lukewarm and niggardly in applause; and Mr. Sothern, speaking from a shrewd observation of human nature over the foot-lights, said that "*a paper audience was not like a pay audience—there was a coldness about it—paper was never lively.*"

It must be confessed that there is a disagreeable analogy between the characteristics displayed by the Birmingham dead-heads and those which mankind generally exhibits toward benefactors; and it need not take us long to get over the shock of surprise and indignation with which we learn that people who go into theatres for nothing are so ungenerous as to withhold applause habitually. It is known to most Christian moralists how exceedingly slow men who enjoy the bounty of Providence are to acknowledge the goodness which gives them health, riches, and station; whereas, persons who have neither are very grateful for them. Indeed, we fear that, in proportion as we are papered in this world, we are pitiless and proud. The favor seems a tribute to our merit, and it behooves benefactors to look well to the quality of their benefits if they wish to win our approval. When we pay our money for a thing, we are ourselves concerned in finding it good; but if we borrow or beg it, we judge it with unqualified severity.

This principle accounts not only for the liveliness of pay as contrasted with paper in theatres, but for a great deal of ill-nature in life. Does any one suppose, for example, that the critics would be so savage if they had to buy the books they cut up? But having the volumes given to them by the large-hearted publishers and generous authors, how mercilessly they tear them to pieces! How the cruel rogues gloat over the destruction they occasion, and swell with scorn, and talk of "the volume of ridiculous trash before us," and "the absurd twaddler who has printed the present collection of rhyme," and so on! Of course, the people who buy the books are never guilty of this ingratitude. They put them into their libraries, and lay them on their parlor tables, and say nothing about them, and a purchased volume seldom meets with criticism except from somebody who borrows it. One of the most terrible censors of the public press of whom we ever heard was a person who took no papers but those he found in his neighbor's area. It is the same with the art critics, as they call themselves. Has any one ever heard of an art critic buying a picture or a statue? They abuse because they do not buy the artists' works, and come away from the exhibitions, where they have seen the pictures for nothing, and write terrible disquisitions on the creation of the world, and knock the poor painters about with the hard words of abstract æsthetics. The fat, good-natured purchaser of Mahlstick's "View of the Fulton Ferry-boat by Starlight" never has anything to say about Fra Angelico or Bellini, but has a habit of taking his friends up to the picture, after dinner, and pointing out the merit of the smoke-stack and getting orders for Mahlstick. He has paid his money and he applauds, and even if he fancies the picture bad he says nothing, on the same principle that boys who give their money to see a calf with six legs never expose the imposture on coming out of the show, and it is left to some rogue who has stolen in under the curtain to issue forth and denounce the monster as in nowise agreeing with his portrait on the posters.

The principle is of universal application. If we buy a bottle of wine to grace the dinner we give a friend, we do not cry out that it is beastly stuff, though our friend has no reserve in giving this opinion behind our backs, and making a wry face before us. Who is it creates the clamor about accidents on the best-managed railroads in the world? We fear it is the gentlemen of the press, who travel on free passes; and it is certain that if any church-goer finds a sermon dull, it is some casual hearer, invited into the pew of a member who has paid a thousand dollars for the pew, and thinks the sermon refreshing. It is universally granted that mothers love best those sickly and peevish children who cost them most pains and care, to the neglect of wholesome and amiable little ones, who never tax their patience; and it is notorious that the good humor of ill-natured people is the only good humor which has any positive value. Nay, would the fair partners of domestic joy appear such prizes as they all do if people were not at great trouble to win them? And would there not be many more divorce cases than there are now if people could be *papered* into matrimony?

We have had a great deal of absurd talk (from the poets chiefly) to the effect that life is hard; but it must be admitted that we should scarcely be willing to accept it, without grumbling, on better terms than the present. There are numbers of persons (the idle poets among them) who are dead-headed through life, and we see how captious and discontented they are with our poor little world. Alas! life is too easy, as any reader may learn by asking somebody who is puzzled where to sleep to-night, or some bed-ridden invalid, or say one of those Sybarites who take to the imposture of street-beggary out of mere luxurious wantonness.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

COLONIZATION AT THE SOUTH.

Not only, as it appears, has the German immigration at this port more than doubled within the past two years, but in the year just elapsed it exceeded the Irish by nearly twenty-eight thousand. It is not difficult to discover the causes of this gratifying increase and preponderance. The most palpable is the systematic effort of various associations, among our native-born and adopted citizens, to stimulate emigration from the Continent. A more subtle, but perhaps not less effective, if indeed it be not the fundamental cause, is the political and social change which the war clearly promised and has since wrought in this country—a change which could not fail to exert a far wider influence in Germany than in Ireland on the minds of those desirous of coming to America. Both these forces, as well as the natural attraction of those who remain at home towards their kinsmen here, are certain to grow in intensity and to reinforce our population still more strongly from the Teutonic stock.

The many qualities which render this stock superior to the Celtic, not indeed for testing (which has its value) but for strengthening our republican institutions, are too familiar to require enumerating. Whatever made its advent welcome heretofore ensures for it a heartier welcome now. Already it had resisted in the States along the Ohio the encroachments of slavery across the river, and, in peaceful times, had redeemed the Missouri of border-ruffianism for a bulwark of loyalty in the second revolt against the ballot-box. The invaluable services which it thus performed at the West it may now repeat in the heart of the South; and it is in this direction that we hope to see the stream of German immigrants persistently directed by those who have it in their power to shape its course.

It may seem strange that this class of foreigners, whom we can charge so confidently with the support of democratic ideas, is well received and even invited by the South itself. Nobody can point to a German settlement there which has succumbed to the baser habits, practices, and principles of the community about it, or which has been anything else than a protest and an argument against them. The Germans of Texas disproved the favorite assertion of the slaveholders that white men could not labor in semi-tropical cotton-fields, and demonstrated the false economy of slave labor by a larger and finer production of its principal staple. They abided as steadfastly by the Union as by freedom, and endured unyieldingly the murderous persecution of their neighbors. Nevertheless, there is a genuine demand from the South for more of these people in quarters where a "Yankee" would be refused admission, or, if allowed to reside, would be precluded from carrying on his business. Diversity of language will account sufficiently for this apparent paradox, and explains why the *Pionier* and *Neue Zeit* might circulate without hindrance where The Nation would be tabooed and its subscribers jeopardized. The fact is, the instinct of the South, being trained to recognize "fanaticism" only when dressed in English, is put at fault by this red-herring of an unknown tongue.

It is this consideration, coupled with the evident gains for industry which the South now affords, that induces us to urge very strenuously upon the Germans the largest possible emigration thither. We are aware that objection has been made to the still fierce and suspicious nature of the people of the late slave States, but we have shown that Germans least of all will suffer because of it. They need not, as Northern men must, surrender their own liberal notions, and denounce them in others, for the sake of pursuing undisturbed their calling. One might almost say they would be just as useful without liberal notions, since the grand object is to establish amid the barbarism of the South a society retaining the ways and usages of civilization. We anticipate the objection that this equalizing process has far greater perils for the newcomer than promise of elevation for the native inhabitant. The spectacle of those Northern men whom the South engulphed and completely assimilated to itself, has been but too frequent and painful. We admit the danger, and therefore counsel earnestly against all isolated attempts to erect free labor and introduce civilized manners where only colonies can succeed. This is the true and pressing want of the hour. From any considerable body of German immigrants can generally be selected such a variety of trades and talents as will render a colony independent wherever it may be located. Finding thus within itself all the resources necessary for its comfort and prosperity, it cannot be tempted to forsake thrift for shiftlessness, decency for profligacy, humanity for cruelty, light for darkness. It will continue to expand from within, to found itself permanently in its chosen pursuit, and will gradually lift its surroundings to something like its own plane of life and conduct. On the other hand, the individual German who trusts himself alone in the social wilderness of the South will be pretty sure to be absorbed into the population around him—to learn to think their thoughts, use their language, and adopt their habits. A little organization, a little concentration of means and of purposes, will avoid all this waste, and accomplish infinite good for the whole country.

We may as well confess that, while we duly consider the welfare of the German immigrants, we perceive that their colonization is to bring the desired opportunity for the men of the North, who have at present no refuge in all the Southern country except the military posts. The continuance of these is as precarious as the will of the Commander-in-chief, and their protection has not at the best a wide or constant range. But if everywhere there should spring up honest German settlements, vigorous and self-sustaining, giving no offence and incurring no hatred, they would form a *point d'appui* for Northern immigration, and would extend to the single-handed adventurer a moral support which might cover him from harm. We could regret, except that regret seems almost useless, that the land we have laid open by our arms is closed against our peaceful entrance, and that we are forced to summon pioneers from across the water. Such, however, is the unpleasant state of the case, and interest and patriotism unite in spurring our German population to a well-considered, comprehensive plan of occupying the South, in which a host of their countrymen as yet untransplanted shall take an honorable and a profitable part.

OUR INDIAN POLICY.

Standing by itself, the war waged during the rebellion with the Indians would have seemed of huge and striking proportions. Not less than twenty-five thousand men have been and are now operating against the aborigines. From three to four thousand in New Mexico, under command of Gen. Carleton, have been fighting the Apaches and Navajos; and fifteen thousand of the latter have been removed as prisoners of war from their mountain homes to the Bosque Redondo, a valley in the eastern portion of the Territory. Gen. Conner, in Utah, and latterly on the plains and along the central lines of travel, has never had less than two thousand men, and during the past year has commanded more than treble that number. A full brigade of cavalry have been actively engaged in the Humboldt Valley and upon the Pacific coast, and another in Arizona. In the North-west, along the frontiers of Minnesota, Dakota, the northern part of Iowa, and the eastern slopes of Montana, as many as six thousand troops have been employed during the past three years—large bodies of them, under Generals Sully and Sibley, in campaigns extending over several months. At this writing, the military division of the Missouri (second in importance only to that of Sheridan, and including Kansas, Nebraska, Colorado, Utah, New Mexico, Montana, and Dakota) contains a force of from twenty to twenty-five thousand men, exclusively occupied against the Indians and in protecting our continental thoroughfares from their unremitting hostilities.

The advance of civilization here, as elsewhere, is literally "upon a powder-cart," for this large army holds open the great overland and Santa Fé mail routes, two thousand miles in length, with their daily and weekly service, which costs the country annually upwards of a million of dollars. It protects two thousand miles of navigable waters above Omaha, by which the adventurous pioneer may reach the El Dorado of that region. It guards the overland telegraph from the Mis

souri to Carson Valley. Under its ægis a hundred thousand emigrants go thronging annually toward the Pacific, while our scattered settlements that jut from east and west out into our vast pastoral plains, once familiar to us only as the "Great American Desert," and the growing overland commerce whose profits are reckoned by scores of millions, owe their prosperity and stability to the same military police.

How great are the interests thus fostered, and how important it is that they should remain for ever undisturbed, is evident to all. It is also pretty generally understood that our past policy toward the Indians and our present conflicts with them have effected little for the desired security. The cost of this warfare is appalling, and its disgrace deep when it blossoms into such atrocious crimes as the Sand Creek massacre. "It is estimated," says the report of Secretary Harlan, "that the maintenance of each regiment of troops engaged against the Indians of the plains costs the Government two million dollars per annum. All the military operations of last summer have not occasioned the immediate destruction of more than a few hundred Indian warriors." Indeed, it is an axiom in the Department that it is much cheaper to feed than to fight Indians. But it has only recently begun to be asked whether it is necessary to do either; whether savage warfare will not largely cease when treaty stipulations are strictly fulfilled, when honest trading shall be the rule, when agents forbear to grow rich on moderate salaries, and when justice shall be visited promptly and impartially on the lawless white man who boasts of shooting an Indian whenever seen, as on the latter when he madly runs a muck.

The Indian race within the American Union is variously estimated at from four to five hundred thousand persons. Those who are in treaty relations with it number about three hundred and fifty thousand, and the rest do not exceed from fifty to seventy-five thousand. The latter are mainly the Comanches of Texas, the Apaches, Yumas, Mohaves, Yampais, Hualopais, and Chemihuevis, in New Mexico and Arizona. The Comanches and Apaches are the greatest obstacles to the rapid development of the south-western mining regions. East of the Rocky Mountains may be reckoned about one hundred and fifty thousand Indians, of whom two-thirds will be tribes more or less civilized. Many are quite well educated, possess considerable means, and have most of the habits of an intelligent yeomanry. The mountain tribes number one hundred and fifteen thousand, of whom some ten thousand are Pueblo or Village Indians, for the most part living in New Mexico. These are quite as intelligent, industrious, and in every way useful a population as the Mexicans. Some of the Arizona tribes exhibit the remains of the ancient Aztec civilization. Small tribes are located on reservations in Utah and Nevada; but at least ninety-five thousand are entirely savage, and have generally no other dealings with the Government than the reception of occasional gifts or hostilities with the troops. The Indians on the Pacific coast form naturally a separate division. About one-half of them are more or less permanently settled upon reservations.

Now, our policy towards this people has been (and it is in theory more scrupulous and honorable than that of any other European stock which has invaded them) to acknowledge by treaty their primitive title to the soil, and then purchase it by paying them in annuities of money and goods, reserving suitable tracts on which to place the various tribes, and there instruct them in agricultural and other civilized pursuits. The system has not worked well in any one of its three aspects. The treaties have given the Indians an exaggerated idea of their own importance. The aboriginal tribes never had any national elements: they were and are simply clans. But the new American idea is the unity of man, in spite of differences of race or color, and the sooner the Indian is embraced under it, the better will it be for him and for us. There is the same objection of separation and isolation to the payment of annuities, which is even more disastrous in its effects, inasmuch as it has served to make paupers of the tribes. The manner of distribution has resembled a timid mother's alternate petting and scolding of the unruly boy whom she cannot manage. Its consequences have been the same, besides affording rare opportunities for plunder to traders and officials. To the rascality of the latter in debasing or withholding the promised supplies, money, or presents, are attributable many of the worst Indian outbreaks. Finally, the reservation plan is almost an entire failure. Had it been adopted with the view of uniting the Indians into one Territory or State, as was contemplated in the case of the Southern nations, it might have succeeded. One of the best proofs of the advantages derived from concentration is the progress made in the territory south of Kansas. Another is the fact, which is confirmed by the reports of the Indian Bureau, that the smaller the reservation, the speedier the Indians become extinct; and *vice versa*.

Up to the present administration of Secretary Harlan and Commissioner Cooley little effort had been made, in appointing Indian agents, to procure suitable men. The agents were, for the most part, decayed politicians, or "smart" and ambitious men ready to take their chance of promotion in a new country. Add to this, that the salaries have been miserably inadequate. To tempt any really capable person to leave home and civilized resorts for a life among savages, something more was required than a salary less than is paid to a first-class clerk in a dry goods store. Corrupt practices and habitual swindling were inevitable when low wages were joined to characters destitute of principle. The money thus worse than wasted has, of course, contributed to the destruction rather than the civilization of the Indians. Comprehensively speaking, it may be said that hitherto the Indian Bureau has *bribed* them into temporary peace, while the War Department has desired to *frighten* them into permanent quiet; and between the two they have been nearly exterminated. In 1836, the Miamis numbered eleven hundred; now, but five hundred. The Winnebagos, forty-five hundred; now, but two thousand. The Sacs and Foxes, then living in Iowa, now in Kansas, were six or seven thousand strong; now, not more than one thousand. The Pottawatomies have lost seven thousand in thirty years, numbering now but two thousand. In 1850, at Fort Laramie, Nebraska, twenty thousand "Indians of the Plains" were represented in council. In 1853, other hunter Indians, also living on the plains, and representing fifteen thousand, met in council. These thirty-five thousand, all told, have decreased ten per cent. since then. The Pawnees, once a warlike people, have decreased three thousand since 1848, when their number was seven thousand.

In another article we shall consider the steps which the Government is taking to apply substantial corrections to the abuses of the past, and redeem the national honor, so far as it is now possible, by a humane and just regard for the rights of the red men.

MORAL APATHY AND IMMORAL ANTIPATHY.

The vote of the House of Representatives on suffrage in the District of Columbia—whatever may be thought of the process by which it was carried, or of the propriety of refusing to impose an educational test in the very place in which of all others it is perhaps most needed—was an unmistakable indication of the resolute temper of Congress, and is a signal rebuke to those adroit manufacturers of opinion, those pseudo expenents of popular sentiment, who, whether from party prejudice, hardness of heart, or honest conviction, have always been tacitly, as they are now actively, zealous to leave the work of the Republic half done. From those who avow such principles the cause of justice has little to fear. The nation will not, with its eyes open, and with full knowledge of what it is doing, consent to an act of constructive perfidy; but then there is reason to dread, in spite of the vote of Thursday last, that the public mind may be confused by means whose employment and ulterior objects are not always apparent.

The means referred to are employed both at home and abroad, in the street and in society, in leading articles and in correspondence, in direct charge and in covert implication; the objects are, primarily, to cover the black race with half-pitying, half-contemptuous odium; to stimulate aversion for it; to prove its unfitness to be trusted; to demonstrate the universal "antipathy" with which the whites throughout the country regard it; to prove the impossibility of the two races living together in amity unless one is constrained by special legislation to live, if not in slavery, at least in a condition of slavish subserviency to the other; to persuade the world not only that this incompatibility exists, but that it is a very proper, rational, and Christian-like thing that it should exist, and so on. The ultimate aim is, of course, the degradation of the negro and his permanent exclusion from political rights. We repeat that there is little risk of the black race being deprived of aught to which it may be justly entitled

by its open foes; the danger, unhappily, comes from the direction of its pretended friends.

The argument that a righteous measure is *inexpedient* is, of course, far more likely to carry weight with mankind than the consideration that to disallow it will favor selfish ends. He who avers that he would gladly advocate such and such a policy, virtuous in principle as it is, but that his extensive experience and specific knowledge of the subject persuade him, reluctantly, to acknowledge that it would not work well in practice, has a better chance as a propagandist than he who bluntly declares he opposes the policy because successful opposition will get him an office. The man who, previously favorable to the colored race, has an immense concourse of friends (all likewise similarly favorable) continually bringing him bad accounts of the way the freedmen behave, and how inexplicably they, the friends, find themselves loathing all blacks after brief personal contact, and who, therefore, gradually modifies his own opinions as to their merits and capacity, will obviously be a more effective operator on public opinion than another man who bluntly owns he always hated niggers, and wishes they had never been freed at all.

It is true that the more thoughtful and enlightened may regard with suspicion the ringing of changes on such stale arguments about amalgamation, barbaric ignorance, unconquerable laziness, and unchangeable inferiority of race as were opposed of old time to emancipation, and now do service against enfranchisement; but such thinkers are not too numerous, and the ancient device of dressing up old dogmas in new dresses and getting them currency at critical moments under new names often produces more bewilderment than scorn. It is highly important, then, that all men who wish to see justice done and truth disseminated should resolutely unmask and denounce these scarecrows whenever they venture across the public path.

It is well to understand and to declare that there is scarcely any argument brought against the black man's having a vote which has not been vehemently urged against his having his freedom; and that—apart from the question whether, as the conditions of peace and war are different, a tentative policy might not be at once more practicable and more expedient in extending the suffrage than in according liberty—the uncompromising foes of one measure are, at heart, the uncompromising foes of the other. They are of opinion, admitting the possible hypothesis of amalgamation, that because Spaniards and Mexicans in the proportion of one to six make a bad cross (the cross, bad as it was, beat the pure race out of the country!), Anglo-Saxons and Africo-Americans, in the proportion of six to one, with immigration constantly widening the disparity, would make a precisely similar or equally objectionable one. They maintain that the mingling of races is more detestable when both are free than when one is free and the other bond, because *partus sequitur ventrem*, and it is better to beget a new slave than a new freeman. They contend that it is wiser and better to give he suffrage to an ignorant foreigner, if white, than to an intelligent native, if colored. They insist that we should take for demonstrated truths all manner of prejudiced speculations jumbled of physiological hypotheses and often at positive variance with known facts, not because they, professedly at least, wish harm to the numerous and powerful blacks, but because they fear harm to the sparse and feeble whites. They set up a painted devil—a hybrid bugbear—to affright our souls with the natural and human supposition that men are going to do what they dislike very much indeed to do in order to insure their own physical, moral, and intellectual ruin hereafter. They would have us pursue a course which, besides being unjust, is sure to entail obvious and absolute if not measurable disasters, and eschew another which is not just alone, but whose consequent disasters are not simply uncertain and speculative, but by many lofty and penetrating intellects are utterly discredited and scouted. They enjoin us to take as guides, and foreigners to take as witnesses, writers and travellers of a past generation whose theories and observations were instructive and valuable in their day, but are often supremely inapplicable to changed and unforeseen conditions; forgetting or ignoring that more lessons have been taught us in these last five years than in all the previous ones of our national existence.

But, however times may change or we change with them, it were a sorry thing for America, a mournful degradation from the moral pedestal she now occupies in the eyes of the world, were she to play the recreant and backslider, by moulding her practice in accordance with such precepts. The sanguine may say there is no likelihood of such a perversion; but if the preceding reflections are well founded it cannot be said there is no danger of it. There is a vast amount of irresolute, semi-bewildered public sentiment which the anomalousness of our situation and the desire for harmonious reconstruction are but too likely to bring into a condition favorable to the schemes of the class we have indicated; it becomes, then, the duty of every clear-headed and right-minded advocate of equal justice and common humanity strenuously to combat so evil a tendency; to put the people on their guard against the sophists, the metaphysicians, the physiologists, and the dialecticians who go about teaching them to do wrong that good may come; counselling them to take their hands from the plough while it is yet in the furrow; urging them to make over to their beaten enemy the crowning rewards of their victory; frightening them with

"Gorgons, and hydras, and chimeras dire,"

as the infallible penalties should they have courage to act up to the noblest impulses of humanity and resolve to do what is right.

Our position *is* anomalous. No other nation has been placed in circumstances precisely similar. Nothing is more natural than that there should be conscientious diversities of opinion. In the long run there will not be much confusion, not much doubt, as to the sincerity or duplicity of those that conflict. Meanwhile we may profitably remember that men who have been bitter foes to reform rarely become, at heart, the honest friends of its results. Consistency, to some extent, may be looked for in deeds when not in words, and it conforms with its laws that those who have combined to deprive mankind of one set of rights will not scruple to do all in their power, openly or covertly, to deprive them of another.

CONSULS.

Amongst the most important of the works which our renewed and strengthened Government must sooner or later (and the sooner the better) undertake is a thorough and radical re-organization of the consular system. Government has already ceased to regard it in its old aspect—a hospital for sick political friends—and has taken the initiative steps towards giving it a more vigorous and hopeful *ensemble* by a better selection of appointees than those who ten years ago used to drift into and out of office with the flood and ebb of parties, and by revising and enforcing in a more decided manner the consular regulations.

But the prerogatives of the State Department are too limited for effectual reform. Nothing but thorough re-organization by legislative action will render the service what it ought to be—the pioneer of our commercial enterprise and the principal channel of our political influence. At present it is neither profitable to the country nor the consuls, and a consular appointment is, to a man in earnest, neither a prize pecuniarily nor a social distinction worth making sacrifices for. Here and there an individual has been able to win himself credit, and distinction even, by fortuitous circumstances, some windfall in the way of a blunder in a local government, or a chance to operate for political influence in the days of our late perplexity. Mr. Bigelow, our late consul at Paris, may be cited as an excellent instance; but the wonder always was how Mr. Bigelow ever accepted the place of consul at Paris, so little commensurate in itself or its compensation with the status of the man at home—a fact which was recognized by the Government in one of the most graceful and creditable acts of the administration, the promotion of Mr. Bigelow to the ministership. But the services required of the rank and file of the consular corps are such as neither flatter ambition nor repay application, while the recompense offered is neither good pay nor good economy.

The service for its bettering needs much from the country and its legislators, and ought in return to bring, as it will doubtless under proper management, a greater energy and more undivided attention than have generally obtained hitherto. It needs to have its province and services better marked out, extended, and sustained, and its morale raised by something better to look forward to than a shiftless (or, in

the only alternative, hard-worked and thankless) four years' service; it needs to be governed with more rigidity and with improved *esprit de corps* and discipline, and it ought to have, and, it is to be believed, would, were the other conditions supplied, men devoted to it, watchful and quick to find any opening or circumstance which, taken advantage of, might promote the prosperity of the mother-land.

To those who regard a consular appointment as a pleasant sinecure, and its occupancy within the capacity of any man incapable of providing for himself otherwise, a résumé of the obligations of our service at present may be instructive. Firstly, and amongst the most important, is the acquiring of the language in use amongst the merchants of the place where the consul resides, without which he is entirely in the hands of the native sharpers or his own assistants, who are a necessity to him. In all European countries he should be acquainted with the French as the usual medium of official intercourse. So that, out of England and France, he ought to know at least two languages beside his own. He must be acquainted with all the treaties which have any bearing on any contingency possibly arising before him;* with all the important points and principles of international law; he must become acquainted with the values and qualities of all those products which the country he inhabits may or might contribute to the commerce or production of his own. He must be of such temper and intellectual capacity that the dignity of the nation he represents shall not suffer through him, as has too often happened in past years; of such integrity that the important trusts confided to him shall be safe, and their execution beyond reasonable doubt. It is not enough that he should be honest; he must also be vigilant. An instance has come under our notice in which a person who had obtained a false passport in the name of a well-known American citizen, through the fraud of an employee in one of our consulates, ran the gauntlet of half the consulates of Europe, committing frauds wherever he passed without being detected by the consuls who visaed his passport, while, at the same time, the passport itself was so irregular that it should have been stopped by the first consul who saw it. It is scarcely to be doubted that gross enough frauds have been committed on the revenue of the United States, through the inefficiency of consuls or the consular regulations, to have produced an amount greater than the expense of the consular corps for the rest of this century at the present rates of compensation, and more than enough to have paid first-class men to occupy all the posts in the gift of the Government. We have it from the most competent authority that the recent law for the verification of invoices by the consuls has more than doubled the revenue on some important articles of importation, has stopped smuggling in a great measure, and added many millions to the revenue. The general principles of the English laws establishing the duties of consuls are the same with our own, and the differences in detail signify simply that the system is intended to be more efficient in furnishing practical indications to commerce seeking a new channel. If a single change in the laws affecting consular duties can result in so large a saving, the enquiry is certainly pertinent: Cannot other changes be made in them with economical advantage? In discussing this question it may be well to consider in what respects the English consular system differs from our own, and whether the working of that system suggests advantages to be gained by changes in our own.

The instructions of the English consuls do not in material respects differ from those of the United States Manual, but the slight differences are significant. They point to a greater watchfulness to those details which may be practical indications to commerce seeking a new channel. In the charging of fees the English consul is especially enjoined to remember that "the consular system exists for the benefit of trade, and that fees must not be charged in such a way as to oppress the shipping interest, but rather that the consul should enable the ship-master to avoid unnecessary services requiring the payment of fees." In our own service, on the contrary, the efficiency of a consul is supposed to be indicated by the return of his fees, and a consulate which does not pretty nearly pay for itself is supposed to be a burthen on the country. In a large proportion of the English consulates the fees collected would not pay the stationery bill—in only one, New York, do they pay the expenses of the consulate.

But it is in the organization of the service and the development of a peculiar *esprit de corps* that the English Government has made of its consular officers effectual *avant-courriers* of trade; that it has succeeded in pushing English trade into every corner of the earth; by this that you find Abyssinians using English cutlery, kerchiefs of Birmingham on the heads of peasant women of the Abruzzi, the stuffs of English looms everywhere pushing out of the market the native products which have been the marvel of the world so long. *They* send a consul into every nook of the earth where a market can be made or found; we send one with the same instructions, and nominally the same objects, after the trade is established. English merchants seeking a chance for investment go to the Foreign Office returns to know where such and such goods may be pushed in; American merchants have often more reason to complain that their consul comes into and deranges or interferes with their trade for his own benefit. An English consul is the herald of exportation; an American the accountant of importation.

The English Government, again, makes its service efficient by making it permanent, establishing a line of promotion, paying living salaries, and giving pensions to those who have grown old in the service. We make ours inefficient by paying not enough to enable a man to live without some other occupation, removing him as soon as he understands his business to make room for some one who wants to go abroad and have his expenses paid by the Government. The public think it a very fine thing for a man to go to Europe and get a respectable mechanic's wages "for sitting behind a desk six hours a day," and as long as the present system remains it will be, as now, the most remarkable proof existing of the patriotism of American citizens, that a man can be found who will keep a consulate, honestly perform its duties, and obey all his regulations, for the salary he receives. We do not believe that there are six consulates in Europe whose salary will pay the living expenses of the consul, living in the most modest style which would be respectable, if he has a family (and no one else should be chosen for positions where social influence is to be exerted). Fifteen hundred dollars a year—the average salary of our European consuls of the first class—was, ten years ago, a sufficient income for a man of moderate tastes; now every article of necessity has doubled in price, and a house that could afford two servants and an occasional ceremonial dinner in '52, must be content, in '65, with one servant-of-all-work and no society, to live on the same income. We can assert, without fear of contradiction, that no consul of the United States at any city in the civilized world can, on his salary, sustain a respectable appearance among well-to-do people. Since 1848 gold has fallen to one-half of its previous value, and the sum insufficient for credit then is insufficient for comfort now, and the men who are *par excellence* the representatives of America before the populations of the foreign world, who represent us in a hundred places and ways where a minister does in one, are the worst provided for that representation of any men of their class in the world. We take at random a few figures from the English and American consular lists, giving the salaries of the respective consuls at the same places, adding, for information, the amount of fees collected by the English consuls:

	English salary.	English fees.	American salary.
Venice	£800	£76	$750
Antwerp	500	..	2,500
Buenos Ayres	1,400	296	2,000
Canton	1,600	..	4,000
" sub-officers	3,300	..	..
Alexandria	2,550	1,335	3,500
" sub-officers	2,350	..	..
Patras	800	..	..
Syra	500	..	..
Genoa	400	..	1,500
Odessa	1,200	11	2,000
Constantinople	1,800	..	3,000
Jerusalem	950	15	1,500
Smyrna	800	..	2,000
Do. other officials	1,830	..	..

The figures, perhaps, indicate not only the comparative estimation of the consular service by the respective nations, but their comparative value to their trade interests. Our service is ineffective because, firstly,

* "It is the duty of consuls to be conversant with all treaties, conventions, and consular conventions; also with the laws and commercial and other regulations relating to their consular functions."—*Manual.*

it is unorganized, and, secondly, because it is unpaid. The English consular service probably repays the country a thousandfold in the extension of trade effected by the earnest endeavors of a body of men devoted to their service, stimulated by the prospect of promotion and an ultimate provision for their old age or their families in case of their deaths in the service of their country, and directed by a watchfulness and minute supervision which, in preference to cutting off all functionaries whose services can be dispensed with without ruin, seeks every opening where an intelligent officer may be sent to explore new fields or cultivate others newly opened. The British Mercury has borrowed the eyes of Argus, and hunts out every place where he can swap an English jack-knife for any other known or unknown object.

The first thing we have to do is to borrow this larger policy of our mother and school-mistress. Instead of going over the consular list, pen in hand, as we imagine some of our economy-haunted M.C.s doing, to cut off every consulate which does not pay its own expenses, Congress should take the map of the world and find every section of it where there exists a population capable of receiving a cargo of American productions, and in every such district put at least one consul. Then abolish all existing laws on consular organization, and provide by law that candidates for consular appointments shall pass examinations and prove themselves capable of filling the office—that they shall only be removable for cause—that promotion shall be the reward of valuable services—that any man accepting office shall give bonds not to retire within a given number of years except under the penalty of the repayment of a certain portion of his salary received, or from reasons which shall be judged by Government to be imperative, and to be in all cases made public—that consuls who have had a given number of years of service shall be pensioned, or their families in case of their dying in discharge of their duties—that they shall in all cases be paid by salary, and that salary sufficient for the comfortable maintenance of a family, without any allowance for ostentation or ceremony except in places where they have diplomatic functions, in which case such allowance should be made separate from the salary—that an allowance, equal at least to one-third of a year's salary, shall be made to the consul by way of outfit, to be repaid in case of his retiring within a given term—and, finally, that the fees within a certain moderate sum shall go to the payment of a clerk, or clerks, as the business of the consulate may demand.

Then increase the stringency of the rules as much as reason demands, impose penalties for deficiency in duties, or what else may be required to secure efficiency; having paid for good service, insist on having it. Let every consul be obliged to furnish returns of the imports of the country where he lives, in the fullest attainable detail, and as well of the wants of the country not supplied by importation; see that he *is provided with samples of all of our manufactures* which could be introduced into the country to supply those wants, and let his reports be put at the service of the boards of trade in the fullest and promptest manner, and let it be distinctly understood that the value of the services of any consul to our commerce *is in proportion not to the return of the fees of his office from our* IMPORTS, *but to the influence he has exercised on our* EXPORTS, the latter being the true basis of the prosperity of the country so far as that prosperity is involved in commerce and, to a certain extent, in manufactures.

We must not forget in our trade organization that what we export we get paid for in the medium we call for—what we import we must pay for in the medium which suits best our creditors. Stimulate and extend export by all the healthy means possible, and import will respond in those channels which the interest of the country points out.

We have said nothing about the questions of national dignity as involved in our representatives abroad, or the degree of protection for personal rights in foreign countries, because we imagine that neither the one nor the other will be appreciated except by the small class of our people who go abroad. To them we need say nothing—their own experience must have made them sensible how far we are misrepresented abroad either by officers unfitly chosen or by the starveling régime they are obliged to serve under. It does not, to say the least, flatter the national pride to learn, on any casual need to recur to the depositary of America's honor and authority, that we must find the eagle shaking his wings out of the fifth story of a *maison meublée*, and be ushered into an office where is enshrined the representative of our sovereignty, incensed with kitchen smells and accompanied by all the surroundings and concomitants of cheap lodging-houses—to find a man for whose protection we may any day be driven into a costly war so poorly placed and provided for that he is the jest of the people whose respect he should commend, less respectable in all his surroundings than the representative of any fourth-rate European power. To speak clearly and briefly, the position of our consuls is a shame and injury to our country; it is such as to cause us not only to forfeit the respect of other nations, but our own self-respect, when we come to see it; and now that we have entitled ourselves to the honor of the world, let us do that which is necessary to secure it. We are very fond of talking about the republican simplicity which our representatives ought to maintain abroad—we deceive ourselves: it is only a pretext to cover a meanness unworthy of a great nation, and utterly inconsistent with a true policy or a frank self-respect; a pretext which deceives no one else. At home we may make what sumptuary laws we please, but when we send a man to represent us with another nation, let us see that he is enabled to pay some sort of respect to the standard of life and taste of the people he is to live amongst, and not discredit the country for the want of an income sufficient to maintain his own respectability, as is now the case in almost every consulate we have. Wherever a consul goes, the nation is represented by him for good or ill; let us be sure that the selections are good and the maintenance no disgrace.

A WORTHY DITTY

SUNG BEFORE THE PRESIDENT HIS EXCELLENCY AT WASHINGTON, TO A BARREL-ORGAN ACCOMPANIMENT.

As I, one day, went on my way,
A rowdy ill-conducted
Growled, "You low whelp, I want your help
To get me reconstructed;
A gone-up man, I've (hic) a plan
Of asking your assistance;
So give 's your cash at once, by dash!
And keep your (hic) your distance!"

Said I, "You 're not precisely what
I call a civil person;
You 're one I 'd list to use my fist
Much sooner than my purse on;
However, come, give up your rum
And all that 's been your ruin,
Drop your big airs, and your affairs
I 'll see what I can do in."

'T was plain my man from such a plan
Of doing things relucted;
"I do n't," said he, "(hic) want to be
In your way reconstructed;
Not I, by dash! and you I 'll thrash
For treating me this fashion!"
With that he drew a knife, and flew
Into a tearing passion.

Said I, "Heydey, why, that 's the way
They do things in Timbuctoo;
And the police must keep the peace,
And help you reconstruct, too:
Then (as I called and wildly bawled
"Take this man to the lock-up!")
Straight saw I come a giant glum,
With blue close-buttoned frock, up.

Said he, "I think the man 's in drink,
You 'd better not molest him;
'T would only get him madder yet,
If I should try arrest him."
"But do n't you see," I cried, "that he
Upon me run a muck did?"

Said he, "Mere play; it 's just his way
Of getting reconstructed."

I turned to go; my rowdy, though,
Was burning for the strife yet,
And muttered deep, "My grudge I 'll keep,
And have your dash-dashed life yet!"
"Is it not, then, just such vile men,"
I thought, "we 've bolts and keys for?"
And musing went, with eyebrows bent,
"What *do* we pay police for?"

J. R. L.

PEWS.

THE annual pew-renting at Mr. Beecher's meeting-house in Brooklyn concerns so many people, and interests so many whom it does not concern, that it is, in some sort, a public matter, and may be fairly made a subject of comment by the press. It shall certainly have no unfavorable or unfriendly comment from us. We have no reflections to make either on the operation itself or on the details of its conduct. Whatever want of taste there may be in the public exhibition which attracts the large crowd and excites so much pleasantry, is incidental merely, and in no wise detracts from our admiration of the wonderful preacher whose power draws people from vast distances to hear him, and forces them into vehement competition for seats in his sanctuary. In few cases would the system adopted at Plymouth Church be anything but foolish and ruinous. It can succeed only where there is great demand for seats. Only extraordinary power will create such a demand, and, where the demand exists, it is natural that it should be used for purposes of revenue. It is in its general aspects that the question engages our attention. The public are interested in knowing the best way of supporting religious institutions, and, at the same time, giving the advantage of them to the largest number of people, especially to those who most need or desire them, namely, the people in moderate circumstances. Religious instruction has become the luxury of the rich. Is there any help for it? If there is not, religion may as well be handed over to the upholsterers, to be used frankly for purposes of decoration. If there is a remedy, where is it? Must it not be found in some different method of seating people in places of worship? Here is the point. Three methods are in vogue: that of selling the pews and levying a specific tax on them for current expenses; that of annually renting them to the highest bidder; and that of leaving the sittings free and meeting the expenses by the voluntary subscriptions of those who are most interested and can best afford to pay. Of course we have no purpose to discuss at length the actual or the relative advantages or disadvantages of these methods; but the annual rental at Mr. Beecher's suggests a few thoughts bearing on the subject which may be worth considering.

To take, first, the unfavorable side of the Brooklyn plan, as that side is the most obvious, it may not be presuming to intimate that the "temporalities," as they are courteously called—in plain language, the money matters—crop out with an unseemly prominence in this method. When the pews are sold at a fixed price the financial movement is very quiet. The treasurer sends his bills to the proprietors, collects the rents, and makes his annual business statement. Should the revenue be inadequate to meet the expenses, the tax on the original valuation of the pews is increased one or two per cent., and the additional income is gathered up as quietly as before. Nothing is said in church about money. The bare mention of money under this arrangement comes at last to be resented as an impertinence. In the free churches the contribution-box is a frequent apparition, but so frequent as to cause no surprise and occasion no disturbance in the train of thought. The bulk of the expense is carried by a few who privately subscribe and pay their promised sum. But on the auction principle there is no escaping the ring of the coin on the counter. The money-changers have the temple for one memorable evening—the Gospel is put up to the highest bidder, and he who can pay most has publicly assigned to him the best seat. There is the auctioneer, fresh from his sale of dry goods, stirring up the crowd to pay down a good price for their wine and milk, provoking competition, tempting all, perhaps, to give more than they want to, and many to pay more than they can afford, and making no few ashamed of their impecuniosity and their back seat. Dives anticipates his place in the kingdom, and Lazarus must be contented with his dim anticipation of Abraham's bosom. The rich man comes up to the Christ, holds out his porte-monnaie instead of dropping on his knees, and, instead of being sent away sorrowful, is invited to take the front seat. This is not handsome.

It is not handsome either to associate position in the church with money. The aristocratic spirit will find its way into churches fast enough. Fashion will get its ecclesiastical authentication. The first society will have its chosen temple, and its favorite place therein. But these temples are not always associated with money; nor are these favorite places identified with success in trade. The choice seats represent social position on the ground of family or elegance or culture, all implying a certain amount of refined taste—bad enough, to be sure; exquisitely bad; Pharisaism is none the worthier for being graceful, nor is snobbery any the less offensive to the spiritual sense for having its name on the selectest visiting list. Still, though no less offensive to the spiritual sense, to the æsthetical sense it is far less offensive. Worldliness is worldliness; but refined worldliness is less shocking than unrefined. Money may be at the bottom of all of it at last, but money transmuted into gentle sentiment and lovely manners stands less in the way of worship than does money in the shape of bank-notes. There is such a thing as idealizing bullion, and pray let religion have it in its most ideal form.

But to touch a more vital point. What becomes of the poor in churches where the seats are knocked down to the highest bidder, and where the number of bidders is great enough to take up all the seats? The poor it may be said have no chance in any popular church, whatever the mode of raising the income. If the pews are sold, the rich buy them. If they are taxed, the poor cannot pay the taxes. If admitted at all, they must take such places as nobody wants. They may like good preaching as well as their richer neighbors; but if the preachipg be worth having, how are they to get it? True; but they are not usually pushed out as poor. They are not palpably made to feel their poverty. They are not known of all men as persons who are unable to hire seats. They are not forced to sit under the charge of demerit. Under the auction system, if they find admittance at all, they come in to take, not what is generously set apart for them, but what nobody can be found willing to pay for, what has been put up for sale and met no purchaser—in a word, what was left. And is not this to make poverty not only a misfortune, but a reproach, and a reproach in the very place of all places where it should be allowed to forget itself in the company of Him who was the great friend of the poor?

To balance these disadvantages, the rental system has one great advantage which it shares in common with the free system, but which the ordinary system of sale and taxation misses entirely. It breaks up the uniformity of audiences, and allows congregations to change at least once a year. The free system allows them to change once a week, which is better, admitting of a constant flux and reflux, an incessant variety, and at the same time breaking up monotony in the weekly assemblies, flinging the people of all conditions promiscuously together, permitting no associations to become fixed, no places to become appropriated, but enforcing an external semblance of humanity, which becomes more than a semblance in course of time. The custom of proprietorship in pews is fatal to everything of this kind. The society becomes more compact, but it does not become more sympathetic. It acquires an element of permanency, but it loses the element of humanity. It makes sure of people, by pinning them to one and the same spot. The preacher sees before him year after year precisely the same persons. For a generation, perhaps, his auditors may not perceptibly change in character; some will die; some will leave the city or the neighborhood; but the great body of them stay where they are. To the undevout it must seem as if the preacher could not but tell them all he knows a great many times over, and be tempted to tell them a great deal more than he knows for the sake of gaining their attention. The Word finds no vent or diffusion. Often the people cannot get away from the minister if they wish to. Their bodies are with their treasure, while their hearts are elsewhere; they own the pew, and cannot sell it ,so they go to church for their money's worth; they would go elsewhere if they could, but they cannot afford two pews; they wish it were in their power to give place to somebody who would enjoy the ministrations; but it is not.

Often under this system the minister cannot get rid of his people. He knows that they dislike him on account of his opinions. He is sure that they are talking and plotting against him. He would be thankful if they would go and let others in. But how can he make them go? They stand on their rights of property; they fortify their pews against the pulpit; they extend their fortifications by buying more pews, every pew representing a vote. They turn the church into a battle-ground, and are ready to fight it out till the minister leaves. This is no uncommon occurrence where pews are held as property. Under the auction rule nothing of this sort is possible. Discontent cannot be long lived. At the end of the year the malcontents have a chance to go. The preacher may feel all the time that he is preaching to people who, of their own free choice, come to hear him. Each hearer must decide deliberately whether to continue a hearer or not.

If any come who do not wish to, they must be very few. The audience will change materially every twelvemonth, and if they are floating, so much the better, for while they stay they will be alive, and when they go they will go to find something they like better.

But theoretically the free system commends itself as the most rational system. It is the only system that is truly social, hospitable, and sympathetic. It is the only system that fairly puts all worshippers on the same level. It is rarely attempted on a large scale; it is seldom successful even on a small scale. It is not generally deemed practicable. But until it can be made so, the administration of religion will never, we are satisfied, be what it should be. The difficulties in the way of its operation are very great. We have few rich ecclesiastical corporations, very few wealthy religious endowments. We have divorced religion from the state, and forced it to depend for its support on the voluntary contributions of its friends. The consequence is that few will pay for any religion but their own. But the time may come yet when the opulent classes will recognize religion, like education, as being a great public interest, to be maintained by those who are able to support it for those who are not. If that time ever does come, churches for the people will be established, as schools and colleges are, for the general benefit. All alike will share the blessing; those who can will bear the cost.

CERTAIN THINGS IN NAPLES.

I.

PERHAPS some reader of mine who visited Naples under the old disorder of things, when the Bourbon and the Camorra reigned, will like to hear that the pitched battle which travellers formerly fought, in landing from their steamer, is now gone out of fashion. Less truculent boatmen I never saw than those who rowed us ashore at Naples; they were so quiet and peaceful that they harmonized perfectly with that tranquil scene of drowsy-twinkling city lights, slumbrous mountains, and calm sea, and, as they dipped softly towards us in the glare of the steamer's lamps, I thought at once of Tennyson's description:

> "And round about the keel with faces pale,
> Dark faces pale against the rosy flame,
> The mild-eyed maccaroni-eaters came."

The mystery of this placidity had been already solved for me by our captain, whom I had asked what price I should bargain to pay from the steamer to the shore. "There is a tariff," said he, "and the boatmen keep to it. The Neapolitans are good people (*buona gente*), and only needed justice to make them obedient to the laws." I must say that I found this to be true. The fares of all public conveyances are now fixed, and the attempts which drivers occasionally make to cheat you, seem to be rather the involuntary impulses of old habit than deliberate intentions to do you wrong. You pay what is due, and as your man merely rumbles internally when you turn away, you must be a very timid *signorin*, indeed, if you buy his content with anything more. I fancy that all these things are now much better managed in Italy than in America, only we grumble at them here and stand them in silence at home. I remember frightful instances of plunder, in which I was the victim, at New York—in which the robbery had none of the neatness of an operation, as it often has in Italy, but was a brutal mutilation. And then as regards civility from the same kind of people in the two countries, there is no comparison that holds in favor of us. All questions are readily and politely answered in Italian travel, and the servants of companies are required to be courteous to the public; whereas, one is only too glad to receive a silent snub from such people at home. I was once little less than put off a street car, in Boston, because I begged the ruffianly Irish conductor to tell me when we had reached a certain point in Cambridge. Of course he carried me beyond it, but I had been so thoroughly quelled that for a long time I thought his negligence a kind of favor.

II.

The first sun that rose after our arrival in Naples was mild and warm as a May sun, though we were quite in the heart of November. We early strolled out under it into the crowded ways of the city, and drew near as we might to that restless, thronging, gossipping southern life, in contrast with which all northern existence seems only a sort of hybernation. The long Toledo, on which the magnificence of modern Naples is threaded, is the most brilliant and joyous street in the world; but I think there is less of that quaintness of Italian civilization to be seen in its vivacious crowds than anywhere else in Italy. One easily understands how, with its superb length and straightness, and its fine, respectable, commonplace-looking houses, it should be the pride of a people fond of show; but after Venice and Genoa it has no picturesque charm; nay, busy Milan even seems less modern and more picturesque. The lines of the lofty palaces on the Toledo are seldom broken by the façade of a church or other public edifice, and when this does happen, the building is sure to be coldly classic or frantically baroque. You weary of the Toledo's perfect repair, of its monotonous iron balconies, its monotonous lofty windows; and it would be insufferable if you could not turn out from it at intervals into one of those wondrous little streets which branch up on one hand and down on the other, rising and falling with flights of steps between the high, many-balconied walls. They ring all day with the motleyest life of fishermen, fruit-venders, chestnut-roasters, and idlers of every age and sex; and there is nothing so full of local color, unless it be the like little up-and-down-hill streets in Genoa. They are only meant in either city for foot-passengers, and a carriage never enters them; but sometimes, if you are so blest, you may see a mule climbing the long stairways, moving solemnly under a stack of straw, or tinkling gaily down stairs, bestridden by a swarthy, handsome peasant—all glittering teeth and eyes and flaming Phrygian cap. The rider exchanges lively salutations and sarcasms with the bystanders in his way, and perhaps brushes against the bagpipers who bray constantly in those hilly defiles. They are in Neapolitan costume, these *pifferari*, and have their legs incomprehensibly tied up in those stockings and garters affected by the peasantry of the provinces, and wear brave red sashes about their waists. They are simple, harmless-looking people, and would no doubt rob and kill in the most amiable manner, if brigandage came into fashion in their neighborhood. Sometimes the student of men may witness a Neapolitan quarrel in these streets, and may pick up useful ideas of invective from the remarks of the fat old women who always take part in the contests. But, though we were ten days in Naples, I only saw one quarrel, and, indeed, I can have much finer violence among the gondoliers at any ferry in Venice, when I choose to go out. The Neapolitans were only furious in traffic, being noisy in an inverse proportion to the slightness of their wares. They sell a great deal, and very boisterously, the fruit of the cactus, which is about as large as an egg, and which they peel to a very bloody pulp, and lay out, a sanguinary presence, on boards for purchase. It is not good to the uncultivated taste; but any stranger may stop and drink, with relish and refreshment, the orangeade and lemonade mixed with snow, and sold at the little booths on the street-corners. These stands look much like the shrines of the Madonna in other Italian cities, and a friend of ours was led, before looking carefully into their office, to argue immense Neapolitan piety from the frequency of their ecclesiastical architecture. They are, indeed, the shrines of a god much worshipped during the long Neapolitan summers; and it was the profound theory of the Bourbon kings of Naples that, if they kept their subjects well supplied with snow to cool their drink, there was no fear of revolution. It shows how liable statesmen are to err that, after all, the Neapolitans rose, drove out the Bourbons, and welcomed Garibaldi.

The only part of the picturesque life of the side streets which seems ever to issue from them into the Toledo is the goatherd with his flock of milk-goats. These mingle with the passers in the avenues as familiarly as with those of the alley, and thrust aside silk-hidden hoops, and brush against dandies' legs, in their course, but keep on perfect terms with everybody. The goatherd leads the eldest of the flock, and the rest follow in docile order, and stop as he stops to ask at the doors if milk is wanted. When he happens to have an order, one of the goats is haled, much against her will, into the entry of a house, and there milked, while the others wait outside alone, nibbling and smelling thoughtfully about the masonry. It is noticeable that none of the good-natured passers seem to think these goats a great nuisance in the crowded street; but all make way for them as if they were there by perfect right, and were no inconvenience.

On the Toledo people keep upon the narrow sidewalks, or strike out into the carriage-way, with an indifference to hoofs and wheels which one, after long residence in horseless Venice, cannot acquire, in view of the furious Neapolitan driving. That old comprehensive gig of Naples, with which many pens and pencils have familiarized the reader, is nearly as hard to find there now as the *lazzaroni*, who have gone out altogether. You may still see it in the remoter quarters of the city, with its complement of twelve passengers to one horse, distributed, two on each thill, four on the top seats, one at each side, and two behind; but in the Toledo it has given place to much finer vehicles. Slight buggies, which take you anywhere for half a franc, are the favorite means of public conveyance, and the private turn-outs are of every description and degree. Indeed, all the Neapolitans take to carriages, and the Strand in London at six o'clock in the evening is not a greater jam of wheels than the Toledo in the afternoon. Shopping feels the expansive influence of the out-of-doors life, and ladies do most of it as they sit in their open carriages at the shop-doors, ministered to by the neat-handed shopmen. They are very languid ladies, as they recline upon their carriage cushions; they are all black-eyed and of an olive pallor, and

have gloomy rings about their fine eyes, like the dark-faced dandies who bow to them. This Neapolitan look is very curious, and I have not seen it elsewhere in Italy; it is a look of pensive enquiry, and comes, no doubt, from the peculiarly heavy growth of lashes which fringes the lower eyelid. Then there is the weariness in it of all peoples whose summers are fierce and long.

The Italians usually dress beyond their means, and the dandies of Naples are very gorgeous. If it is now, say, four o'clock in the afternoon, they are all coming down the Toledo with the streams of carriages bound for the long drive around the bay. But our foot-passers go to walk in the beautiful Villa Reale, between this course and the sea. It is a slender breadth of Paradise, a mile long; it is rapture to walk in it, and it comes, in description, to be a garden-grove, with feathery palms in it, Greekish temples, musical fountains, white statues of the gods, and groups of fair girls in spring silks. If I remember aright, the sun is always setting on the bay, and you cannot tell whether this sunset is cooled by the water or the water is warmed by the golden light upon it, and upon the city, and upon all the tender mountain-heights around.

III.

Walking westward through the whole length of the Villa Reale, and keeping with the crescent shore of the bay, you come, after awhile, to the Grot of Posilipo, which is not a grotto but a tunnel cut for a carriage-way under the hill. It serves the purpose of a grotto, if a grotto has any, and is of great length and dimness, and is all a-twinkle night and day with numberless lamps. Overlooking the street which passes into it is the tomb of Virgil, and it is this you have come to see. To reach it, you knock first at the door of a blacksmith, who calls a species of guardian, and, when this latter has opened a gate in a wall, you follow him up stairs into a market-garden. In one corner, and standing in a leafy and grassy shelter somewhat away from the vegetables, is the poet's tomb, which has a kind of claim to genuineness by virtue of its improbable appearance. It looks more like a bake-oven than even the Pompeian tombs; the masonry is antique, and in skilful imitation of the fine Roman work. The interior is a small chamber with vaulted or wagon-roof ceiling, under which a man may stand upright, and at the end next the street is a little stone commemorating the place as Virgil's tomb, which was placed there by the Queen of France in 1840, and said by the custodian (a singularly dull ass) to be an exact copy of the original, whatever the original may have been. This guide could tell us nothing more about it, and was too stupidly honest to pretend to know more. The laurel planted by Petrarch at the door of the tomb, and renewed in later times by Casamir Delavigne, has been succeeded by a third laurel. The present twig was so slender, and looked so friendless and unprotected, that even enthusiasm for the memory of two great poets could not be brought to rob it of one of its few leaves; and we contented ourselves with plucking some of the grass and weeds that grew abundantly on the roof of the tomb. There was a dusty quiet within the tomb, a grassy quiet without, that pleased exceedingly; but though the memories of the place were so high and epic, it only suggested bucolic associations, and, sunken into that nook of hillside verdure, made me think of a spring-house on some far-away Ohio farm; a thought that, perhaps, would not have offended the poet, who loved and sang of humble country things, and, drawing wearily to his rest here, no doubt turned and remembered tenderly the rustic days before the excellent veterans of Augustus came to exile him from his father's farm at Mantua, and banish him to mere glory. But I believe most travellers have much nobler sensations in Virgil's tomb, and there is a great deal of testimony borne to their lofty sentiments on every scribbleable inch of its walls. Valery reminded me that Boccaccio, standing near it of old, first felt his fate decided for literature. Did he come there, I wonder, with poor Fiammetta, and enter the tomb with her tender hand in his hold, before ever he thought of that cruel absence that she tells of? "O donne pietose!" I hope so, and that this pilgrimage, half of love and half of letters, took place, "nel tempo nel quale la rivestita terra più che tutto l'altro anno si mostra bella."

If you ascend from the tomb and turn Naples-ward from the crest of the hill, you have the loveliest view in the world of the sea and of the crescent beach, mightily jewelled at its further horn with the black Castel dell' Ovo. Fishermen's children are playing all along the foamy border of the sea, and boats are darting out into the surf. The present humble muse is not above saying also that the linen which the laundresses hang to dry upon lines along the beach takes the sun like a dazzling flight of white birds, and gives a breezy life to the scene which it could not spare.

IV.

There was a little church, on our way back from Posilipo, into which we lounged a moment, pausing at the altar of some very successful saint near the door. Here there were great numbers of the usual offerings from the sick whom the saint had eased of their various ills: waxen legs and arms from people who had been in peril of losing their limbs, as well as eyes, noses, fingers, and feet, and the crutches of those cured of lameness; but we were most amused with the waxen effigies of several babies hung up about the altar, which the poor souls who had been near losing the originals had brought there in gratitude to the saint.

Generally, however, the churches of Naples are not very interesting, and one who came away without seeing them would have little to regret. The pictures are seldom good, and though there are magnificent chapels in St. Januarius, and fine gothic tombs at Santa Chiara, the architecture is usually roccoco. I fancy that Naples has felt the damage of Spanish taste in such things as well as Spanish tyranny in others. Indeed, I saw much there which reminded me of what I had read about Spain rather than what I had seen in Italy; and all Italian writers are agreed in attributing the depravation of Naples to the long Spanish dominion. It is well known how the Spaniards rule their provinces, and their gloomy despotism was probably never more cruelly felt than in Italy, where the people were least able to bear it. I had a heart-felt exultation in walking through the quarter of the city where the tumults of Massaniello had raged, and, if only for a few days, struck mortal terror to the brutal pride of the viceroy; but I think I had a better sense of the immense retribution which has overtaken all memory of Spanish rule in Naples as we passed through the palace of Capo di Monte. This was the most splendid seat of the Spanish Bourbon, whose family, inheriting its power from the violence of other times, held it with violence in these; and in one of the chief saloons of the palace, which is now Victor Emanuel's, were pictures representing scenes of the revolution of 1860, while the statuette of a Garibaldino, in his red shirt and all his heroic rudeness, was defiantly conspicuous on one of the tables.

V.

There was nothing else that pleased me as well in the palace, nor in the grounds about it. These are all laid out in pleasant successions of grove, tangled wilderness, and pasture-land, and were thronged, the Saturday afternoon of our visit, with all ranks of people, who strolled through the beautiful walks and enjoyed themselves in the peculiarly peaceful Italian way. Valery says that the Villa Reale in the Bourbon time was closed, except for a single day in the year, to all but the nobles; and that on this occasion it was filled with pretty peasant women, who made it a condition of their marriage bargains that their husbands should bring them to the Villa Reale on St. Mary's Day. It is now free to all on every day of the year, and the grounds of the Palace Capo di Monte are opened every Saturday. I liked the pleasant way in which sylvan nature and art had made friends in these beautiful grounds, in which nature had consented to overlook even the foolish vanity of the long aisles of lime, cut and trimmed in formal and fantastic shapes, according to the taste of the silly times of bag-wigs and patches. On every side wild birds fluttered through these absurd trees, and in the thickets lurked innumerable pheasants, which occasionally issued forth and stalked in stately, fearless groups over the sunset-crimsoned lawns. There was a brown gamekeeper for nearly every head of game, wearing a pheasant's wing in his hat and carrying a short, heavy sword; and our driver told us, with an awful solemnity in his bated breath, that no one might kill this game but the King, under penalty of the galleys.

VI.

We went one evening to the opera at San Carlo. It is one of the three theatres—San Carlo, of Naples, La Scala, of Milan, and Fenice, of Venice—on which the Italians pride themselves; and it is certainly very large and imposing. The interior has a *bel colpo d'occhio*, which is what many Italians chiefly value in morals, manners, and architecture; but after this comes great shabbiness of detail. The boxes, even of the first order, are paved with brick tiles, and the red velvet border of the box which the people see from the pit is not supported by the seats within, which are merely covered with red oil-cloth. The opera was also second-rate, and was to the splendor of the scenic arrangements what the oil-cloth was to the velvet. The house was full of people, but the dress of the audience was not so fine as we had expected in Naples. The evening dress is not *de rigeur* at Italian theatres, and people seemed to have come to San Carlo in any pleasant carelessness of costume.

VII.

The Italians are simple and natural folks, pleased through all their show of conventionality with little things, and as easy and unconscious as children in their ways. There happened to be a new *caffè* opened in Naples while we were there, and we had the pleasure of seeing all ranks of people affected by its magnificence. Artless throngs blocked the sidewalk day and night before

its windows, gazing upon its mirrors, fountains, and frescoes, and regarding the persons over their coffee there as beings lifted by sudden magic out of the common orbit of life and set dazzling in a higher sphere. All the waiters were uniformed and brass-buttoned to the most blinding effect, and the head waiter was a majestic creature, in a long blue coat reaching to his feet, and armed with a mighty silver-headed staff. This gorgeous apparition did nothing but walk up and down, and occasionally advance toward the door, as if to disperse the crowd. At such times, however, before executing his purpose, he would glance round on the splendors they were admiring, and, as if smitten with a sense of the enormous cruelty he had meditated in thinking to deprive them of the sight, would falter and turn away, leaving his purpose unfulfilled.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXVI.

ATLANTA, Ga., December 31, 1865.

AUGUSTA, the second city in Georgia, and said to be advancing rapidly towards the first rank, is a well-built town, well situated on the Savannah River. My stay there was only long enough for a walk through the principal streets, which are regularly laid out, level, and so exceedingly wide as almost to dwarf the rows of buildings on either side. They were cheerful with a busy press of pedestrians of various colors, and streams of vehicles; there was a vast display of goods in the warehouses and shops, and the newspapers were filled with advertisements of every kind. By its position Augusta is the seat of a large jobbing business, the river and the railroad connect it with the ports of Charleston and Savannah, and it is enabled to avail itself of these advantages, for it has received its full measure of the Northern capital which, since the surrender, has been poured into every Southern town. Concerning this investment of capital, I listened the other day to the opinions of a young gentleman from New York, a man of business, quite young, but with the appearance of a person perfectly well informed: "I 'm posted about this thing," he said; "I 'm acquainted in Wall Street—very well acquainted for a man of my age—and I know their opinions there, and I 've studied the working of it down here. A Northerner need n't come into this country to go into business unless he can put his money into something he can monopolize, or can buy into some Southern firm. You see if these people can trade with one of their own men, they 're not going to trade with you and me. It 's all natural enough—I do n't blame them; but it puts you and me under an immense disadvantage there. Then New York is bound to favor the old houses in every kind of way, and we 're under another disadvantage there. You know how it is with these countrymen and country dealers; they 're used to coming in and hitching their horses to the same post year after year, and you can 't change 'em to a new place; you could n't if there had n't been any trouble, and of course you can 't now when they 're down on us. I do n't believe they 'd speak to a man if they knew he 'd ever passed through Boston. They know in New York that one of us can 't compete with these fellows; can 't begin to do it. Then, again, nine in ten of the Southern business men owe any quantity of money up there, lots of it, and New York is willing to take them and set them up again, and do a great deal better by them than it would by you or me, in order to get its old debts. Of course, it 's all right; I 'd do the same thing myself; but that 's the way it is. I 've got this far looking for a chance to invest $25,000 cash, and I 'm going through to New Orleans; but I 've made up my mind not to go into business unless I can get in with some old house. It would just amount to this—with their advantages they 'd break a new man right down, and he 'd just lose his time and money."

Of mercantile and professional pursuits this may be true. But the inducements to Northern men to come here and engage in agriculture, lumbering, and similar branches of business which, being carried on mainly by the services of the freedmen and for a foreign market, are not subject to the drawbacks above-mentioned, seem to be very great. There is apparent a willingness, often an anxiety even, to secure Northern men as lessees of plantations, and large tracts of land, well improved and productive, are everywhere offered for sale at low prices, sometimes at prices that may be called ruinously low. "These freedmen will work a heap better for a Yankee than they will for one of us," it is frequently said. Other causes of this sacrifice of lands and rents are to be found in the belief that the free labor of the negroes cannot be made profitable, and in the fact that many men who have much land have no money with which to cultivate it. But although much land may still be bought cheap, there are some signs that these causes will not continue to operate so extensively as heretofore. Often I hear it predicted that cotton is going to command a very high price for some years to come; that therefore its culture may be profitable, though the laborers should work a smaller number of acres than in old times; and occasionally some local newspaper announces that the gloomy prospects of the planters are brightening, that the negroes who, after all, showed so commendable a spirit of devotion, faithfulness, and obedience during the war, are beginning, in certain districts, to make contracts and profess a willingness to receive a share of the crop as wages.

But, however the case may be as regards the business relations of Northern men in the South, I should consider it advisable for the newcomer, if he desires agreeable social intercourse with his neighbors, in almost any part of the South that I have yet seen, to restrain the free expression of any social or political opinions distinctively Northern. Frequently this hostility is avowed, frequently men make a merit of disclaiming it, but no one denies its existence.

The Georgia Railroad, 171 miles long, between Augusta and Atlanta, is the best which I have ridden on since leaving the North, the cars being comfortable and commodious, the officials civil, and the rate of speed more than fourteen miles an hour. It was on a Sunday that I made the journey, and all day the rain was pouring steadily, so that we could see the country turning to mud as we passed and every stream growing yellower. We were able to ride all the way, however, for the bridges stood until the following morning, and our train went on without delay. Among the passengers were Jews, drummers from New York, a few women, and men from nearly every Southern State. Everybody seemed resolved to lighten as much as possible the fatigues of travelling. Some slept, there were many whiskey-flasks in circulation, fowls were eaten, the newspapers of Chicago, Louisville, and Nashville could be bought, a one-armed man in the rebel uniform sold cigars, and it was assumed that the ladies would make no objection if they were smoked. In the course of the afternoon two or three of my neighbors, who had told each other all the stories they knew, began comparing their pistols and disputing about the comparative merits of the various patterns. "Good for your side, gentlemen," said a man, drawing near, "if you 've got pistols; but I do n't ask a pistol while I 've got this fellow," and he displayed a heavy knife with a broad blade some eight or nine inches long. He praised it as a faithful companion during the war and as being a fine imitation of the real old Arkansas toothpick. It might be called a toothpick anyhow, for it was a dentist made it, a right clever, ingenious fellow that could make anything. That silver mounting on the handle was four Mexican dollars melted down. In a difficulty it was the prettiest thing in the world; would n't miss and made no noise. All the company handled it and admired it. Then, addressing me, he explained how he could kill me with it in one minute—yes, under a minute, if I did n't understand its use. A man should know the weapon or take something else. Then he showed how a man unaccustomed to it would probably attack with it, and how, in that manner o' fightin', he 'd be killed right away. It should be held in the right hand with the point forward, not downward, and in making a pass with it one must thrust over or under the left arm, which is always to be held as a guard across the heart, protecting the body from the blows of one's antagonist. Of course he always expected to get his left arm pretty much cut up when he fought with a knife.

As we approached Atlanta, of course we saw burned buildings at the way stations, rails fantastically twisted and bent, and ruined locomotives—remembrances of Sherman and Johnston. It was too dark when we arrived in the city to see anything but the lights and an occasional rocket shooting through the rain. It was Christmas Eve, and it appears to be usual in the South to celebrate the coming of this festival with Chinese crackers and other fireworks.

Atlanta, as I saw it on Christmas morning, was a most cheerless and mean-looking place. The sky was dropping rain, and under foot the mud was almost ankle-deep. It had rained for three weeks. People walked slowly, treading with careful steps in the footprints—slowly getting narrower in the soft mud—of those who had ventured before them. The middle of the city is a great open space of irregular shape, a wilderness of mud, with a confused jumble of railway sheds, and traversed by numberless rails, rusted and splashed, where strings of dirty cars are standing, and engines constantly puff and whistle. In one place I saw beside the track a heap of bones and skulls of animals, collected from battle-fields and the line of march for some factory, moulding and blackening in the wet weather. Bricks and blocks of stone and other rubbish were everywhere. Around this central square the city was formerly built, and is now again building. Unfinished houses are to be seen on every hand; scaffolding, mortar-beds, and lime-barrels, piles of lumber and bricks and mounds of sand, choke every street, and the whole place on working days resounds with the noise of car-

penters and masons. The city is hardly less pleasing to the eye than the people. A great many rough-looking fellows hang about the numerous shops and the shanties among the ruins where liquor is sold, and a knot of them cluster at each street corner. The grey coats are almost as numerous as the blue uniforms, often very dirty, of the white and negro soldiers, some of whom are always on guard in the streets. White women are but seldom seen, perhaps because the sidewalks are nearly impassable; the men are obliged to wear the bottoms of their trowsers tucked in their boots. Negroes of all colors abound.

But though Atlanta, in spite of its newness, has a cheap and squalid look, which is depressing, it evinces much energy and life. Trade of all kinds is extremely active; the city is full of goods; and though the number of traders seems inordinately great, new ones are pushing into business. To a stranger it appears as if the feverish activity of the mercantile community must eventually bring on a crash, but the citizens indulge in glowing anticipations of the future prosperity and growth of their town. They point to the railroads centering here, and say that if the country around to be supplied with goods was poorer than it is and less productive, the mere storage and trans-shipment of freight would suffice to make Atlanta a great city.

In walking about the town on Christmas morning my attention was attracted by a crowd of two hundred colored people and a few whites gathered about the door of the City Hall. They were listening to an address from Col. Curkendall, of the Freedmen's Bureau. He had made many a horse-shoe nail, he said, but he had never before made a speech. All his life he had been a working-man, and he supposed that they too would be working-men as long as they lived. He had the meanest kind of a camp close by, with about 650 colored people in it receiving rations from the Government, and if any one of his audience was not able-bodied and could get no work to do and was starving, he would put him into that camp and let him have a little hard-tack and a poor place to sleep till he could find some work to do. There was no comfort for them anywhere without hard work for honest wages. No land would be given them. They knew that, it was responded from the crowd. Very well, then, they probably knew that some persons were expecting a negro insurrection about this time. Yes, they said; yes, colonel, they knew that, too, and they agreed with him that, though he was not a very big man, he would be able to put down all the insurrectionary movements that would be made by the negroes of Northern Georgia. He believed they would behave like men. Every right that he had, except one, was already theirs by law. The right of suffrage they would probably get if they showed themselves qualified to exercise it. In the exercise of every other right he would certainly protect them. Exact justice should be administered, whether it took a black man or a white man to jail. Then the colonel spoke of education, and gave good advice in reference to a great many points of conduct and character, and at the end was loudly applauded. When he told them that there were many good men in Georgia who would be their friends if they were industrious and well-behaved, who would deal justly with them and take care that the bad men of the community did not impose upon them, the negroes cordially assented. "That 's what we want," they said, when he told them that hard work and the education of their children would soon put the ballot into the hands of every negro in the South.

I noticed in the crowd several men with badges of colored ribbons. They were members of two associations, I was informed—the Union League and the Sons of Liberty—which have been formed for mutual aid and counsel. Neither of them is a secret society, and both have invited the inspection of the Freedmen's Bureau. As the meeting broke up I walked toward my hotel, and was soon overtaken by a soldier who walked along beside me and wished me a merry Christmas. "It 's Christmas Day," he said; "that 's what 's the matter." Then in a minute, as we met two negroes, he added, "And I 'm goin' to punch every d—d nigger I see." With that he struck first one and then the other negro a violent blow in the face. The men seemed too much astonished to retaliate. Afterwards quite an affray occurred between some white soldiers and negroes, which resulted in some slight injuries to the latter, two being wounded by bullets, and in the arrest of the soldiers by the provost-marshal's guard, which patrolled the streets for the rest of the day. In the course of the afternoon a colored man was shot and killed by a citizen in an altercation about the right to the sidewalk. I also met a negro who had been severely wounded above the eyes with a knife, and was then on his way to Col. Curkendall to make complaint. Besides these, I heard of no disturbances on Christmas. I had believed that the reputation of Atlanta in respect to these things was never very good, but I am told (it would be hard to say how truly, for the police is inefficient) that no more than five assaults ending fatally had occurred in the city in the preceding months of 1865. In December two were added to this list.

At the office of the Freedmen's Bureau in Atlanta it was said, in answer to my questions, that a minority of the planters are disposed to treat their laborers kindly and justly. A majority are indisposed to give adequate wages and to recognize in practice that the negroes are free; that the negroes evinced an unwillingness to make contracts unless in cases where the person wishing to employ them was a Northern man. The names of three men were given me, all of whom had been officers in the federal army, who proposed planting cotton next year, and who were offering as wages twelve dollars a month, together with board, clothing, and medical attendance; that no courts had as yet been established for the trial of cases in which negroes are parties, but every case is tried, and all sentences are passed, by the colonel himself; that the operations of the Bureau are to a great extent cripp'ed by the want of cavalry; cases of fraud and cruelty occurring at a distance from the town and from railroads necessarily go unpunished; that the military officers throughout the district of which Col. Curkendall has charge could probably be depended upon to do justice between the whites and the negroes; that very few complaints of any kind had ever been reported by the garrison officers in the country. In the Atlanta office I found recorded, as having occurred during the fortnight ending Dec. 13, four cases of abuse and cruelty which had been punished by the imposition of fines varying in amount from twenty to one hundred and fifty dollars. Two complaints, one of assault with intent to kill, and one of assault and robbery, were made while I was in the office. The average number of applications for redress is twelve each day.

Correspondence.

PAPER TOO FINE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Why should a great standard history be always printed on the whitest of paper? The booksellers and editors seem to make it an important recommendation to such a work that the paper is very fine and very costly. If this point can be secured, in addition to all the rest, it is assumed to be the finishing touch of excellence.

Americans living among Chinamen wonder to see the blindness of that whole people in respect to some things so very obvious that any half-witted boy of our own race perceives them in a moment. A Chinese joiner laying joist for a chamber floor is sure to lay it flat-wise; if he is remonstrated with he cannot see; if his attention is directed to the fact that, if laid on its edge, it holds up the floor without breaking or bending, he only replies that a plank is a thing made to lie flat-wise, and any other position is unnatural and absurd. There is no mystery even in theology greater than that of the intellect of a whole civilized nation being in the close neighborhood of a great improvement—the idea presented and almost pushed in its face every day for centuries—and yet no one, not even the most gifted mind, ever seizing it.

It is truly wonderful that no loud remonstrance, not even a faint expression of uneasiness, so far as I know, has ever been heard on this subject from the reading men of the country at large. The vast majority of them have small salaries; they can spare about so much a year for books; certain famous historical works many of them feel that they must have, if possible. Darker paper, in no way offensive to correct taste; better for the eyes than a brilliant snow-white; equally tough and durable; the surface smooth; the type, the ink, the very same; the thoughts and the style of the historian not a whit the less impressive; the price reduced one-half—why is it not a real benefit, a great benefit? If I can buy Merivale and Palfrey on coarser paper for the cost of Merivale alone on finer, shall I be told that the fine quality of the fine paper of one of them is of more value to me than the learning and eloquence of the other? I have never heard that the Germans find any inconvenience in dark, cheap paper; on the contrary, it enables poor students to buy large libraries.

Strange it is, too, that while our editors are continually preaching to us that the diffusion of knowledge is of the utmost importance to the success of our republican experiment, they are continually commending a practice the tendency of which is to shut out the particular kind of knowledge which, confessedly, Americans most of all need—a large and familiar acquaintance with history. If not the very leaders in the highest sense, at least the transmitters of thought—the multitudes of the country clergy and lawyers, the teachers of academies, the poor printers, the considerable number of well-off farmers, and others who buy books—these are no able

to buy much history, because the paper is so very nice. Many such a man has *some* sense of the value of a standard history; he is willing to give four, five, or six dollars, but not twelve, fifteen, or twenty. When I read editorial praise of splendid paper, I think of a crier going up and down our streets in country and city, calling the attention of the hungry poor to the choice food of a great hotel at five dollars a meal.

The origin of this white-paper bondage, I suppose, was the desire to equal the English press. We ought to have got above that folly by this time. Here we find accumulating a long list of instructive and charming historical works: Vaughan, Craik, Lecky, Palgrave, Palfrey, Parkman, Massy, Merivale, Martineau, Martin—treasures past utterance. Hundreds of men of moderate income could keep up with the press and buy these very important original and elaborate works but for the enormous cost of the fine paper, brought in by a silly, self-destructive rivalry. And it is passing strange that the numerous distressing expenses created by the war have not suggested the thought of cheaper, very much cheaper, paper—at least not to any such extent as to prove a sensible relief. I meddle not with the frivolous; let them have their tinted trash, their lily-white, and their gilt edges. Men who have learned to love history can afford to put away childish things.

If this communication falls under the eye of an enterprising publisher, I venture to propose an experiment: Try an edition of some great history on dark and cheap, but tough and durable, paper. If very dark indeed, darker than any respectable publisher ever ventured upon in this country, dark as some of the paper of the learned and sensible Germans, still it will be so much lighter than the ink that it will be read as easily as the very white. Prejudice will start back; some of the editors may call the paper "execrable," "abominable," "repulsively coarse," "discreditable to the American name," and the like; but if the edition goes off, the victory will be grand, and the benefit to the country, as an ice-breaker, beyond estimate.

N.

SOUTHERN WELCOME TO NORTHERN IDEAS.

CAPE GIRARDEAU, Mo., January 11, 1866.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I am aware that the time of my subscription for THE NATION has expired. I have read it with deep interest and with much benefit to myself, and only regret that I am unable to renew my subscription at this commencement of the year.

I have just returned from a two months' business trip in ——— ———. I left orders to have THE NATION forwarded to me, but soon found it for my interest to countermand them. I found it very unpopular, besides a little unsafe, for a person to be caught reading anything like an anti-slavery or radical journal. The only way that a person can live there in safety and do business (outside of a military post) is to profess to be a Democrat with Southern proclivities, endorse all they say and do, curse the abolitionists, the Republican party with all its leaders, and, in fact, denounce every principle for which we have struggled during this rebellion. They are not a unit on these matters, but sufficient of this spirit exists among all classes to cause it to be unsafe and unprofitable for a Northern man to do business there without adopting this course. To say nothing causes suspicion. Their principal periodicals are a few Memphis dailies and the New York *Metropolitan Record*. This last appears to be their text-book, and the number of copies that are circulated through that country is surprising. They fear and despise the officers of the Freedmen's Bureau, the military, and the negroes. The latter *they wish to control themselves*, or else have them taken from the country.

There is a diversity of opinion regarding labor, and how they are to raise their cotton under the new order of things. Some are in favor of encouraging foreign and Northern emigration. But their prejudices are too strong yet for this scheme to be popular. They hate the *Yankees* (as they term all Northern men) with a vengeance. I heard an ex-rebel officer say that, if this earth was a bombshell, and he held the fuse, he would soon get satisfaction from the d——d Yankees. Such expressions are common.

I intend returning to ——— ——— or going to Texas in the spring, and, of course, shall be deprived of the privilege of reading THE NATION for the present. Respectfully, ——— ———.

[The above communication confirms quite strikingly the statements of 'A. W. K." presented last week. From both it is clear that the influences on which we rely for regenerating Southern society are impotent, for the reason that the South will not tolerate their introduction. In spite of war and victory the North has not gained for her citizens the right to travel from the Ohio to the Gulf with unfettered lips and uncowed consciences. While this is so, it is idle to look for that assimilation on which we depend for the future harmony of the two sections. Until we can have free speech and free thought in every corner of the South, we must despair of shaking the now reigning alliance of brute force, ignorance, and unconquered hatred.—ED. NATION.]

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

SCARCELY the ripple of a rumor disturbs the calm surface of the publishing trade in America at the present time. The quiet, however, is not that of death, but of fulness of life. Like the nations who have no history, the absence of notoriety implies plenty and prosperity. New engagements and enterprises are rarely entered on, because all parties find profitable employment in the fulfilment of plans long previously adopted and the supply of stock already established in the market. The constantly increasing cost of manufacturing books, arising from the high price of paper, etc., is the prevailing topic of interest among the trade. It appears certain that a strong effort will be made during the present Congress to relieve all branches of trade connected with the commerce of literature from the taxation of the internal revenue system, as without this the production of books will cease to be profitable—in view of the superior facilities enjoyed abroad—and to increase the duty on foreign books would be a measure at once unpopular, and opposed to the revenue principle of the present tariff. Large orders have gone out for paper from Belgium, forwarded by most of the publishing firms of importance. From some unexplained causes, this youngest of the European kingdoms is monopolizing the supply of the lower-priced printing papers, and has already beaten English enterprise and capital in their own country, the daily customs returns of goods entered at the port of London averaging some hundred bales of Belgium paper. It is used most extensively for newspapers, popular magazines, and other cheap publications, and is now, in spite of a high duty, largely making its way into the United States.

—One of the most curious things in Mr. Wheeler's very curious and learned "Dictionary of the Noted Names of Fiction," lately published by Ticknor & Fields, is his identification of "Mother Goose"—*the* Mother Goose of the world-famous "Melodies"—with a real person of New England origin. According to Mr. Wheeler, she belonged to a wealthy family in Boston, where her eldest daughter, Elizabeth Goose, was married by Cotton Mather, in 1715, to an enterprising and industrious printer named Thomas Fleet, and in due time gave birth to a son. Like most mothers-in-law in our day, the importance of Mrs. Goose increased with the appearance of her grandchild, and poor Mr. Fleet, half distracted with her endless nursery ditties, finding all other means fail, tried what ridicule could effect, and actually printed a book with the title, "Songs for the Nursery; or, Mother Goose's Melodies for Children. Printed by T. Fleet, at his Printing House, Pudding Lane (now Devonshire Street), Boston. 1719. Price ten coppers." Mr. Wheeler does not mention where a copy of this *editio princeps* may be seen or its current value among New England antiquaries. His circumstantial account, which we have abridged above, is written with all the seriousness of truth, but it is certainly a remarkable coincidence that the same name should have been used in another language by Perrault, in his "Contes de ma Mère Oye" (Mother Goose), twenty years before, in 1697. The general currency of cant names and words when once adopted is very remarkable, and has never been explained. There are in works of the beginning of the last century two accounts of a noted commander of the West India merchantman, *Black Eagle*, Captain Fudge, called from his notorious habit of romancing Lying Fudge; and there can scarcely be a doubt that Mr. Burchell's famous exclamation "Fudge," long a part of the language, took its rise from this individual. A better known instance is the verb "to chouse"—this certainly originated with the rogueries and impositions of a foreign impostor who passed himself off as a Turkish "chiaus" or envoy during the reign of Charles II., and is often referred to in the literature of the time.

—Until the publication of his new book, where the fact is mentioned, we were unaware that the long absence and apparent desertion, indeed, of his native land, by Elihu Burritt, "the learned blacksmith," were caused by his official position as United States Consul at Birmingham. The duties of his post are probably not of a confining nature; at all events they did not suffer by the pleasant two months' stroll, on foot, described in "A Walk from London to Land's End and Back, with Notes by the Way," just brought out in

London by S. Low & Co. The adventure was undertaken in the summer of 1864, a year in which Mr. Burritt sums up his exertions by saying, "In addition to this pedestrianism, I have written a book of four hundred pages, travelled several thousand miles by railway, lectured about sixty times, and performed other labors with foot, tongue, and pen; so, on the whole, it has been one of the busiest as well as the most enjoyable years of my life." Mr. Burritt's descriptions and reflections show a mind of native refinement as well as a taste cultivated by learning. The English have had few travellers among them so disposed to take a kindly view of things, and appear well satisfied with the impressions recorded by the author.

—Messrs. Macmillan & Co. announce that they "hope to publish" Mr. Baker's important book, "The Albert Nyanza, Great Basin of the Nile, and Explorations at the Nile Sources," to be illustrated by wood-engravings and chromo-lithographs from Mr. Baker's sketches, and a new map of his route through regions previously unexplored. The fact that in all his arduous and perilous adventures he was accompanied by his wife, "who by her conduct has shown what the wife of a gallant explorer can accomplish in duty to her husband" (to quote the rather awkward words of Sir Roderick Murchison), is a new feature in the annals of African discovery, and lends a more lively interest to the history of the expedition. Mrs. Baker's endurance seems to have been heroic; on one occasion she remained insensible for *seven days* from the effects of a sunstroke.

—The attempt to combine an intellectual feature with the material triumphs of art and industry at the French Universal Exposition of 1867 is likely to meet with success, according to the plan announced by M. Duruy, Minister of Public Instruction. The reports recording the literary, scientific, and moral achievements of France for the last twenty years are being undertaken by the most competent persons, with the certainty of a valuable result. To M. Sainte-Beuve is entrusted the survey of literary subjects; Vicomte de Guerroniere will report on the progress of moral science and political economy; M. Leverrier on astronomy; and M. Dumas on mathematics and physics. Other branches of knowledge will be undertaken by savans equally capable with those already named of doing them justice.

—In a letter to the *Athenæum* Mr. John Payne Collier gives some curious particulars about the destination of his privately printed series of books relating to Elizabethan literature, etc., undertaken with a view of rendering it impossible that some of the scarcest and most valuable English books should ever be lost to our language. Concerning the destination of the fifty copies to which the impressions are limited, he says: "Among the millions who compose our metropolitan population only a single exemplar is taken. The British Museum has not one of the originals (so far as I can ascertain from the multifarious and overgrown catalogues), and yet it has never given the slightest support to my undertaking. In London and its neighborhood there is no library, either public or private, that seems to wish to possess even such a book as a faithful reproduction of the first edition of the works of Lord Surrey and Sir Thomas Wyat, whose poems almost alone fill the long dreary interval between the reigns of Richard II. or Henry IV. and that of Elizabeth. I am not disheartened by this fact, because elsewhere I have met with abundant support, especially in Scotland, Germany, and the United States, while several of my printed performances find their way even to Egypt, the Cape of Good Hope, India, and Australia." A nearly complete set of these choice reprints is in the possession of Mr. David G. Francis, of 506 Broadway, under whose care is rapidly progressing the beautiful "Riverside Press" reprint of Mr. Collier's "Bibliographical and Critical Account of the Rarest Books in the English Language," with the sanction of the venerable author, who expresses his great gratification at this proof of the estimation of his labors in behalf of the early literature of England, the common inheritance of both countries.

—The vagaries of the censorship of the press in France have often been exhibited in a ludicrous fashion, but the last instance of the application of its powers seems really too absurd to be true—as we are assured it is. It seems that a gentleman well known in France as a translator of English books—Mr. William Hughes—lately applied to the office of the censorship, technically known as the Paris Board of Index, for the necessary permission to authorize the sale of a French version of Thackeray's "Jeames's Diary," named for the foreign market "Memoirs of an English Valet." The official stamp legalizing the publication, however, was refused, on the grounds that the book "contains strictures on the British aristocracy of such intense acerbity that remonstrances from her Majesty's Government might be the consequence of its authorized circulation!" It is of course in vain to pry into the mysterious depths of the Imperial policy, but it would almost seem that its creatures had an inkling of the honest warmth and indignation that inspired all Thackeray's writings respecting the unreasoning infatuation of Napoleonism and the tinsel splendors of the Second Empire. An additional evidence of this tendency is given in the last number of the "Cornhill Magazine." It contains a reprint of an entire small volume by Thackeray, "The Second Funeral of Napoleon, by Michael Angelo Titmarsh." It was published in London in 1841, but fell so dead from the press that it is almost as good as MS. The work is not in Thackeray's best vein, and is scarcely worth resuscitating except for the interest now felt in everything belonging to him. A friend communicates a note received from him in answer to the intimation of the non-success of the tiny volume. "So your poor Titmarsh has made another *fiasco*. How are we to take this great stupid public by the ears? Never mind, I think I have something that will surprise them yet." This was evidently an allusion to Vanity Fair, which he had begun at that time.

—Translations of Homer have taken their place as an established literary feature of the time; a new one might be chronicled almost every week. The latest mentioned is a complete version of the "Iliad" by a gentleman whose fame was won in other fields, Sir John Herschel. He is not, however, entirely unknown as a translator, having published the first book of the "Iliad" in the "Cornhill Magazine" a year or two ago. It was in hexameter verse, from which it is fair to infer that the forthcoming version will be in the same measure. A new translation of the "Odyssey" has appeared by the Rev. George Musgrave, in two volumes, similar in appearance to Lord Derby's "Iliad." The author professes to have written it on the sofa during the intervals of a long attack of gout, and adds, "Lord Derby, as we all know, wrote his translation under similar circumstances." This exquisitely simple claim of circumstantial literary relationship reminds one of what Dickens calls "the profoundly unreasonable grounds on which an editor is often urged to accept unsuitable articles—such as having been to school with the writer's husband's brother-in-law or having lent an alpenstock, in Switzerland, to the writer's wife's nephew, when that interesting stranger had broken his own." The highest honors of Homeric translation seem reserved, in the opinion of the best judges, for Mr. Philip L. Worsley, who makes use of the Spenserian stanza in his new version of the "Iliad," as he had already employed it with equal success for the "Odyssey," published a few years since by Messrs. Blackwood.

—The name of Sir Edmund Head is mentioned, apparently by authority, as the probable successor to Mr. Antonio Panizzi on his contemplated retirement from the office of chief librarian at the British Museum. This seems a remarkable change of circumstances for a man who was for seven years, as Governor-General of Canada, viceroy of a great empire. Sir Edmund has, however, shown his literary taste by appearing several times as an author. One of his best known works is "The Hand-Book of Spanish Painters," published uniformly with the first edition of Kugler's "Italian School," and now out of print. His latest book is a small philological tract, "Two Chapters on Shall and Will." Sir Edmund Head is sometimes confounded with his cousin, Sir Francis Head, the better known and highly popular writer of "Rough Notes of a Journey across the Pampas," and "Bubbles from the Brunnen of Nassau," a book that made the fortune of several of the more obscure German watering-places by the crowds of English attracted to them by Sir Francis Head's eulogies of their salubrity and the cheapness of their accommodations. Sir Francis is the senior of Sir Edmund by about ten years, and was born in 1793.

—The number of fine-art biographies will be increased by a book now in press by Messrs. Black, of Edinburgh, "Life of David Roberts, R.A., compiled from his Journals and other Sources, by James Ballantine. Illustrated with etchings by the artist, and engravings from his pen-and-ink sketches." Roberts was remarkable for the neatness and precision of all his drawings, writings, etc. Like Claude Lorraine, he kept a "Liber Veritatis," a catalogue of every picture he executed, with a drawing of it, and the particulars of its sale, purchaser, etc. His diaries, journals, etc., form an unusually ample store of materials for a biographer. It has been remarked that of all professional classes lawyers form the subjects of the most interesting biographies, and doctors of the worst. Biographies of artists have until of late been hardly numerous enough in English to admit of comparison. One of the first of the series—Northcote's "Life of Sir Joshua Reynolds," ranks among the best; and at the very opposite end of the scale must be placed one of the latest and most pretentious, Thornbury's "Life of Turner." The memoirs of William Hunt, the water-color painter, with chromo-lithographs of some of his matchless gems of color, are also promised for the present season.

—The scheme for an exhibition of historical British portraits, forming a chronological series of contemporary representatives of distinguished men of the British Islands, is proceeding to completion with great success, and is expected to form the most interesting of the exhibitions of the

coming season in London, artistically as well as historically. It was set on foot by Lord Derby, with whom most of the nobility and public bodies, as the universities, etc., are in co-operation, under the management of a commission of the fine arts connected with the Government schools of design. The gallery made use of is a portion of the building employed for a similar purpose at the great Exhibition of 1862. It is calculated to hold about eight hundred pictures. This number, it was estimated, would afford sufficient room to include the great men of history as low down as the Revolution of 1688, but it is now said that the *embarras de richesse* will place the limit of this first exhibition about the era of Cromwell and the Commonwealth. In the scrutiny for original portraits now in active operation, many choice pictures will undoubtedly be disinterred from the ancestral manor-houses where they have long remained disregarded. The commissioners have issued a list of persons of whom they desire to procure original paintings. Some of them are known familiarly by engravings, but of course the object is to trace the present abiding-place of the picture from which the print was copied. Among the desiderata are portraits of Sir John Oldcastle, Lord Cobham the Protestant martyr, Cardinal Beaufort, Perkin Warbeck the pretender, John Skelton, the poet, Thomas Sternhold of psalmodic fame, Edmund Spenser, George Chapman, Dr. Donne, Michael Drayton, George Herbert, Richard Hooker, Philip Massinger, William Chillingworth, John Hampden, Sir George Etherege, and Sir Charles Sedley.

—The late work of Dr. Pusey, intended as a peace-offering to allay the heat of the combatants of the Anglican and Roman Catholic Church, has proved to be highly provocative of controversy, and already answers to it are advertised as speedily forthcoming from the three most prominent writers and members of the Catholic hierarchy. They are: "Letter to Dr. Pusey on his recent *Irenicon*," by John Henry Newman, D.D.; "The Leading Topics of Dr. Pusey's Work reviewed in a Letter to Archbishop Manning," by F. Oakeley; and "Doctrine and Practice of the Catholic Church in respect to the Worship of the Blessed Virgin Mary," by the Most Rev. H. E. Manning, Archbishop of Westminster, all to be published by Messrs. Longman, who seem to have become the chief literary organs of the Catholic Church in England.

—By the death of Sir Charles Eastlake, president of the Royal Academy and director of the National Gallery, England has lost a painter of elegant but comparatively feeble executive power, and a connoisseur probably unequalled for his knowledge of art-history and antiquities. Few of his own paintings will endure; but those purchased under his direction for the national collection attest the purity of taste and fine feeling for spiritual art that characterized Sir Charles Eastlake's mental sympathies. In literature, he translated Goethe's "Theory of Colors," and wrote "Materials for a History of Oil Painting" and "Contributions to the Literature of the Fine Arts." His presidency of the Royal Academy dates from 1850, when he succeeded Sir Martin Archer Shee, and was knighted. On the death of Delaroche, he filled his place as honorary member of the French Academy at Rome, and was one of the few foreign members of the French Legion of Honor.

SMITH'S CONCISE DICTIONARY.*

In a recent notice of "Kitto's Cyclopædia" we sketched the progress of Biblical literature from the date when Taylor's edition of "Calmet" was the principal book of reference in this department accessible to the English reader. We also pointed out the characteristic differences between the revised and enlarged edition of Kitto and the "Dictionary of the Bible" edited by William Smith, LL.D., the well-known editor of the dictionaries of "Greek and Roman Antiquities," "Biography and Mythology," and "Geography." Both these works were designed for the use of students and scholars. They are elaborate, critical, and ponderous; dealing much in minutiæ, abounding in learned terms and references, detailing the processes of investigation, and extending, in both cases, to three large and costly octavo volumes. The want of a popular dictionary of the Bible, which should embody in a single volume the best results of all this elaborate criticism, was still to be supplied; and to meet this want Dr. Smith placed his dictionary in the hands of Mr. W. A. Wright, M.A., Librarian of Trinity College, Cambridge, for the purpose of condensation. The result is one volume of 1,040 pages, in place of three volumes numbering in all 3,154 pages octavo, double column.

This "Concise Dictionary" is almost literally a condensation of the original work. In some cases, however, the articles are substantially new and, on the other hand, a few topics treated in the larger work are omitted from this—sometimes, doubtless, through inadvertence (*e. g.*, Areopagus or Mars-Hill). The condensation is effected mainly by the omission of matter not essential to the comprehension of the subject by the general reader, such as collateral illustrations from classical and historical sources, theories of interpretation, disquisitions upon words, etc. Commonly the language of the original article is kept unchanged, and the sentences are so dovetailed together that no break is perceived.

The article on "Moses" is a good illustration. This is condensed from nine pages to three and a half. A paragraph upon the etymology of his name is omitted. The references to the materials for his life are abbreviated by the omission of the clauses of the original which we here indicate in brackets: I. The details preserved in the [four last books of the] Pentateuch. II. The allusions in the Prophets and Psalms [which in a few instances seem independent of the Pentateuch]. V. The Mussulman traditions in the Koran and the Arabian legends [as given in Weil's "Biblical Legends," D'Herbelot, and Lane's "Selections"]. Such omissions do not impair the value of the article for the general reader. A correction of the Koran in its genealogy of Moses, an account of the tribe of Levi, of Aaron and Miriam in their relation to Moses, fables and traditions concerning his life, the amplification of minor points in his history—these all are omitted, while the main biography proceeds naturally and smoothly in the very language of Dean Stanley in the original article. Taken as a whole, the "Concise Dictionary" is a happy example of editorial curtailment.

But Mr. Wright has not altogether succeeded in popularizing the dictionary. The original work was prepared for men of education, and its language and composition are at their level. The mere abridgment of such a work, therefore, retaining its style throughout, does not adapt it to another class of readers. The editor should have re-written the work in a simple, popular style, adhering closely to the results of the original, but avoiding all technical and professional phraseology. Ministers, theological students, and all persons who devote themselves to a critical study of the Scriptures will, of course, require the larger work; and the abridgment should have been prepared without reference to them. Hebrew, Greek, and Latin terms are an encumbrance to a work intended for popular use, and these should have been omitted except where they occur in the English version of the Bible.

The "Concise Dictionary" should also have omitted all unsettled theories of criticism—as belonging to the field of pure scholarship—or have stated them in brief as *theories* with the positive and negative arguments concerning them. For such a work, designed for general use and likely to be taken as an authority, should not be in the interest of any particular school of criticism. The editor appears to have been mindful of this distinction between a book for scholars and a book for the people; and he has omitted much of the destructive criticism which had found its way into the original work. Still, there are traces of this, as in the articles on Genesis and the Pentateuch. It is assumed as a settled point in Biblical criticism, that the Pentateuch "did not assume its present shape till its revision was undertaken by Ezra, after the return from the Babylonish captivity." But this is a point upon which Hebrew scholars are by no means agreed, and many eminent names are arrayed against the conclusion here assumed. This should, therefore, have been given simply as an unsettled theory; and the reasons against its adoption should have been enumerated as well as the arguments in its favor. In the main, however, this dictionary treats such indeterminate questions with candor and with no marked prejudice for a particular theory. It admits, for example, that the Pentateuch was substantially derived from Moses; that "the Books of Exodus, Leviticus, and Numbers are, to a great extent, Mosaic;" that "Deuteronomy, excepting the concluding part, is entirely the work of Moses;" and that "the Book of Genesis was probably brought to very nearly its present shape either by Moses himself or by one of the elders who acted under him." While it adopts the theory that the Book of Genesis was a compilation from older documents it argues that this "does not in the least militate against the divine authority of the book." Indeed, the "Concise Dictionary" distinctly recognizes the inspiration of the Scriptures and the supernatural element which so frequently appears in their narratives. Its treatment of the Christian miracles is lucid and philosophical, refuting the naturalistic and the mythical explanations of them, and showing that it is impossible to account for the existence of the Christian religion and the life and character of Jesus Christ, "if the miraculous facts of Christianity did not really occur." The apprehension of critical and theological unsoundness which was awakened in some quarters by the larger dictionary of Dr. Smith is not warranted by the general tone of the "Concise Dictionary."

The principle upon which questions of natural history and physical science are treated in the dictionary is laid down in the following statement:

* "A Concise Dictionary of the Bible, comprising its Antiquities, Biography, Geography, and Natural History: Being a Condensation of the larger Dictionary. Edited by William Smith, LL.D." Boston: Little Brown & Co.

'The teaching of the Bible is accommodated to the knowledge and opinions of those to whom its language is addressed; and the observations of naturalists are no more an argument against the truth of the Word of God than are the ascertained laws of astronomical science." This, however, is a defective statement; since a manifest contradiction between the facts of science and the declarations of the Bible would impeach the claim of the latter to the infallibility of a divine revelation. The true principle is, that the obvious purpose of the Bible being the inculcation of moral truth, we should not look to it for a scientific observation of the phenomena of nature; and that inasmuch as it is a book for popular and universal use, we must treat its language as popular and not as scientific. Hence seeming contradictions between the facts of science and the incidental allusions of the Bible to physical phenomena may commonly be resolved into peculiarities of Hebrew idiom or the generalizations of popular language. Thus the Hebrew *ehretz* may denote either the *earth* in opposition to the *heaven*, or *country, land*, a portion of the earth's surface defined by natural or civil boundaries, or the earth as *inhabited* and known to us. Hence the geological evidence that the Noachic flood was not universal does not contradict the narrative in Genesis. Neither does the statement concerning the animals taken into the ark require to be literally understood of all species on the face of the globe. But, on the other hand, the "Concise Dictionary" goes too far in affirming that there were many original centres of distribution for the existing species of animals, since that point is not settled by the unanimous consent of naturalists. It is as yet only a theory.

Again, there is a substantial agreement between geology and Genesis in respect to the order of creation; and apparent discrepancies may yet be reconciled by a better systematizing of the facts of geology and a better understanding of the Hebrew idiom concerning "days" and "the beginning." Upon the whole, the dictionary treats of the natural history of the Bible with a wise discrimination as to the relations of science and criticism.

In its articles upon ecclesiastical subjects the writers have not been able always to forget that they were of the Church of England, and the articles on "the Church," "Bishops," etc., propound the episcopal theory as a matter-of-fact. Still, the article on the "Priest" states truly that "there is no trace of an order in the new Christian society bearing the name and exercising functions like those of the priests of the older covenant. It was the thought of a succeeding age that the old classification of the high-priest, priests, and Levites was reproduced in the bishops, priests, and deacons of the Christian church."

A careful revision of the dictionary by an impartial hand would remove the occasional defects which we have pointed out in this article, and would correct the somewhat numerous instances of erroneous and inharmonious orthography and punctuation. But these defects do not greatly detract from the substantial merits of the work. The "Concise Dictionary" is by far the best popular hand-book of the Bible in the English language. It is a monument, too, of English scholarship; for, though German sources have been largely drawn upon in the composition of the work, the articles are all from English writers, with the exception of the contributions of four Americans. The names of these last, however, have been suppressed in the list of contributors, though their labors have been freely used!

HEREWARD.*

Mr. Kingsley has written nothing better than this recital of the adventures of Hereward, son of the famous Lady Godiva of Coventry, and the "grim earl," Leofric, her husband—who as a boy, under King Edward the Confessor, was outlawed, as too hard a case for his parents to manage; who took service with foreign princes and turned sea-rover on his own account; who was the last of the Berserkers and the first of the knights-errant; who performed unparalleled feats of valor and of cunning; who on the Duke of Normandy's invasion of England felt himself, in spite of his outlawry, still an Englishman at heart, sailed over to England, and collected an army to contest the Norman rights; who contested them long and bravely, in the fen-country of Lincolnshire, but at last found the invaders too many for him and was driven for a subsistence to the greenwood, where he set the fashion to Robin Hood and the dozen other ballad-heroes whom the author enumerates; who under his reverses grew cold and faithless to the devoted wife whom he had married out of Flanders, and who had followed his fortunes over land and sea; who, repudiating Torfrida, thought to patch up his prospects by a base union with a Norman princess, for whom he had cherished an earlier but an unworthy passion, and by a tardy submission to the new king; but who at last, disappointed, humiliated, demoralized by idleness, fell a victim, in his stalwart prime, to the jealousy of the Norman knights.

Mr. Kingsley's hero, as the reader sees, is an historical figure, duly celebrated in the contemporary and other chronicles, Anglo-Saxon and Norman. How many of his adventures are fiction does not here signify, inasmuch as they were destined to become fiction in Mr. Kingsley's novel; and, as the elements of a novel by a man of genius, become animated with a more lively respectability than could ever accrue to them as parcels of dubious history. For his leading points, Mr. Kingsley abides by his chroniclers, who, on their side, abide by tradition. Tradition had made of Hereward's adventures a most picturesque and romantic story; and they have assuredly lost none of their qualities in Mr. Kingsley's hands. Hereward is a hero quite after his own heart; one whose virtue, in the antique sense, comes ready-made to his use; so that he has to supply this article only in its modern significance. The last representative of unadulterated English grit, of what is now the rich marrow of the English character, could not, with his generous excesses and his simple shortcomings, but forcibly inspire our author's imagination. He was a hero, covered with those glories which as a poet, of an epic turn, as an admirable story-teller and describer, and as an Englishman, Mr. Kingsley would delight to relate; and he was a man, subject to those masculine foibles over which, in his ecclesiastical and didactic character, our author would love to moralize. Courage has ever been in Mr. Kingsley's view the divine fact in human nature; and courage, as bravely understood as he understands it, is assuredly an excellent thing. He has done his best to make it worthy of its high position; his constant effort has been to prove that it is not an easy virtue. He has several times shown us that a man may be rich in that courage which is the condition of successful adventure, but that he may be very much afraid of his duty. In fact, almost every one of his heroes has been compelled to make good his heroism by an act of signal magnanimity. In this manner Kingsley has insisted upon the worthlessness of the greatest natural strength when unaccompanied by a corresponding strength of soul. One of his remote disciples has given a name to this unsanctified pluck in the title of the tale, "Barren Honors." The readers of "Two Years Ago" will remember, moreover, the pathetic interest which attached in that charming novel to the essentially unregenerate manfulness of Tom Turnall. The lesson of his history was that it behooves every man to devote his muscle—we can find no better name for Mr. Kingsley's conception of intelligence—to the service of strict morality. This obligation is the constant theme of Mr. Kingsley's teaching. It is true that, to his perception, the possibilities of human character run in a very narrow channel, and that a man has done his grandest when he has contrived not to shirk his plain duty. Duty, for him, is a five-barred gate in a hunting-field: the cowards dismount and fumble at the unyielding padlock; the "gentlemen" ride steadily to the leap.

It has been hinted how "Hereward" turns out a coward. After a long career of generous hacking and hewing, of the most heroic brutalities and the most knightly courtesies, he find himself face to face with one of the homely trials of private life. He is tired of his wife, who has lost her youth and her beauty in his service, and he is tempted by another woman who has been keeping both for him through all the years of his wanderings. To say, shortly, that he puts away his wife and marries his unworthy temptress would be to do him injustice. This is what he comes to, indeed; but, before judging him, we must learn in Mr. Kingsley's pages how *naturally* he does so. Hereward is an instance of that "demoralization" by defeat of which we have heard so much within the last five years. He is purely and simply a fighting man, and with his enormous fighting capacity he may not unfitly be taken to represent, on a reduced scale, the susceptibilities of a whole modern army. When, at last, his enemies outnumber him, he loses heart and, by a very simple process, becomes good for nothing. This process—the gradual corrosion in idleness of a practical mind of the heroic type—is one which Mr. Kingsley is very well qualified to trace; and although he has troubled himself throughout very little with the psychology of his story, and has told it as much as possible in the simple objective tone of the old chroniclers to whom he so constantly refers, he has yet, thanks to the moralizing habit which he is apparently quite unable entirely to renounce, given us a very pretty insight into poor Hereward's feelings.

It is the absence of the old attempt at philosophy and at the writing of history which makes the chief merit of "Hereward" as compared with the author's other tales. Certain merits Mr. Kingsley has in splendid fulness, but the metaphysical faculty is not one of them; and yet in every one of his writings hitherto there has been a stubborn philosophical pretension. There is a certain faculty of story-telling as complete and, used in no matter what simplicity, as legitimate and honorable as any other; and this gift is Mr.

* "Hereward, the Last of the English. By Charles Kingsley." Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866.

Kingsley's. But it has been his constant ambition to yoke it with the procedure of an historian. An important requisite for an historian is to know how to handle ideas, an accomplishment which Mr. Kingsley lacks, as any one may see by turning to his lectures on history, and especially to the inaugural lecture, in which he exhibits his views on the philosophy of history. But in the work before us, as we have said, he has adhered to his chroniclers; and as there is a world of difference between a chronicler and an historian, he has not been tempted to express many opinions. He has told his story with great rapidity and vivacity, and with that happy command of language which makes him one of the few English writers of the present moment from whose style we derive a positive satisfaction. He writes in all seriousness, and yet with a most grateful suppression of that aggressively *earnest* tone which has hitherto formed his chief point of contact with Mr. Carlyle. He writes, in short, as one who enjoys his work; and this fact it is which will give to "Hereward" a durable and inalienable value. The book is not, in our opinion, what historical novels are so apt to become—a *pastiche*. It represents a vast amount of knowledge, of imagination, and of sympathy. We have never been partial to Mr. Kingsley's arrogance, his shallowness, his sanctified prejudices; but we have never doubted that he is a man of genius. "To be a master," as we were told the other day, "is to be a master." "Hereward" is simply a masterpiece, in the literal sense of the term, and as such it is good to read. This fact was supreme in our minds as we read it, and it seemed more forcibly charged than ever before with the assurance of the author's peculiar genius. What is this genius? It lies, in the first place, as it seems to us, in his being a heaven-commissioned *raconteur;* and, in the second place, in his being a consummate Englishman. Some of them are better Englishmen than others. Mr. Kingsley is one of the best. By as much as he is insufferable when he dogmatizes like a schoolboy upon the characteristics of his nation, by so much is he admirable and delightful when he unconsciously expresses them. No American can see these qualities embodied in a work of art without a thrill of sympathy. "Hereward" is an English story—English in its subject, in its spirit, and in its form. He would be a very poor American who, in reading it, should be insensible to the charm of this fact; and he would be a very poor critic who should show himself unable to distinguish between Mr. Kingsley a master and Mr. Kingsley—not a master.

TUSCAN SCULPTORS.*

THE author of this work is an American, whose name has long been familiar to a small circle as that of a cultivated and liberal lover and follower of the arts. It is to his munificence that Boston owes the finest of her statues—that of Beethoven, by Crawford, which holds a fitting place of honor in her great Music Hall. Mr. Perkins, drawn by natural taste to the study of the fine arts, has turned to advantage the opportunities afforded him by long residence in Italy. Selecting his subject wisely, he has filled an unoccupied space in the literature of art, and has produced a work creditable not only to his industry and patience, but also to his judgment and taste, and useful to every one who desires to inform himself as to the history of Italian sculpture. The work is so honestly wrought, and is marked by such good sense and moderation of statement, as to inspire respect for the author. It is not likely soon to be superseded, and if a compact and cheap edition of it were published, it would be a valuable handbook for intelligent travellers in Italy.

In his introduction, Mr. Perkins gives a sketch of Italian sculpture from the earliest times to the thirteenth century. He begins the treatment of his special subject with the life of Niccola Pisano, the great master of the early revival of the arts in Italy, and in a series of biographical narratives traces the lives of Tuscan sculptors and the course of the art through the four centuries, from the birth of Niccola to the death, in 1608, of Gian Bologna. In casting his work in this biographical form, our author follows the example of Vasari, the most entertaining of writers upon art and artists, and secures for his pages the animation and interest of personal records. So far as the general reader is concerned, he has chosen wisely in pursuing this method; but, although the biographical narratives contain some general views concerning the historic development and intellectual relations of Italian sculpture, the student of the history of philosophy and art will find his curiosity rather stimulated than satisfied as to those conditions of civilization upon which the rise, the progress, and the decline of sculpture, in common with its sister arts, in Italy depended. The value and interest of art to mankind consist not so much in the character and circumstances of artists as in those moral causes which led to the manifestation of genius in this special form. Although it is almost impossible, as Mr. Ruskin has justly remarked in his recent address before the Royal Institute of British Architects, "out of the history of the art of nations to elicit the true conditions relating to its decline, in any demonstrable manner"—and he might have added the true conditions of its rise as well—yet it is only so far as those conditions are investigated and elucidated that the study of art becomes one deserving the attention of serious thinkers interested in the progress of the race. We would not, however, find fault with Mr. Perkins's book for not being other than it is, and within its limits we can give it cordial praise. Occasionally, however, in his investigations into the lives of the artists who are the subjects of his book, we find reason to mark the absence of a justly critical spirit, both as regards the facts of their lives and the worth of their productions. For example, Mr. Perkins accepts, without a hint of suspicion, Vasari's almost incredible account of Niccola Pisano, from which it would appear that at the age of fourteen or fifteen he was appointed architect to the Emperor Frederic II., and employed by him in the construction of buildings of great importance. Vasari's inaccuracy and fondness for traditions, however improbable, are so well known that great caution ought to be exercised in accepting his statements when unsupported by other evidence; and in this case later investigations have rendered it probable that he was here indulging his fancy in pleasant stories. In ascribing, also, certain special works to Niccola, we think Mr. Perkins far too closely follows the Florentine biographer, and that a critical discrimination of the character of the works themselves would have led him to distrust the assertions of Vasari. So again, to take a very different instance, Mr. Perkins, in his life of Michel Angelo, cites the report of the great sculptor's conversation by Francesco d'Ollanda, as professedly given by Count Raczynski in "Les Arts en Portugal," without a word concerning the very unsatisfactory nature of the evidence for its authenticity. There can, indeed, be little question that Raczynski so remodelled and touched up d'Ollanda's report that his relation should be received with great caution, and as the original from which he professes to have copied is said no longer to be found where he asserts that it existed, an unpleasant doubt rests over what would, if authentic, be one of the most delightful and interesting literary discoveries of recent times.

In his appreciation of the works of the Tuscan sculptors, Mr. Perkins is, happily, free from a tendency to exaggerate their merits. His good sense holds him back from the use of the tempting Italian superlative. If he occasionally fails in the recognition of the subtler qualities of genius, in imaginative penetration and sympathetic comprehension, we are bound to remember that we have a right to expect these qualities only from men of the rarest critical powers, and in the absence of them we may well be grateful for such conscientious investigation and such freedom from pretence as distinguish Mr. Perkins's narrative.

The study of such a work opens questions of the highest interest in the history and philosophy of art. It is, indeed, impossible to avoid the fundamental question—What is the value of sculpture to modern civilization? And the answer to which one is compelled is not altogether that which might be anticipated or desired. Here we have the records of four centuries of sculpture, during which the art was practised by men of unquestioned force and originality of genius. Niccola and Giovanni Pisano, Ghiberti, Donatello, Michel Angelo, illustrate the period. But what have they left? What influence on thought or feeling, on the intellectual or spiritual development of men, have they exerted through their works of sculpture? However highly we may esteem the pulpit of Pisa, the bas-reliefs of Orvieto, the St. George of the Or San Michele, the statues of the Medicean Chapel, or any other works greater than these, if any such there be, we must yet confess that, apart from such pleasure as they may afford to a few cultivated persons, they have no very great worth to mankind. They are precious as personal memorials, as illustrations of historic conditions of art, as expressions of individual genius, some of them as embodiments of refined or noble feeling; but they are not instinct with the life of a race, they are not the expressions of its highest thought, and they have no appreciable effect upon the moral or intellectual development of Italy. Part of this comparative powerlessness not only of Tuscan but of all modern sculpture is due to the very nature of the art itself, part to the conditions under which it has been practised in recent times.

Sculpture as exclusively the art of form is the most purely intellectual of the plastic arts. It is degraded whenever the sculptor subordinates form to sentiment. The sentiment which it properly deals with, and to which alone it gives due expression, is that which lies ideally in form. The superiority of Greek sculpture to all other is based primarily on the distinction between the classic and the modern or romantic spirit. The peculiar char-

* "Tuscan Sculptors: Their Lives, Works, and Times. With Illustrations from Original Drawings and Photographs. By Charles C. Perkins." London: Longman. 1864. Two vols. 4to.

acteristic of the classic spirit is its regard for form, that of the romantic its regard for sentiment in expression. The genius of the Greeks was essentially sculpturesque, that of the modern world essentially picturesque.

But besides this broad distinction in the nature of the ancient and the modern mind, as exhibited in the arts, the practice of sculpture was conducted upon very different principles in Greece from those which have guided it in modern times. Sculpture has two provinces; one, its highest, as the handmaid of architecture, in which all its powers are given to the production of the noblest effects of building, in which it associates itself in perfecting the grandest and most beautiful ideas of construction, thereby acquiring a dignity and value which without this association are impossible to it; the other, that of producing single figures or detached groups which shall be either the representation of character in ideal forms, or realistic images of natural objects. In this latter field it has a continual and necessary tendency to become an art of mere luxury, an ornamental art, the servant of selfish tastes, vanity, or ambition. The chief monuments of Grecian sculpture belonged to religious architecture. In these sculpture reached its highest point in expressing the most imaginative conceptions of the national religion, in giving to its figures the inspiration of the life of the soul. But in modern times, except in the Gothic cathedrals, sculpture has been divorced from architecture. It has had no large religious inspiration, it has had no aim higher than to minister to personal ambitions or domestic luxury. In Tuscany such cathedrals and churches as were erected during the Middle Ages did not require or seek its aid in any considerable degree. A few bas-reliefs, a few statues placed with little regard to architectural effect, were all that architecture sought from it. Its works were consequently detached, and it was employed mainly in the production of splendid monumental or memorial effigies. Its grandest conceptions are limited to single figures, or to inconsiderable groups. It lost its power of appealing to the deeper, general sentiment of mankind. It was satisfied with the production of graceful or grand figures—the representation of ideal saints and Madonnas. And thus inspired by large designs, and by the emotions of ideal life, and sharing in the general intellectual decline of Italy, it yielded more and more readily to the attempt to express sentiments which were not within its reach, to the imitation of models with which it had no natural sympathies, to the production of false effects, until, losing all sense of truth, it fell, in the hands of the followers of Michel Angelo, from step to step of baseness and vanity, through the tortured marbles of Bernini to the platitudes and prettinesses of Canova and his followers.

To such broad generalizations as the one preceding, many exceptions may perhaps be taken on one ground or another. It is certain that they seem to do injustice to the greatness of a few works which are among the most interesting productions of modern art, and to the aims of some of the greatest of modern artists. But it is not by exceptional instances that prevailing tendencies of intellectual and moral development are to be judged. Illustrations might be brought from every side in support of the views here advanced. We have spoken, for instance, of the modern genius as essentially picturesque in contrast with the sculpturesque genius of the Greeks. The fact would lead us to anticipate that in the nation in which the modern genius for art has found its fullest development, we should find painting held in higher regard, and far more widely resorted to as a means of expression than sculpture. Such is, indeed, the case. And not only have the chief artistic powers of Italy shown themselves in painting, but the tendency to seek pictorial effect has manifested itself even in sculpture from the beginning, and has been one of the most potent causes of its inferiority and decline. The bas-reliefs of Orvieto are pictorial in design; the bronze gates of Ghiberti show how far sculpture may be pushed in this direction, and how little the true limits of the art were appreciated by those who could regard such works as worthy to be the gates of Paradise. Even the surpassing genius of Michel Angelo, strongly bent as it was towards sculpture, partakes of the same tendency. Imbued as he was with the spirit of ancient sculpture, his chisel could not be satisfied with the production of the effects proper to its art, but sought to unite to them what painting alone was capable of rendering. His statue of Giuliano de' Medici is of the pictorial order; his Deposition from the Cross is the work of a painter in marble. But the provinces of the two arts must for ever remain distinct. It is for sculpture to represent character, and only in so far as passion or sentiment has become a habit of the soul, marked in distinct permanent outward characteristics, can sculpture deal with them and preserve its own absolute power.

In the preface to his book, Mr. Perkins suggests that the reasons why Italian sculpture has, in comparison with Italian painting, found but few admirers or illustrators, lie in the existence of an antique standard of which all modern sculpture falls short, and in the fact that it is much less known because it can be studied only in Italy. But we think that the more general causes which we have attempted to point out are the true ones for the comparatively low regard in which it has been held. The subject tempts us on; but the limits of our space are already passed, and we must leave for some future occasion the discussion of the position and value of our contemporary sculpture, the relations of the art to existing culture, and its prospects in America.

We trust that the success of Mr. Perkins's work may encourage him to complete it with a similar account of the sculptors of the rest of Italy, of which he holds out the promise in his preface, and to give us a second and revised edition of the present volumes.

BUSHNELL'S VICARIOUS SACRIFICE.*

Dr. Bushnell is one of the few men of real and conspicuous genius in the American church. And his genius is wholly consecrated to religion; not to religion in the technical sense, not to the building up of the church establishment, the defence of a creed, the authentication of a tradition, or the instituting of a ritual; but to religion in its proper sense as importing the vital relation of man to God, and the terms on which that relation is sustained or forfeited. At this problem no man works more devoutly than he. He brings to the task many rare gifts not often united in the same person, very seldom combining, even in the same person, in one effort for one purpose, and usually, when distributed among different persons, opposing and counteracting each other. To a severe intellect, trained by the sharpest discipline, practised by constant exercise of speculation, analysis, and criticism, he unites the imagination of a poet and the spiritual fervor, almost the mysticism, of the devotee. In the theological arena, on the seer's mountain top, in the closet of prayer, he seems equally at home. His audacious reason goes on, spite of all remonstrances from his friends, pulverizing creeds, one after another, till credence itself seems likely to be reduced to ashes; and, this work done, his reverent imagination gathers up the ashes in a memorial urn, which consecrates them anew, and claims for them a veneration such as they had never received before. He is destroyer and builder both, and he destroys the more ruthlessly because he believes that from the existing materials which lie about he can erect a far more beautiful temple than he has thrown down. No man, even of the rationalists, has subjected the dogmatic formularies of orthodoxy to such terrible criticism as he. And no man claims to be more calmly, clearly, and devoutly orthodox. Every article of his church under its accepted form he has riddled with argument, logic, wit, we may almost say invective. Yet here they are, not only unharmed but glorified. The orthodox theology being in its nature imaginative—calling itself in fact the interpretation of a drama—suggests a highly imaginary treatment; not only allows it, but demands it; and it has always been a surprise to us that those who accepted it in its popular statement should insist on dealing with it in the dismally prosaic manner they do. None but poets can appreciate it. None but poets can give an exposition of it worthy of its character. A great poetic mind, gifted with popular eloquence and boldly trusting to its wings, would even now give a value to it which rationalism would find it hard to resist. Dr. Bushnell is a poet, and a very eloquent one; but he cannot accept the orthodox theology under its popular statements; he refines it too much for popular apprehension; and thus, at the same time, fetters his own flight, and so confuses the minds of his audience that they find it difficult to fly at all.

This criticism we feel to be justified by the work under review. The substance of its theory is rationalistic. The vicarious sacrifice is treated of as "grounded on principles of universal obligation;" it is tried, that is to say, by the tests of the natural conscience and the natural heart. No claims of the reason or the moral sense are postponed in deference to consecrated interpretations. "There is no stranger freak of dulness in all the literary history of the world, and nothing that is going to make a more curious chapter for the ages to come, than the constructions raised on the vicarious forms of Scripture." "How often has the innate sense of justice in men been mocked by the speculated satisfactions of justice or schemes of satisfaction made up for God." "Plainly enough we can mean nothing by a merit that is outside of all our standards of merit." "If we cannot find a Saviour under just our laws of good, we shall find him nowhere." "The supreme art of the devil never invented a greater mischief to be done, or a theft more nearly amounting to the stealing of the cross itself, than the filching away from the followers of Christ the conviction that they are thoroughly to partake the sacrifice of their Master." And so on, without end. "Christ is a mediator only in the sense that, as being in humanity, he is a *medium* of

* "The Vicarious Sacrifice. By Horace Bushnell." New York: Scribner & Co 1866.

God to us." "Intercession means literally intervention—that is, a coming between; and it is not God that wants to be softened or made better. The stress of the intercession is with us and in our heart's feeling." "Expiation in the sense which belongs to it whenever we speak of expiatory sacrifice, which is to placate a feeling in God, has no character that makes it approvable by intelligence, or endurable by a true sentiment of God's worth and justice." This is precisely what the Unitarians have said, and it goes as far. Indeed, the essential doctrine of this book is Unitarian, and will doubtless be cordially accepted by Unitarian divines. For instance, Dr. Bushnell says: "The bearing of our sins means that Christ bore them on his feeling, became inserted into their bad lot by his sympathy as a friend, yielded up himself, and his life even, to an effort of restoring mercy; in a word, he bore our sins in just the same sense that he bore our sicknesses. Understand that love itself is an essentially vicarious principle, and the solution is no longer difficult." "Given the universality of love, the universality of vicarious sacrifice is given also." "It is not something higher in principle than our human virtue knows." "Take your enemy upon your love," he says; "bear him and his wrong as a mind's burden, undertake for him, study by what means and by what help obtained from God you can get him out of his evils and make a friend of him. Do this, and see if it does not open to you a very great and wonderful discovery—the sublime reality and solidly grand significance of vicarious sacrifice." This is very like rationalism, and it is fortified by a logic, illustrated by a rhetorical beauty, and warmed by a moral fervor which rationalists might envy. Yet Dr. Bushnell is no rationalist. In more than one place he speaks with mild severity of the system which substitutes a beautiful, a gentle, or a loving God for a just God, who has a strong element of wrath in him; for all systems which "dress the soul in what is called beauty of character."

For now, having strained all the accepted meaning out of the current formulas and charged them with the significance of pure naturalism, the seraphic doctor goes manfully to work at reconstruction. All the materials which belonged to the old scheme are used without hesitation. After undergoing a process of shaping and polishing to accommodate the new intention, the old drama is brought on the stage again, somewhat expurgated, and with scenery freshly painted to suit the modern taste. We have the eternal plan, the race of moral natures throwing off the law, breaking loose in a condition of unsubjection, and losing themselves in all sorts of confusion; the loving God suffering agonies of patience through the long ages of preliminary discipline which were necessary before his goodness could work upon the rebels to bring them back, waiting for a better possibility till he could open to them his whole heart's love—"tenderly watching the turning of the ages," "grieving forty years for his people in the wilderness, rising betimes to send his messengers, protesting that he is weary," and experiencing a blessed relief when he came to Mary with his "All hail!" and broke into the world as a God, "come at last to disburthen his heart by sacrifice." We have Christ as the divine love and patience incarnate; we have the ministry of prophets and angels, and all the other accessories of the scheme. The history of the world is made to hinge on the purpose of salvation. Government is supposed to have been instituted to that end. The divine mission of the Hebrew people is recognized as cordially and submissively as ever; the Hebrew dispensation is accepted in its full typical significance; the inspiration of the Scriptures is assumed; the ceremonies, sacraments, and altar forms are reinstated; the disparaged doctrines come to their rights again, the doctrine of eternal perdition among the rest; the shades of venerated beliefs which were hastily departing are summoned back and reclothed in "objective form" as representative figures; and by the close of the volume we see everything looking very much as it did before.

We have considered this work as a work of exposition merely, for that is what it claims to be. As such it is singularly brilliant and ingenious; nay, as such it is singularly luminous, consistent, persuasive. But while one large class of thinkers object to its substance, and another large class of thinkers object to its form, it will probably meet the fate of all attempts, however able, to put new wine into old bottles, and will stand as a most interesting monument of the genius and faith of an individual mind. Of this difficulty he is himself not unconscious. In fact, no man should know better than he how deeply forms of thought become saturated with errors in the course of time, and how hopeless seems the task of cleansing them and restoring them to their proper uses again; but he has faith that, in a case like this, where the forms are so precious and the errors are so palpable, this reclamation may be effected; he urges preachers to attempt it, and persevere till they succeed.

We hope they will attempt it, and that they will succeed, for his theory involves thoughts of great value. We think he has strained Scripture here and there to bring it into concurrence with his principle; we think he has tried needlessly to preserve certain "altar forms," as he calls them, which might have been permitted to pass away; we think he has burdened his theory with some fanciful conceits which sober people will take as indicating an unhealthy judgment; but he has unfolded some deep, vital, noble ideas which all men will be the better for receiving; and if they will receive them under the ancient forms, so much the better, for then these forms will render a double service: exercise their own peculiar influence, and convert to wiser uses symbols that have been misunderstood.

The Good Gray Poet. A Vindication. (Bunce & Huntington, New York.)—The event which gave rise to this pamphlet bears about the same relation to the manner in which it is treated as the refusal of England to give a king to Greece bears to Ruskin's denouncement of it as "the darkest of all dishonorable and impious captivities of this age." It will probably be news to ninety-nine-hundredths of our readers that Mr. Walt Whitman was turned out of office on Mr. Harlan's accession to the Department of the Interior because the Secretary thought that "Leaves of Grass," of which Mr. Whitman is the author, was an indecent book, and therefore opposed to "the principles of Christian civilization" upon which he had determined to govern his department. Mr. W. D. O'Connor asks us to make common cause with him in rousing upon this act "the full tempest of reprobation it deserves." We shall sufficiently indicate his argument by a single quotation:

> "I claim that to expel an author from a public office, and subject him to public contumely, solely because he has published a book which no one can declare immoral without declaring all the grand books immoral, is to affix a penalty to thought and to obstruct the freedom of letters."

Of the grievance itself we can dispose in a very few words. Mr. Harlan chose to give his reasons for an act which did not require any reason, since he can dismiss as he employs, at pleasure. Judging Mr. Whitman from his book, he thought him an immoral person. We know that political appointments are not generally governed by the individual purity of candidates, and it may be a question how far private character can be consulted in cases of eminent fitness for public service. If Mr. Harlan thought it not enough that his clerk was a very capable one, but required certain moral qualities in the man with whom he and his subordinates must have dealings, we may esteem him fastidious but hardly reprehensible. Granted the sincerity of the Secretary, his course is not to be compared with that expulsion from office which has no other justification than political differences of opinion.

That Mr. Harlan was mistaken in his estimate of Mr. Whitman is quite possible; and if he ever acknowledged his mistake, reparation would have been only fair. But he is not likely to be convinced by this "vindication," which, of all extravagant and hyperbolical utterances we ever read, seems to us the most so. We have too much respect for its author to condemn his motives or to impeach his mental balance; yet he has not scrupled to do this with those who differ from him in their valuation of "Leaves of Grass." He says:

> "Enough for me to pronounce this book grandly good and supremely great. Clamor, on the score of its morality, is nothing but a form of turpitude; denial of its greatness is nothing but an insanity; and the roar of Sodom and the laughter of Bedlam shall not, by a hair's-breadth, swerve my verdict."

Surely, there was never such wild and fulsome laudation poured out on any man or any book as in this pamphlet. From its fantastic rhetoric we learn that Mr. Whitman is "greater than Plato"—"he is democracy," and "his conversation is a university." He is also "the proudest man that lives," and "deserves to be considered the grandest gentleman that treads this continent." "To call one like him good seems an impertinence." His seems to Mr. O'Connor "a character which only the heroic pen of Plutarch could record, and which Socrates himself might envy." Particularly is he "kosmos," "the Adamus of the nineteenth century—not an individual, but mankind." Furthermore, he has voted at every election for eighteen years, refused to skulk from the draft under cover of his grey hairs, and served tenderly in soldiers' hospitals during the whole of the war. And if any one wishes to see how these not particularly rare or startling virtues are made the most of, let him read pages 10, 39–44.

We have already quoted Mr. O'Connor's opinion of "Leaves of Grass," but only in part. "Nothing," he avers, "that America had before in literature rose above construction: this is a creation. Idle, and worse than idle, is any attempt to place this author either among or below the poets of the day." And whatever it contains, either plain spoken or indelicate, is compared most elaborately with those parts of the compositions of great authors which, in many instances, to Mr. O'Connor's horror, have been expurgated by later editors and publishers. The apology is so weak as almost (except for the spirit in which it is made) to surpass the assumed offence. One is apparently asked to believe that the greatness of Homer, Shakespeare, and the rest, is inseparable from what are now esteemed their improprieties; and, indeed, that an author's genius is established if it can only be shown that he has incurred the reproach of broad and immoral writing. Mr. O'Connor would probably agree with Victor Hugo, whom he cites with the enthusiasm of a worshipper, in extolling the monosyllabic response of the French officer at Waterloo when called on to surrender, as may be read in "Les Misérables." But the discreetness of the translator, who leaves the word in the original French, saves the unwitting from disgust and amazement, and the novelist from ridicule or contempt. Mr. O'Connor has by this "vindication" involved himself in another: which is, that of his capacity for intelligent literary criticism.

He has himself written some good things. He has poetic feeling and a lively (a very lively) imagination. But he has grave faults of exaggeration, due, no doubt, to unusual earnestness of conviction, and he has damaged his own reputation as a writer much more than he has helped his friend's. He is a victim of that "Titanic richness and strength of phrase" which he discovers in Mr. Whitman's description of "the immutable granitic pudding-heads of the world."

The Fire-Fiend, and Other Poems. By Charles D. Gardette. (Bunce & Huntington, New York.)—The fact that the poem called "The Fire-Fiend" in Mr. Gardette's volume should have been mistaken by criticism in England or America for the work of Edgar A. Poe, argues less familiarity with the genius of that poet than we believed to exist. It is, of course, easy enough to say, now the harmless fraud is confessed, that we could not for a moment have supposed "The Fire-Fiend" to be Poe's; but, honestly, we find so much in it that Poe was, according to his own theories, utterly incapable of writing, that we are surprised it should ever have been attributed to him. We are still more surprised that it should have received flattering comments from the deluded critics, for, intrinsically considered, it cannot commend itself to praise. It is written in the long, swelling lines of that trochaic measure which Poe loved, and used variously in "The Raven" and "Lenore," and it has something of that weird feeling which is conjured up by the assemblage of ghastly images and the pathetic music of rhymes without distinct relation to ideas. In so far it is like Poe, but Poe (though unpleasant person enough in some things) could not have written a verse so revolting as this:

"And my brow grew cold and dewy, *with a death-damp stiff and gluey*;"

nor one so paltry as this:

"And I slumbered like an infant in the 'Cradle of the Deep.'"

"Golgotha," a poem conceived in similar spirit, and written in like measure, is far more perfectly expressed, and is more like Poe—because better and more equal—than "The Fire-Fiend."

Following this are certain lyrics called "War-Echoes," and then the rest of the book is made up of short poems written on different themes and called "Vagaries."

The latter include what is best in the book, and are easy and graceful. Perhaps we shall best convey an idea of their quality by quoting one which pleases us most:

UMBRA:

A HALF-SUNG SONG.

I am singing in the sunshine:
You are singing in the shade:
Wherefore sigh when I am singing?
"Shadow is of sunshine made."

Cynic! Answer! What are shadows,
But the fleeting ghosts of Light?
Night is cradle of the Morning:
"Rather Morn the tomb of Night."

Nay, then, I will change my measure:
Faith is night, and Hope is morn:
Noon is love: behold the zenith!—
"Child! I was not eagle-born."

No! but born of woman, surely.
What am I? O! look, and find,
In my eyes, Love's noontide blazing!—
"Haply! Love has long been blind."

Cruel, cruel! Say, blasphemer,
By what altar do you pray
That is never sun-illumined?—
"Peace! By that of Yesterday!"

It is saying a great deal in Mr. Gardette's favor to say that, except in the two poems confessedly imitative of Poe, his manner is quite his own. The stream of his poetic feeling is rather thin and a little cold, but it has its spring in his own life, and not in the books he has been reading.

Thomas à Becket, a Tragedy; and other Poems. By G. H. Hollister. (Boston: Wm. V. Spencer. 1866.)—A play involving the career of Thomas à Becket from the time of his elevation to the primacy of England by Henry II. to the time of his assassination by the King's agents, must needs abound in dramatic incident, and Mr. Hollister has fully availed himself of the strength of his subject. His tragedy is one which reads well: events succeed each other rapidly; people forbear to make long speeches; we have no doubt that it is a good acting play; and if we cannot give it the highest praise, a certain applause is due to it in an age when tolerably good plays are the exception. It is now and then marred by excesses of metaphor, and one does not well see how fair Rosamond's fate can be justly linked to the fierce primate's, nor, indeed, what she has to do in the tragedy, except to be used in making deeper the King's remorse and abasement. One of the best scenes is that in which she meets Henry after her discovery that he has another wife, and reproaches him with his treachery. The character of Becket is drawn with boldness and force, and there is fine movement in those scenes where he confronts and abashes the King, who had thought to make him the minister of his frauds upon the church. The King and Queen Eleanor have also a proper life, but the remaining characters are of rather vague individuality.

Mr. Hollister's other poems are a kind of idyl called "The Phantom Ship," and some lyrics and sonnets. "The Phantom Ship" came to a New England village, in the old time, in the place of the ship that sailed away long before with Esther Vane's lover. It is a pathetic story, prettily told in as nearly the manner of Tennyson's idyls as imitation could make it. The tragedy is a better poem than the idyl in respect of original treatment. Any man of fair poetic culture could have written "The Phantom Ship," if he had known the story. In the play there is something authentically Mr. Hollister's. If the latter is the later work, there is hope for the author, which we could hardly feel if the idyl were the more recent of the two poems.

The Young Man's Friend. Containing Admonitions for the Erring, Counsel for the Tempted, Encouragement for the Desponding, and Hope for the Fallen. By Daniel C. Eddy, D.D. (Graves & Young, Boston.)—This series of lectures or sermons bears the name of an earlier series by the same author, which had a remarkable sale, and, we hope, effected a proportionate good for those to whom it was addressed. The present volume is marked by earnestness, directness, and force in its appeals and exhortations, but displays no special aptitude for reaching the minds of youth. There is in its advice to young men a perhaps inevitable sectarianism—a degree of narrowness and pre-judgment, not to say prejudice—without which Dr. Eddy might have been less faithful to his evangelical training, but not less the friend of his audience. It is a very restricted view, for example, of the power of truth in a free discussion, or of the value which scepticism has for the ideas which it assails, to pretend that it were "better if Renan had been incapable of producing his 'View [Life] of Jesus.'" Such a remark reflects so immediately upon the Divine wisdom for furnishing M. Renan with his rare intellect, that we should hardly have expected it from so reverential a person as Dr. Eddy, who, besides, cannot be blind to the great services rendered to enlightened Christian belief by a book which has caused believers everywhere to examine their claims to that title. There are also occasionally what we may venture to call tricks of the pulpit, such as appear throughout the chapter on "Investments;" and it sounds very like a joke when, in a serious and for the most part discriminating talk on reading, the lecturer suddenly asks his hearers if they can read their title clear to mansions in the skies!

The Friend. Vol. I., No. 1. (New York, 48 Beekman Street.)—There have been numerous prize essays on the causes of the decline of Quakerism, but the moderate-sized periodical before us is almost the first step we have witnessed to check that decline. The Friends' journals heretofore brought to our notice maintain a dull existence by publishing ever-to-be-continued extracts from Clarkson's "Portraiture of Quakerism" or Woolman's "Diary," with such husks, by way of selections, as the latest excavation at Pompeii or the commonplaces of natural history. Of quite another order is *The Friend*, which fears that the torpor of the society will presently end in the sleep that knows no wakening, and is determined to prevent such a catastrophe if possible. Its first number attacks the conservative restraints of the society on free thought and publication, and exposes the unreasonableness of Quaker peculiarities of speech. There is an appreciative article on Whittier, "The Poet of Friends," though the theory which accounts for his appearance ought, if correct, to have more than this solitary illustration to support it. The politics of *The Friend*, for it has politics, are based on the brotherhood of the race as taught by the great Friend of all the human kind. The monthly is a quarto of twelve pages, to be enlarged, we understand, one-third. With a few exceptions its typography is excellent.

"Progress" is the title of a weekly journal published in this city, and devoted to contemporaneous history and literature. It is not of so recent origin, we believe, as it is new in our eyes, and we are informed that it is so far obedient to its name as to have taken an enlarged shape and called to its editorial chair one whom we know to be a very learned student of history, present and past. We recognize his criticisms in the numbers before us, and they are a marvel of conscientious, minute painstaking. When, as in the case of Mr. John S. C. Abbott, they occupy three pages, without being concluded at that, it is very certain that the authors criticized will not complain of a lack of attention. The paper, to judge from its advertisements, has a special circulation among our Hebrew population, but the scholarship of its editor is not confined to any nationality. The several tables of contents confirm this statement. We have the Polish Insurrection of 1863–4; James Buchanan and the Anti-Lecomptonites; Grant and his Subordinates; Hungary; Vámbéry on the Jews of Asia; Inauguration of Leopold II.; German Arctic Expedition; England's International Shortcomings; Mexico, etc., etc. The selections are very judicious and readable.

Roanoke; or, Where is Utopia? By C. H. Wiley. (Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros.)—We are unable to decide from anything in this novel whether it is now published for the first time or is here re-issued from some former edition. We believe, however, that it is not so well known as the author's other novel, "Alamance," and, making use of a somewhat remote perusal of that work for the contrast, we think it is not so good. Like "Alamance," this is a story of life in North Carolina, and it abounds, like "Alamance," in a certain kind of wild and fantastic incident, which seems the peculiar invention of its author. It is probable that some of the characters of the book are drawn with sufficient fidelity to the place and period, but the author's touch is not strong nor sustained, and his characters generally do not work to bring about the end he has in view. In spite of great defects the novel has a charm of its own, consisting partly in the picturesqueness of its scenes, partly in the simplicity of the author's narrative style, partly in a magic like Hawthorne's (but very rough, indeed, as compared with that master's) of casting a weird unreality upon matter-of-fact events and persons. From the first excellence of romance there are narrow escapes in the book; but, on the whole, "Roanoke" must fall into the second class of novels, and be blamed for occasional lapses even below mediocrity.

Hans Brinker; or, The Silver Skates. A Story of Life in Holland. By M. E. Dodge. (James O'Kane, New York.)—Though a little late for the holidays, this boys' and girls' book is appropriate to the season and yet quite independent of it. To be sure the plot is woven about a skating match, and there is a grand tour on skates undertaken by a band of clever Dutch young-

sters. But this is really incidental to most agreeable descriptions of Amsterdam, Haarlem, and Leyden, and the Hague; to scraps of Dutch history; to pictures of the general scenery, position, popular life, and manners of Holland; and to the instructive development of character in the hero and heroine: just as good reading, every bit, for midsummer as for midwinter. The authoress has shown in her former works for the young a very rare ability to meet their wants, but she has produced nothing better than this charming tale, alive with incident and action, adorned rather than freighted with useful facts, and moral without moralization.

Record of the Federal Dead buried from Libby, Belle Isle, Danville, and Camp Lawton Prisons, and at City Point, and in the Field before Petersburg and Richmond. Published by the U. S. Christian Commission from Reports of its Agents. (James B. Rodgers, Philadelphia.)—The humane endeavor of which this volume is the product fails of its highest achievement because of the fact that there is no alphabetical index of names by which the relatives of the fallen, often in utter ignorance of the place where they lie buried, may be guided thither at once. Even under the several heads of prisons and cemeteries there is no attempt at an alphabetical arrangement, nor does the surname precede the Christian name or initial letters. These very serious defects might be easily remedied, and, we trust, will be, in another edition or supplement.

Ballads and Translations. By Constantina E Brooks. (New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1866.)—The larger part of Miss Brooks's ballads are on legendary and imaginative themes, and the rest are historical. All are marked with genuine poetic feeling, which, if not rising at any time into great poetic art, never suffers her to make despicable failure. There is evidence in the volume of an unusual culture, and the translations from the Greek poets are very graceful and spirited, while those from the Scandinavian have a more positive value as contributions to literary knowledge. We like best, among the historical ballads, "Lutzen."

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE CROCK OF GOLD.—THE TWINS AND HEART. By Martin Farquhar Tupper. T. B. Peterson & Brothers, Philadelphia.

SECESSION AND SLAVERY. The Constitutional Duty of Congress to give the Elective Franchise and Freedom to All Loyal Persons, in Response to the Act of Secession. By Joel Prentiss Bishop. A. Williams & Co., Boston.

LESSONS IN ELOCUTION. With Numerous Selections, Analyzed for Practice. By Allen A. Griffith. Adams, Blackmer & Lyon, Chicago.

REBEL INVASION OF MISSOURI AND KANSAS, AND THE CAMPAIGN OF THE ARMY OF THE BORDER AGAINST GEN. STERLING PRICE, OCT. AND NOV., 1864. By Richard J. Hinton. Church & Goodman, Chicago; F. W. Marshall, Leavenworth.

A ABRAHAM LINCOLN. Sur une Gravure Stances. Par J.-H. Serment. Ch. Meyrueis; E. Dentu, Paris. (F. W. Christern, New York.)

THE PILGRIM'S WALLET. Scraps of Travel Gathered in England, France, and Germany. By Gilbert Haven.—POEMS. By Edna Dean Proctor.—SHAKESPEARE'S MENTAL PHOTOGRAPHS. Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.

POEMS. By Mrs. Anna Marie Spaulding.—THE UNIVERSAL PATHFINDER AND BUSINESS MAN'S POCKET COMPANION. By M. N. Olmsted. James Miller, New York.

CHRIST THE LIGHT OF THE WORLD. By C. J. Vaughan, D.D. Alexander Strahan, London and New York.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

ALL chemists are now well agreed that the old phlogistic theory of the last century was of great service to science in that it formed the nucleus around which the facts of chemistry first crystallized into regular, systematic shape. In a note in the Proceedings of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, Dr. A. C. Brown goes much further than this. Starting with Whewell's idea, that in this theory, which during more than a century was recognized as the foundation of chemical science, we might reasonably suppose that there should exist some germs of important truth, he maintains that the theory itself, as stated by its founders, Becher and Stahl, if not strictly true, is at least a very close approximation to what we now recognize as truth. According to Stahl, all combustibles contain one and the same substance in different proportions, according to the degree of their combustibility. That substance is phlogiston; and when a combustible is burnt, or a metal calcined, its phlogiston is given out. When charcoal or oil is heated with a metallic calx, the phlogiston leaves the former and passes into the metallic regulus. Now, if we disembarrass ourselves of some habitual conceptions, we shall admit that a combustible loses something when it is burnt; it loses combustibility, or the capacity of burning. In the same way, in the preparation of phosphorus, or the reduction of a metallic calx to a metal, the charcoal loses this capacity, while the phosphorus or the metal acquires it. This capacity of burning is essentially the power of emitting a certain quantity of heat, and as we know from the researches of Rumford, Davy, and others, and from the later and more exact determinations of Joule, that heat is a peculiar form of motion, a manifestation of what has been called kinetic energy, we can have no difficulty in admitting that the power of emitting a certain quantity of heat is a particular form of potential energy. If, in the statement of the phlogistic theory, we read potential energy for phlogiston, and understand that when phlogiston is lost by one body and not immediately acquired by another, as in combustion, this potential energy is converted into kinetic energy, we have a tolerably complete account of what we now know of the matter. Whether we choose, with Becher and Stahl, to call phlogiston a substance or not, depends on our definition of the term substance. If we restrict that name to ponderable matter, of course it is not a substance; but when we consider that energy is as indestructible as matter, that we can trace it through its various combinations and double decompositions, and that we are in a fair way to discover not indeed its atomic weight, for it has none, but its chemical equivalent, we shall recognize the fact that these two conceptions of phlogiston on the one hand, and of a chemical element on the other, are much more nearly allied than they have generally been thought to be. It may be objected to the phlogistic theory, as thus explained, that it is not the combustible alone, but the combustible and oxygen, that have potential energy, and that it is only when the two unite that this potential energy is transformed into kinetic. This objection is equally valid against the statement that a clock, when wound up, contains potential energy. It is not the clock, but the clock and the earth, which contain this energy, which is brought into play only when the clock-weight and the earth approach each other. In fact, energy is not conceivable without a system of at least two bodies. In their ignorance of the existence of oxygen, the phlogistic chemists attempted to explain, by means of their favorite theory, facts such as the increase of the weight of a combustible when burnt, which were really the effects of the play of those forces which we now know to reside in that centre of forces called oxygen. They were thus led to modify the original theory and to ascribe to phlogiston negative weight, and to identify it sometimes with carbon and sometimes with hydrogen gas. These mutilations of the original theory soon led to its complete overthrow, and we have only to regret that the anti-phlogistic chemists destroyed the wheat quite as effectually as they did the tares, so that we are only now again beginning to see, what was perfectly obvious to such a man as Stahl, that oxide of iron does not contain metallic iron; that no compound contains the substances from which it is produced; but that it contains them minus something—minus the potential energy which they before possessed and have lost in effecting the combination. We now know what this something is, and can give it the more appropriate name of potential energy; but there can be no doubt that this energy is what the chemists of the eighteenth century meant when they spoke of phlogiston.

—Reproduction without impregnation has been long known to exist in many of the lowest animals, especially polyps, jelly-fishes, star-fish, and also in some of the parasitic animals, as the tape-worms. In all of these the new generation is unlike that immediately preceding it; in some cases it is the result of budding, and in others of the spontaneous division of the body. One or more generations may be produced in one or the other of these ways, but the perfect form at last returns. Among insects the "plant lice," or aphides, for more than a century furnished the only known instance of reproduction without impregnation. In this case the perfect insect lays impregnated eggs; these hatch and give birth only to imperfect females, which are wingless; these in turn, without impregnation, form eggs; the young are developed, hatch within the body of the parent, are born alive, and are imperfect females. This process goes on for nine or ten generations, when at last perfect males and females are born, lay eggs, and the round above described is repeated. A few years ago, Siebold brought forward evidence to prove that while the eggs producing queen and worker bees require impregnation, those producing males or drones do not; and it has been further shown that among some of the moths, as in those of the silk-worms, their eggs, though not impregnated, may give rise for one or two generations to fertile males and females. The observations lately made on more than one species of insects by Wagner, Pagenstecker, and Genine have demonstrated the existence of a much more remarkable and unexpected kind of reproduction, which has greatly surprised naturalists. This is found in some of the flies allied to the "Hessian" or "wheat fly," an insect but too well known to agriculturists both in this country and in Europe. The extraordinary circumstance is this: that it is not the adult, as in the case of the bee or the silk-worm moth, or the almost perfect insect, as in the aphis, that reproduces, but the embryo, in the shape of the maggot or larva. Both Wagner and Pagenstecker were able to detect eggs in these larvæ, in all stages of formation and development, but failed to detect the ovary from which they came. This ovary Genine afterwards succeeded in finding. It appears that the perfect insect lays about five impregnated eggs of large size; the embryo is developed in these, is hatched, and then, without undergoing any metamorphosis, and without being impregnated, begins to form eggs, sometimes as many as

fifteen, more than half of which, however, do not mature. In those that mature, the young develop just as in impregnated eggs, changing their skins, however, once before hatching. After leaving the eggs, but still remaining within the body of the parent larva, they subsist on her fluids, she becoming largely distended as they increase in size. After a while she ceases to eat, undergoes an imperfect moulting, in which the old skin, though detached, is not shed, and then enters into a state analogous to that of a chrysalis. Now comes the most remarkable and novel circumstance of all. The larvæ having thus far lived at the expense of her fluids, begin to devour the solid parts, and one organ after another is eaten, until at last the whole substance of the parent, excepting only her skin, is converted into that of her parent-devouring progeny. This process has been observed through a second generation. Thus we have two remarkable and hitherto unobserved phenomena, viz.: First, the larva of an insect capable of producing other larvæ; and, secondly, these developed in her body, and at last consuming it for food.

Fine Arts.

FRENCH AND BELGIAN SCHOOLS OF ART.

In speaking of French painting, it is important to bear continually in mind how different are its circumstances from those which surround the infant art of America. It is an immense industrial interest, and other industrial interests yet greater depend upon it. Thousands of men and women live in France and Belgium by the direct practice of fine art, as only a few score live in America; and the whole population, at least of the cities and towns, are brought face to face with the fine arts, and have them for a part of their daily life. Almost every family has one or more members connected with art. Every young man, if not himself an artist, has a friend or two who are artists. Everybody is brought into constant contact with artists, and hears continual talk about art. The Government showers honors on artists thought successful, as on its soldiers. Each annual exhibition adds new names to the roll of the Legion of Honor, and raises this painter or that sculptor of old renown from the simple rank of chevalier to the *grade d'officier*. There are medals of first, second, and third classes; there are grand medals of honor on special occasions; there is now a new prize, to be given every five years, the *grand prix de l'Empereur*, a simple gift of a hundred thousand francs. These prizes are contended for by a host. The Paris Salon of 1865 contained more than two thousand eight hundred pictures and drawings, and three hundred works of sculpture. It will be seen that the jury of admission and the committee of reward have tasks of magnitude. The French critics, moreover, have work before them when each exhibition opens.

It is important to remember that these critics, as a body, do their work well—with tact, cleverness, and literary skill as yet unequalled in other lands. Among them are a few very able critics, equipped with natural delicacy of perception, with accurate if bounded knowledge of the arts of the past, and with judgment too purely intellectual, perhaps, and too intellectually trained, but seeing clearly as far as it sees. Those of them who are the wisest and keenest-sighted are not content with French painting as it is. Those Frenchmen who can think wisely and see keenly are very sad because of the growing and still growing estrangement of their countrymen from ennobling pursuits and worthy enjoyments. The Imperial Government energetically and successfully pursues its object of making the people careless except for military glory, and uninterested except in daily amusement. "A despairing abandonment of personal liberty and freedom of opinion; a popular literature of heathen depravity; a loss of moral objects of interest, while military glory and material aggrandizement are worshipped in their place,"* are some of the results of the Empire. What the people want for themselves is amusement, and, above all, display. What they want for France is physical power, and, above all, the power of armies.

It is not to France that we need look just now for art which is wholly great or satisfactory. We have before seen reason to believe that the French painting of our time has two grave faults: it is not, as a school, noble in color, and it is not, as a school, wise in its choice of subjects. Grey shadows and subdued tones harmonize well with *genre* painting, which has become principal, no longer secondary and accidental; and both are tending to make of the art of painting a mechanical art which photography will soon excel.

We may insert here a few words by one of the cleverest of the French critics of whom we have spoken—a far wiser and juster judge of art than some whose names are much better known. Eight long articles M. Charles Clément had devoted to the pictures in the last salon, and the ninth article begins with the words that follow:

"We frankly confess that it is with real pleasure that we quit the pictures to study the works of sculpture exhibited in the garden of the Palace of Industry. All those little landscapes and *genre* pictures, however ingeniously composed and skilfully executed they may be, get to be very tiresome (*finissent par fatiguer beaucoup*), and I fear that on this point my readers will only too readily agree with me. Here [*i. e.*, among the sculpture] we find ourselves before works which are less witty, less amusing, I admit, but more important, more masculine, more serious, more matured. . . . We see this beautiful art resist, much more successfully than painting, the temptations and influences of fashion. It does not, indeed, escape completely. The *genre* spirit has invaded this art also; but it does not control it, and on the whole our school of sculpture maintains itself at a very respectable level."

There is in France, to-day, no very decided or visible improvement on the state of things which the most eminent of French art critics, M. Gustave Planche, truly characterized ten years ago. He thought then that there was no rivalry in merit except among a few *esprits d'élite;* that "the greater number of the artists see, in the annual exhibitions, only a market for the products of their industry; mercantile activity has replaced emulation. The greater number hasten to produce, and pity the ingenuous minds who dream of glory; the desire to do good work fades from day to day, the studios are transformed into factories, and, if this fever of gain continues, it will soon be impossible to distinguish art from industry." And note what M. Planche thinks to be the reason for this: "The painters use nine months of the year *working for amateurs*, and, when the salon draws near, then they hasten to compose a work somewhat serious in character; but it is in vain that they redouble their zeal, rise with the lark, and wield the brush till the sun sets; time fails them to meditate—to conceive—to finish." And what he thinks of the effect on the painters of this working for the amateurs the next sentence tells us: "Amateurs, who too often encourage the vices of their [the painters'] talent, instead of aiding them to free themselves from them."

The amateurs come from a class of people the nearest to the Imperial court, the most immediately under its influence, and more than any other class deprived of worthy objects of interest and ennobling pursuits. To the members of this class extravagant display is the one enjoyment left, the Imperial family and the court setting the example of lavish expense in this pursuit to the best of their large ability. The purchase of pictures by popular artists is a sort of display very agreeable to the taste of some men who, under happier circumstances, might really have loved art, and to many others who care only for the society (always agreeable) of artists and for the reputation of having good taste. "Every one says you're such an excellent judge of paintings." "I a judge of paintings?" "Oh yes, sir! did n't you buy the great Correggio for ten thousand pounds?" "So, ten thousand pounds make me a judge of paintings?" It is not every picture-buyer who sees, with Bulwer's Alfred Evelyn, how poor is the foundation of his reputation for knowledge of art.

In the hands of the large majority of living French and Belgian painters the art is not of such character as to command respect. M. Clément is right in his unspoken assertion that, on the whole, the French school of painting fails to maintain itself at a very respectable level. If we say over again what we have often said of the technical skill of the French and Belgian painters, if we recognize and admire a skill in drawing and manipulation which seems almost national, so common is it and so superior to what other nations have, we find nothing in that which can satisfy one who knows what art has been, feels what it might be, and longs for the time when it will be what he dreams. What, to a lover of art, is M. Charles Baugniet's "Attentive Lady's Maid," noticed before, or M. Coomans' "Rendezvous," No. 22a (new catalogue), or M. Schlesinger's "Spanish Girls" and "Ladies in Balconies," or even such works of patience and skill as M. Meissonier sends us, none more remarkable than the "Soldiers in Guard-Room," No. 102, of the French Exhibition? There is no pleasure to the lover of art in these works, or only a moment's pleasure, to be succeeded by sadness and pain. Art is thought or feeling expressed—in the case of painting—in form and colo But the approved modern *genre* picture must have the least possible modicum of feeling and *no* thought, its message, of little meaning, to be conveyed in elaborate and careful drawing and delicately finished painting.

We say again—in the hope, perhaps vain, of avoiding the misunderstanding to which articles in periodicals are especially liable—that there is French painting which we greatly respect, and something in French painting, as a whole, which we greatly respect. But it must be evident, we repeat, to any one who knows what art can be and has been, that in French art of the present day there is much that is discouraging, much that is of ev tendency

* Goldwin Smith—"On the Study of History."

much that is of fatal influence. The evil at least has been great enough to bring about a counteracting tendency toward reality, at least.

It is in reaction against the school of fashion, of frivolity, and of vice that that strange Flemish army has taken the field of which Baron Wappers was, perhaps, the first soldier, and which Baron Henry Leys has long and gallantly led. In its inception this enterprise seems to have been a national one. The founders of it seem to have regretted the influence of the French school over the art of Belgium, not only because it was a bad influence but because it was a foreign influence. To them Belgium is only temporarily and accidentally French, essentially and historically Teutonic. Proud of an historic past of unsurpassed interest, they wished to draw inspiration from this and from no foreign source. Proud of a school of Christian art for which France had no rival or equivalent, they wished to study its remains, and to follow Jan Van Eyck, Hans Memling, and Quentin Matsys, rather than the other and inferior masters whom the French school has set up for itself.

The school, though few in numbers, has been signally successful. There has been a power in it that has made itself felt throughout Europe, in spite of the almost universal opposition of critics and the outcries of easy-going artists disturbed in their quiet. The "emulation" which M. Gustave Planche looked for too often in vain, the Belgian reformers have perhaps a surplus of. They are very much in earnest, and always mean something. But, good as these traits are, and noteworthy as they are now-a-days, they do not make good art; in good times of art they would not be noteworthy, but things of course. It is difficult to say how much of the celebrity, influence, and importance of the school is due to the great abilities of Leys; but that much of it is so due, there can be no question. The reputation of it abroad is surely in a large measure due to him. Read, in partial proof of this, the words of M. Ernest Chesneau, no friend of Leys and his school, no friend of the novel and the free in art, a critic of the old school, if there ever was one, a seer of the surface of things and reputation rather than of the essence of things and of character: "—the archaic resurrections of a painter of Antwerp, M. Leys, whose ability and sincerity, however, no one will be tempted to despise. . . . The æsthetic doctrines of M. Leys are very questionable (*sont fort contestables*), I repeat, but are still very excusable. His attempt is very serious; it has in the Belgian school many imitators, convinced that they too are working to restore the national art. But by what bond does M. Tissot, born at Nantes, hope to attach himself to a movement of the school of Antwerp; what cause does he serve in wasting his talent in Gothic fancies having no roots in the past of French tradition? And yet M. Tissot is not without taste or knowledge," and so on. Belgium is more of an independent nation through the work of her great painter and his followers, than in literature, politics, or such military enterprises as the renewed fortification of her often fortified old cities.

Leys is a colorist, one of the first colorists of his time. Even his slighter work, such sketches as the three in the Tenth Street gallery, "The Reception," "The Arrival," "Preparing for the Banquet," Nos. 94, 95, and 96,—even in such slight work as this, with local color hardly suggested, and intended, as report says and appearances confirm, as cartoons or studies for permanent work elsewhere—even in such incomplete work his rare power is indicated. The very precious picture which was in Mr. Knoedler's gallery a year ago, "The Minstrel," is the only important work of his which we know to have been brought to America. But even this gives but a partial idea of the surpassing merit and charm of color of the larger pictures representing important scenes in the history of the Netherlands.

Leys is a great poetical master of expression. His insight into character is matched by his dramatic power of relation. He is a dramatic poet in color very much as Robert Browning is a dramatic poet in words; a certain resemblance seeming, indeed, traceable between these gifted, accomplished, and intensely individual artists. He is also as learned as Browning, or seems to be. His knowledge of his chosen epoch is profound and accurate, and he feels with his countrymen of the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries as Browning with the Italians of the Middle Ages.

Leys is a "realist" of the truest type, one whose power it is to conceive of every scene as it might have happened and probably did happen; to imagine every man's face and figure as it might have been and probably was; to show armor and costume that could be worn, and clad in which the man could stand and move; to ascribe to his characters gesture and action which is not impossible nor borrowed from the stage. We have had occasion to speak before of his pupil Tissot's naturalness of conception, but we found reason to believe M. Tissot's work rather reasoned out than felt. It is not so with Leys. There is a profound and active imagination in him which takes care that things be living and true.

We have described a great historical painter, and such we think this artist to be. The powerful and, on the whole, happy influence which he has exercised over his numerous pupils, and the real excellence displayed in the works of some of these seem to give promise of good art in Belgium to come as well as past. And there are others who have not been his pupils who yet are working in such concert with them as to help rather than hinder. Pictures painted in pursuance of the *doctrines æsthétiques*, which M. Chesneau thinks *fort contestables*, supply much of the strength of the Tenth Street collection, of which the principal claim upon our gratitude is just the presence of the valuable works of MM. Alma-Tadema, Koller, Lagye, and De Brackeleer, painters whose works have been almost unknown in America before.

Is, then, the charge of archaism and fanciful reproduction of the past a charge of no weight? "Résurrections archaïques" is M. Chesneau's phrase for M. Leys' work in general. Probably this charge—if serious charge it is—would not be urged against historical pictures representing scenes in bygone times. Probably even M. Chesneau would allow the figures in such a picture as, for instance, "The Massacre of the Magistrates of Louvain, 1379," to be clothed in costume of the fourteenth century, and the weapons used to be of a somewhat antiquated type. The charge can be seriously made against such pictures only as seem to show deliberate choice of "archaism." For instance, in the three studies at the Studio Building, said to be for decorative paintings in a private dining-hall in Antwerp, probably for the painter's wealthy friend and early patron, M. Couteau—why are these mediæval? "The Arrival" shows a gentleman and lady at the entrance-door, awaiting admission; with them is a half-grown boy who has in his left hand a long link or torch which he has just extinguished, and under the other arm he carries his master's sheathed rapier and belt; all the persons are in costume of the fifteenth century. In "The Reception" the guests are entering the room where is the host, who welcomes them. In "Preparing for the Banquet" a table is shown, covered with hanaps, cups, and other table furniture, among which is the ornament of the feast, the mighty peacock with body of pastry and his own neck and head and full suit of plumage; the surroundings, the screen and tapestry and table-cover, are full of interest. There are two figures only. In all three pictures the figures are evidently portraits. Why, then, is everything about them mediæval?

In the first place, because it was necessary that everything should be beautiful. Decoration was the purpose in view. Would it serve any decorative purpose, the painting of a modern dinner-table, though laid out never so splendidly? The only object which can find a place there, which has any chance to be beautiful, is a dish of fruit; and these the skill of a professed waiter easily makes hideous. But the necessary vessels on a fifteenth-century table were many of them splendid in color and imagery, all of them pleasing in form, all interesting because all differently designed, each by itself. So with costume; the housekeeper who stands at the head of the table, pausing a moment with knuckles on the board before whisking away about her duties of hospitality (perhaps too conscious, as well, that her portrait is being painted), would not have been an especially pleasing object in the costume of 1865. A handsomer woman than she would have been made hideous if her dress were faithfully rendered in full color. We have actually *no* costume. Now and then a lady combines two colors prettily, or (less often) achieves a graceful outline for her whole draped figure, but it is only as a gentleman sometimes wears a prettily colored scarf. Costume! We have even forgotten its nature and purpose, and hardly ever realize our deprivation. Even the dress of women is in almost every respect æsthetically wrong, and, which is the worst, is season by season growing worse. Mr. William Burges, the architect and excellent ornamental designer and sagacious critic, shows that the want of costume is one of the three great impediments to any progress in ornamental design in England, and quotes with approbation from Mr. Beresford Hope a sentence we have not elsewhere seen: "The ladies' costume has very greatly deteriorated within the last dozen years, and if we search into the reason for this falling off, I am afraid we must refer it to no less a person than the Empress of the French." And, continues Mr. Burges, "when she attained her present high position there was a glorious opportunity open to her; and had she possessed a really artistic taste she would gradually have given the ladies a costume that sculptors would have delighted to carve and painters to paint." He thinks, and we think with him, that it is rather hard for the painters and sculptors now to find anything to delight in.

But, in the second place, M. Leys purposely puts his thought into the past rather than into the present, because the past of Antwerp and the country around her is glorious, the present a little tame. The independence of Belgium is guaranteed by the Great Powers. There is no national life

within the circle of that guaranty; and the student's thoughts go back to the times when there was, and to the

"pageants splendid, that adorned those days of old;
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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Saturday Evening, January 20, 1866.

The week which ends to-day has been quieter than the preceding week. Gold has not fluctuated actively. It has been as low as 137½, and as high as 139¾, closing to-day at 139. A large short interest in gold remains uncovered, and in certain circles the idea prevails that the premium must soon decline to 130 if not to 125. Operators attach considerable importance to the clause of Mr. Morrill's financial bill which permits the Secretary of the Treasury to negotiate sterling bonds with interest payable in Amsterdam or London. It is assumed, on fair evidence, that if the credit of U. S. securities remains unimpaired in Europe, it would be possible to dispose of at least $2,000,000 a week of new bonds in Holland and Germany, which, with the customs revenue, would give to the Treasury Department an income of not less than three-quarters of a million per day in gold. Such resources would enable the Secretary to flood the gold market from time to time, in the event of new speculations for the rise, and so to assist the speculation for the fall as materially to diminish the interval which now divides specie and legal tender paper. Two objections have been raised to the "foreign bond" clause of Morrill's bill. The first is that it is derogatory to the dignity of the United States to seek financial aid in foreign countries; the second is that the United States cannot afford to export the gold which would be required to meet the interest accruing on United States bonds held abroad. Both objections may be equally met by the simple statement of fact that, whether Government negotiates the bonds abroad or at home, they are sure to go abroad in large quantities. If Mr. McCulloch does not send them out, Mr. Von Hoffman, Mr. Belmont, and Mr. Marcuse will. In the old dark days of the war, when the life of the Republic was trembling in the balance, and no man could tell whether we should emerge from the war triumphant or broken and bankrupt, Mr. Chase, then Secretary of the Treasury, in appealing for aid to the bankers of New York, mentioned that he had been offered money by Dutch bankers on the condition that he should make his bonds payable, interest and principal, at Amsterdam, and added, in a voice broken by emotion, that "in this dark hour of his country's sorrow, he would never, never go to the foreigner to beg for money; he would rather resign his office to-morrow." Circumstances are altered now. Our national credit now stands upon such a basis that no humiliation would be involved in the negotiation of a foreign loan. Foreigners already hold more than half the whole amount of 5-20 bonds in existence. We do not consider that the possession of these bonds by our German friends involves any humiliation to us, nor do sound reasoners anticipate future mischief from the semi-annual transmission of interest due on them to the other side. All other things being equal, it would be more convenient and more dignified for the United States to make their bonds payable, principal and interest, at a point within their own jurisdiction. But if a 5 per cent. bond—payable, principal and interest, at Amsterdam—can be sold in Europe on the same or nearly the same terms as a 6 per cent. bond payable here, there seems to be no good reason why Government should not let our foreign friends have a couple of hundred millions of such 5 per cent. bonds in the shape they want them.

Money has become easier during the week. Loans at 4 per cent. have been made on Governments, and at 5 per cent. on miscellaneous collaterals; on Friday and to-day it was difficult to place money at 5 per cent. Business paper, with the exception of strictly first-class, is not much in demand. Almost all articles of general merchandise are selling at a loss, and holders are understood to have suffered.

Exchange is quoted at 108½ to 108¾ for bankers' bills—a rate which precludes heavy shipments of gold. The market is glutted with cotton bills, and, as usual on a declining gold market, importers remit no more than they can help. The cotton question gains interest daily. We in this country are holding back the cotton in the face of increasing supplies. In England, every effort is being made to force us to ship, and the Bank of England has already raised the rate to 8 per cent. in order to check investment in our securities. It remains to be seen whether we or they are the stronger. The old United States Bank, just thirty years ago, tried in the same way to "carry" the cotton crop, in order to keep up the price, and broke in the attempt, carrying down with it nearly all the merchants of the country. We are richer and stronger now than then. If we can afford to ship no more cotton than is required to feed the Liverpool market to the extent of its actual consumption, we shall realize thrice as much for our cotton as we did when every surplus bale was sent to England as a matter of course. If, on the other hand, monetary disturbance here should compel holders to ship, a heavy decline would follow, and England would get the cotton she needs at so much the less. With regard to the prospects for 1866, very little can yet be said. The cotton circulars are not to be relied on. They are mostly issued by firms connected with the late pro-slavery interest, and the writers all seem to assume that no labor can be got out of the negro unless he be in a state of slavery. This much is certain: that the planters throughout the South are going to try to raise a great crop, and to rely exclusively on the West for food.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, exchange, gold, and money markets:

	Jan. 13.	Jan. 20.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104	104	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103⅞	103¾	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds of 1865	101¾	101¾	....	....
10-40 Bonds	93⅜	92⅞	....	⅝
7.30 Notes, second series	98	98¾	¾	....
New York Central	93¾	92¼	....	1½
Erie Railway	91	87 ex d.	....	...
Hudson River	106	103½	....	2½
Reading Railroad	102¼	101¼	....	1
Michigan Southern	69	70	1	....
Cleveland and Pittsburg	77½	84½	....	7
Chicago and North-western	32	31¾	....	¼
" " " Preferred	58¾	58	....	¾
Chicago and Rock Island	103½	102½	....	1
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	95	95¼	¼	....
Canton	43	44	1	...
Cumberland	42½	46¾	4¼	....
Mariposa	12¾	14	1¼	....
American Gold	139¾	139	....	¾
Bankers' Bills on London	108⅞	108½	.. .	⅜
Call Loans	7	5	....	2

The market has been feverish and variable throughout the week. Among speculators and investors the impression has generally prevailed that prices were going to decline. Railway earnings show a steady diminution, week after week, and it is now abundantly evident that the water-line of the Mississippi will next year resume its old share of the traffic from the West to the seaboard, at the expense of the roads running eastward from Chicago. Notwithstanding a reduction in freights which leaves little or nothing in the shape of profit to the carrier, the trunk lines are receiving less than usual, the farmers alleging that they had rather hold back their produce in the hope of a short crop in 1866, than ship it at present prices. Wealth is now as generally the rule among Western farmers as poverty was three or four years ago, and the national banks of that section are only too ready to carry produce for indefinite periods. A leading feature of the week has been a spasmodic advance in the shares of the Cleveland and Pittsburg Railroad Company. They sold ten days ago at 74½, yesterday at 84, and to-day as high as 90, closing at 84½. The Company paid 4 per cent. dividend last year, and to do that sold a million of stock at 80 per cent. It is generally understood that the new direction elected at the December meeting was pledged to adopt the policy of the Fort Wayne Company, with which the Cleveland and Pittsburg Company is practically associated for the next twenty-four years; and it is likewise understood that it is the policy of the former company to have the Pittsburg suspend dividends altogether for two years, until a connection is built with the Marietta and Cincinnati. Under these circumstances 50 would appear a high enough price for the stock. But so many speculators in Wall Street have undertaken to sell it short, that a clique has easily contrived to corner it and force up the price. In the end, it is far from probable that such cornering movements can prove profitable; but they prove none the less ruinous to the bears. Erie sold down to-day to 85 ex dividend, but closed at 87, with every appearance of renewed activity. The usual 4 per cent. dividend has been declared, much to the surprise of conservative friends of the property. The New York Central directors have declared a dividend of 3 per cent.; the stock declined, on the announcement, to 92. Among the soundest of the dividend-paying stocks the decline is marked; real holders appear to be converting them into money in order to be prepared for currency contraction. A movement has been inaugurated in Cumberland, which advanced 3 per cent. last week; a winter rise in this stock is usual. Atlantic and Pacific Mail both declined heavily during the week, on the prospect of a substantial opposition line.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

THE ANNUAL REPORT OF THE DIRECTORS OF
THE NINTH NATIONAL BANK
TO THE STOCKHOLDERS.

NEW YORK, January 9, 1866.

The Election was held this day, and the undersigned were unanimously re-elected Directors for the ensuing year. For this renewed and flattering expression of confidence on the part of the Stockholders, the Directors return their thanks.

The following is a

STATEMENT OF THE CONDITION OF THE BANK,
TUESDAY MORNING, JANUARY 2, 1866.

RESOURCES.		LIABILITIES.	
Loans and Discounts	$3,596,645 63	Capital Stock	$1,000,000 00
Government Securities	1,884,625 54	Surplus Profit after Paying Dividend	192,204 56
Furniture and Fixtures	13,000 00	Dividends Unpaid	53,336 58
Specie and Legal Tender	2,382,294 66	Circulation	894,940 00
Checks and Bills on other Banks	959,171 71	Deposits	7,451,367 63
Due from Banks and Bankers	756,111 23		
	$9,591,848 77		$9,591,848 77

In explanation we will say that, during the fiscal year, we have paid two Dividends of FIVE per cent. each, and the Government taxes, and now exhibit an actual SURPLUS, over and above all losses, expenses, and dividends, of NINETEEN per cent. on the CAPITAL STOCK.

From the earnings of the last six months we have applied $50,000, that is, five per cent. on the Capital Stock, to the extinguishment of the premium account; and although the Stockholders do not get this five per cent. in a dividend, yet it is represented in the United States Stocks held by the Bank.

During the past year, your Bank became a member of the New York Clearing House Association, by a unanimous vote of that body.

We are able to report that your Bank has well fulfilled its patriotic mission of aiding the placing of the Government Loans. The amount of subscriptions to the 7.30s was Forty-three Millions, Two Hundred and Sixty-two Thousand, Three Hundred Dollars ($43,262,300), this being the largest subscription taken by any one Bank. To appreciate this result, we would remark that had nineteen other banks taken each the same amount, the whole loan would have been taken by the twenty.

This gives us opportunity to say that, having served our beloved country in its hour of peril, we desire now to turn all our efforts to the securing in all legitimate and honorable ways the increase of our business with the community. To that end we invite the cordial co-operation of each Stockholder.

Our organization is now so well perfected as to give us all much satisfaction, and the relief from so much Government business gives our officers time to attend to individual dealers.

Our Deposits have been large, at times during the year reaching almost Twenty-one Millions of Dollars; but that was during the time the people were rushing to us with patriotic zeal to offer their money to their country. Now we can take the deposits of the business community; and we hold ourselves in readiness to DISCOUNT GOOD BUSINESS PAPER, payable at short dates. Such paper, being based on the sale of commodities, is in our opinion the safest business a bank can do.

DIRECTORS.

WILLIAM A. KOBBE, GEO. A. WICKS, GEO. A. FELLOWS, CHAS. MINZESHEIMER, THOMAS A. VYSE, JR., BARNET L. SOLOMON, SOLOMON L. HULL, J. O. WHITEHOUSE, JOSEPH U. ORVIS.

JOHN T. HILL, Cashier. JOSEPH U. ORVIS, President.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY
BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - - - - - - - - $1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - - - - 1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CASH CAPITAL, - - - $1,400,000 00

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom, and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-ensuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies by receiving a note for one-half when the premium amounts to over $30.

THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

$912,342 00,

and

$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

$1,400,777 16.

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the policy holders.

COMPETENT AGENTS WANTED.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

FIRE INSURANCE
With Participation in Profits.

NORTH AMERICAN FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
OFFICE, 114 BROADWAY.
BRANCH OFFICE,
10 COOPER INSTITUTE, THIRD AVENUE.

INCORPORATED 1823.

CASH CAPITAL $500,000 00
SURPLUS 251,653 11

Cash Capital and Surplus, Jan. 1, 1866, $751,653 11.

Ensures Property against Loss or Damage by fire at usual rates, and the Assured participate in the Profits of the Business.

Policies issued and Losses paid at the Office of the Company, or at its various Agencies in the principal cities in the United States.

R. W. BLEECKER, Secretary. JAMES W. OTIS, President.

THE
MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,
COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE
Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.
ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

Insurance Scrip.
WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,
BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

Thirty-first Dividend

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET,

JANUARY 10, 1866.

The Directors have This Day declared a Semi-Annual Dividend of

SIX PER CENT.,

FREE OF U. S. TAX

(Reserving all unexpired premiums), payable on and after MONDAY, the 15th inst.

P. NOTMAN Secretary. J. D. STEELE, President.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.

ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier. B. SEAMAN, Cashier.

E. W CLARK & CO.,

BANKERS AND BROKERS,

35 SOUTH THIRD STREET, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

DEALERS IN GOVERNMENT BONDS AND TREASURY NOTES, CERTIFICATES OF INDEBTEDNESS, QUARTERMASTERS' VOUCHERS, COMPOUND INTEREST NOTES.

STOCKS and BONDS of all kinds BOUGHT and SOLD on COMMISSION.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

Celebrated Gold Medal

GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

SPECIAL GOLD MEDAL.

(From Watson's Weekly Art Journal.)

AWARDS TO MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.—A Gold Medal was awarded, at the late Fair of the American Institute, to CARHART, NEEDHAM & CO., for the best Reed Instrument on exhibition—a most just testimonial.

"They are an exceedingly good substitute for an Organ, and I can speak of them in the highest terms." GEO. W. MORGAN.

"I have found them to be the *finest Instruments of the class I ever saw.*" GEO. F. BRISTOW.

"They are entitled to be ranked as the *first* and *best* among instruments of their class." WM. A. KING.

"*The tone is incomparable*, and they are *far in advance* of any other instrument of a similar kind." CHARLES FRADEL.

THE PARLOR ORGAN,

with the recent improvements of Mr. J Carhart, is, without exception, *far superior* in QUALITY, POWER, SWEETNESS, VARIETY and EXPRESSION OF TONE. DURABILITY OF CONSTRUCTION, ELEGANCE OF CASE—POSSESSING IMPROVEMENTS APPLIED BY US ONLY.

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DECKER & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,

419 BROOME STREET,

One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic-elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

AMERICAN WATCHES.

J. H. JOHNSTON & CO., 150 BOWERY, N. Y., sell at lowest rates

American Gold and Silver Watches,
English Lever Watches,
Fine Swiss Watches.

The handsomest Detached Lever Watch in the market for $25.

PURE GOLD WEDDING RINGS.

Fine Jewelry, diamonds, silver ware, and best quality silver-plated ware of our own manufacture.

Articles sent free of expense to all parts of the country, and satisfaction guaranteed.

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The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

Pacific Mail Steamship Company's

THROUGH LINE

TO CALIFORNIA,

TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,

AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street, at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, *via* Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

	FIRST CABIN,	SECOND CABIN,	STEERAGE,
ON STEAMERS....	$325.	$225.	$100.

Panama Railroad ticket invariably $25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, *via* HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

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MACHINISTS', FOUNDERS', SMITHS' and BOILER-MAKERS' TOOLS.

SHAFTING, with Ball and Socket Bearings and Double Cone Vice-Couplings, admitting of the easiest possible adjustment.

A complete assortment of PULLEY and WHEEL PATTERNS, from which Castings or finished work will be furnished.

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THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,

STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

GROVER & BAKER'S

SEWING MACHINES

WERE AWARDED THE HIGHEST PREMIUMS

At the State Fairs of

New York,	Illinois,	Virginia,
New Jersey,	Michigan,	N. Carolina,
Vermont,	Wisconsin,	Tennessee,
Pennsylvania,	Iowa,	Alabama,
Ohio,	Kentucky,	Oregon,
Indiana,	Missouri,	California,

And at numerous Institute and County Fairs, including all the Fairs at which they were exhibited the past three years.

The GROVER & BAKER ELASTIC-STITCH SEWING MACHINE is superior to all others, for the following reasons:

1. The seam is stronger and more elastic than any other.
2. It is more easily managed, and is capable of doing a greater variety and range of work than any other.
3. It is capable of doing all the varieties of sewing done by other machines, and, in addition, executes beautiful embroidery and ornamental work.

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FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,

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THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. FOUR distinct Stitches.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

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PYLE'S SALERATUS.	PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
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Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York

SCHOOL FURNITURE!

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IN EVERY STYLE,

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Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

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64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

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FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

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WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

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EAGLE GAS COOKING STOVES AND RANGES,

GUARANTEED TO BAKE PERFECTLY.

HEATING STOVES, GUARANTEED TO HEAT ROOMS PERFECTLY.

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The best in market, have regular SIDE OVENS, and guaranteed to BAKE PERFECTLY, and not to Smoke or Smell.

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Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars

They are more fire-proof.

They are more burglar-proof.

They are perfectly dry.

They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.

Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

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Send for a descriptive Circular.

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LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY,

112 AND 114 BROADWAY.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President, according to the agent of the Associated Press, has delivered himself to a "distinguished senator" on the subject of negro suffrage in the District of Columbia, as well as upon the proposed amendments to the Constitution changing the basis of representation. If his remarks upon the attempt to establish negro suffrage in the District be correctly reported, he will probably veto the bill. The arguments against the measure which the telegraph puts into his mouth are none of them strong, and some of them very odd. That the measure will "engender enmity, contention, and strife between the two races," may or may not be true; it is natural for the President, born and bred in a slave State, to think so; but even if it is true, it is an objection which has always lain against the elevation of a race previously degraded and oppressed to an equality, political or social, with its oppressors. This irritation and annoyance on the part of the dominant class is one of the unavoidable accompaniments of any great social or political revolution. You might as well look for disease without pain as expect a caste to surrender its peculiar privileges without much bitterness and heart-burning. This, in our minds, is one of the smallest of the objections to the bill; the serious one is, that Congress in it deliberately declares that no amount of ignorance ought to disqualify a man for voting. The President's fear that the agitation of the question will lead to a war between the two races which "would result in great injury to both and the certain extermination of the negro population," is, we presume, expressed in the language of the reporter and not in his. Any injury the negroes may sustain over and above "certain extermination" will hardly be worth considering. Mr. Johnson's remarks on amending the Constitution are sensible and timely. If it is to be recast, a constitutional convention is the proper body to do it.

A GOOD illustration of the difficulty of protecting the public against corporations by any system of inspection, or perhaps we should rather say, of the extent to which all systems of inspection are dependent for their efficiency upon the character of the officials who administer them, has just been afforded in the case of the Columbian Marine Insurance Company, of this city. This company suspended payment about ten days ago, to the consternation of its stockholders and creditors—but without surprising many people actually engaged in the insurance business. On turning to the report of the State Superintendent of the Insurance Department presented to the Legislature in March, 1865, we find that the Columbian did not file, as the law requires, a "detailed statement of its assets and liabilities" at the close of 1864. It simply, says the superintendent, "alleged that it was unable to prepare the required statement, although companies with much larger assets and business have promptly complied with our State laws, and made the exhibits required by the department." Instead of at once instituting an investigation into its affairs, however, and proceeding to wind it up within sixty days, as the law requires, he allowed it to go on and to serve for another year as a snare for the unwary. We have heard of one case in which a lady last summer invested her whole fortune in it, of course in ignorance of its condition. The superintendent offers no reason or excuse whatever for this extraordinary neglect of his duty. The only statement of his which will bear the appearance of an excuse is his own acknowledged failure to prepare, though he had nearly nine months to do it in, a new form prescribed by the Legislature early in 1864 for the annual statements of the insurance companies. Characteristically enough we find several pages of his report devoted to a bombastic and irrelevant disquisition on the comparative growth of population in the United States and in foreign countries, in which he demolishes Malthus, and calls increase in wealth and numbers "*spolia opima*."

NEW JERSEY ratified the Constitutional Amendment on Tuesday week, January 23.

THE public have been assured during the past week that the admission of Tennessee would take place very shortly. We are as ignorant of the authority for this statement as we are of the peculiar merits of the State in question. It is true she has, with undisguised reluctance, consented to conditional negro testimony in her courts; but that is about the measure of her willingness to abandon the ways of slavery for those of freedom. A free-school bill was defeated in the Senate last week, and the action may be viewed as the determination of the hitherto ruling class to maintain its supremacy by the enforced ignorance of its subjects, and as an additional bar to the immigration of Northerners, whose solicitude for the education of their children precedes that for a fertile soil and abundant crops.

THE New York correspondent of the London *Spectator* informs that journal that Carl Schurz is "the reputed author" of the letters entitled "The South as It Is," appearing in THE NATION. How they came to be ascribed to Mr. Schurz, we do not well know. Many people endeavor to discover the authors of articles in THE NATION by an *à priori* process which, in nine cases out of ten, leads to false conclusions, and we presume Mr. Schurz got the "repute" of doing us the honor of corresponding with us, in the same way. It is but justice to him to say that when travelling in the South on official business for the Government he never sent us a line on any subject whatever, and was never requested by us to do so.

SENATOR COWAN, of Pennsylvania, stated last week in his place that there were seventy amendments to the Constitution then pending! The very number may comfort the opposition, to which Mr. Cowan belongs. So much budding zeal will add very few branches to the parent stock of our Government. Even if they all passed, one could h[ardly] expect to outlive their ratification by the several States [of the] amendment, with all its popularity and pressing import[ance] a year in being ratified. Kentucky has not yet giv[en] and says she never will, if only because she has o[ffered] The only workmanlike way, if so much amending [is] a constitutional convention. Meanwhile, it i[s well] "Constitution as it is" is put to its highest [use]

to answer well enough our present purpose, which is to give reality to our republicanism and equal protection to all men under the laws.

MR. POLLARD, who recently assaulted the *Times* correspondent in Richmond, was brought before the mayor on the Wednesday following. Mr. Brooks admitted that he had dressed his account of the shooting affair in the Capitol, of which he was not a witness, "to make it more acceptable" to the readers and proprietor of the newspaper which employs him; and that if spoken to Mr. Pollard's face, it would have been "grossly insulting." "Some license," however, he urged, "is allowed to newspaper correspondents in their publications." Judge Crump, the counsel for Mr. Pollard, alluding to Mr. Brooks as one of the "jackals of the press," thought he had only received a merited chastisement by "that most degrading of all weapons, the cowhide." Except that he was careful to state whom he considered degraded by it, we might have supposed the judge meant his client. Perhaps the mayor himself had this doubt. At all events he remarked with great profundity that "the opinion of the court, sitting on the bench, is not the same as if the court was not sitting on the bench;" and ordered Mr. Pollard to give bail for his appearance at the February term of the Hustings Court. So the doubt becomes a standing one.

IT seems to us that Mr. James Brooks raised one very good objection to the amendment introduced by Mr. Stevens from the Reconstruction Committee. The scheme for forestalling the Southern reactionists by changes in the Constitution would be far more plausible than it is if it were not still an open question by whom those changes can lawfully be made. Its supporters, clearly, believe that the conquered South is debarred from all share in ratifying or rejecting them. The President, on the contrary, takes the opposite view, as was evident to everybody in the case of the abolition amendment. Until this difference is settled, Mr. Stevens's policy is as uncertain and unpromising as it is in any event tedious. If Congress think Mr. Seward's proclamation bad arithmetic, it is high time to inform the Executive.

THE Springfield *Republican* had, a few days ago, some excellent remarks, which we regret to be unable to copy entire, on "flunkeyism," apropos of the difficulty experienced by the Massachusetts Senate in agreeing both with Governor Andrew and Senator Sumner in taking opposite sides of the same question. The fact is that party discipline has been brought to such perfection, and its obligations have with most men acquired so much force, that criticism of the conduct of a party leader, even by those who agree with him as to general aims, is getting to be looked on as a kind of *scandalum magnatum*, of which nobody but a political profligate will be guilty. Being thus all but released from the wholesome and necessary restraint of the only public opinion about which they care anything—that of their own supporters—party leaders are getting into the way of indulging all kinds of caprices, and then treating any failure to applaud their performances as an indication of treachery to the cause.

OUR attention has been called to a misapprehension which might have arisen in regard to our paragraph last week on Mr. Sherman's re-election. The vote of 94 to 41, which we mentioned rather incidentally, being that of the Senate and not of the Republican caucus, of course was strictly a party vote; and the friends of Mr. Sherman and Mr. Schenck alike united to defeat the Democratic nominee.

IN a report made by Sam Adams to the Massachusetts House of Representatives, in March, 1767, concerning Hutchinson's claim to a seat in the Council, Hutchinson being at the time Chief-Justice of the col- is the following passage. The political wisdom it embodies re- forcing now quite as much as a hundred years ago:

> of a chief-justice is most certainly incompatible with The cool and impartial administration of common monize with the meanders and windings of a e integrity of the judge may sometimes embar- here is infinitely more danger, in the long run, of good and upright judge. This has often urse of things may be expected again."

NEWS of the death of Frederika Bremer reached this country last week. She is known here not only by her novels, which had a wide circle of readers, but by her personal presence some sixteen years ago. The friendships she then formed, among widely different classes, are probably still green, at least in the North. She was a good woman, of very broad sympathies, interested in all that concerned the welfare of society and the improvement of the people. She was fortunate in securing the Howitts as translators for her works, for they possessed a spirit kindred to her own, and in reproducing her but gave expression to themselves.

A BLOOD-RED blossom of war (which it would not be violence to call a Prim-rose in this case) has burst forth in Spain, and the Government which has been going about of late correcting poor little republics all over the world has now trouble enough to engage it exclusively at home. All that is certainly known about the revolution is that it is under the direction of the democratic leader, General Prim, and that it began with a revolt in two cavalry regiments. There have been disturbances and arrests in most of the cities, and martial law is enforced wherever the Government prevails. La Mancha is the seat of so much actual war as there is. All intelligence comes through Government channels, and tastes of them.

THERE is some excited journalism both in England and France over the denunciation by the *Moniteur* of the extradition treaty between the two countries, which has just been abruptly terminated by the French Government as of no effect. The Imperial press declares that no criminal has ever been delivered to France under this treaty, while the liberal French papers and the English journals assert that England had given up twenty-four rogues for fourteen received from France. There was some anxiety felt in England lest the friendship of the two governments should be imperilled by a demand for the extradition of political conspirators under a new treaty, a demand to which England could never accede. The Government papers at Paris deny that the Emperor had any such ulterior motive in denouncing the late treaty.

THE oracular response of the French Emperor to the New Year's felicitations of the Diplomatic Corps, for which all Europe waits with such great anxiety, has had this year even less meaning than usual. The Emperor was happy, he said, in the experience of accomplished events, which permitted him to predict for the world long days of peace and prosperity, and so dismissed the diplomatists with heartfelt thanks. The *Journal des Débats* finds nothing in the speech but the compliments of the season. *Au contraire*, the *Constitutionnel's* notion is that the speech is grandly significant, and that it will produce a profound impression in France and an immense sensation throughout the world.

THERE is rumor of an alliance between Austria and France, which it is said Austria greatly desires, that she may be the better able to carry out her plans for internal reconstruction, and at the same time oppose an added force to the pretensions of Prussia. The *Débats* sees an almost insuperable obstacle to the alliance in the widely different views which France and Austria entertain in regard to Italy.

THE Prussian Parliament was to meet on the 15th inst., though for what purpose it is hard to tell. An official paper announced that the course of the session would depend greatly on the attitude of the members, which is interpreted to mean that members might discuss public affairs in favor of the Government, but in case of opposition would be sent back to their families like insubordinate students. Some anxiety is felt at Berlin concerning the rumored alliance between France and Austria.

THE complications in Greece have become so serious that it is said the three protecting powers, Russia, France, and England, are about to send vessels of war to the Piræus, to sutain the faltering dominion of King George. A much happier plan would be to leave the Greeks to arrange their affairs without foreign protection or interference.

THE new Italian cabinet is composed of Sig. Pettinango, Minister of War; Sig. Berti, Minister of Public Instruction; General Angioletti (continued), Minister of Marine; Sig. Scialoja, Minister of Finance. During the late ministerial crisis the Italians behaved with great patience and moderation, and added another proof to those already given of the qualifications of that people for self-government.

FRANCIS II., of Naples, and the Grand Duke of Tuscany, have recently made claim, through the good offices of France, for their private property, now in the hands of the Italian Government; and the latter has replied that it is not its intention to appropriate this property, but that its repossession cannot be effected through diplomacy. The exiled princes must make their claims regularly through the Italian tribunals. It is supposed that they will be slow to do this, inasmuch as an action brought by them in an Italian court would be a formal recognition of the existing government in Naples and Italy.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Jan. 27, 1866.

THE leading development of the week has been the report from the Joint Committee of fifteen on the condition and right to representation of the late rebel States. The constitutional amendment recommended by the committee, basing representation and taxation upon actual population, excluding from the enumeration all to whom the elective franchise is "denied or abridged on account of race or color," awakened the most animated discussion of the session. On the one hand, the measure was denounced by the opposition party as a bill to postpone indefinitely the restoration of the Union, and to force negro suffrage upon the South. On the other hand, the Union men were greatly divided in opinion as to the policy and effect of the proposed amendment. A majority of Western members appear to favor a rule basing representation in Congress upon actual voters alone, leaving direct taxes to be levied upon population or upon property. This is opposed by the New England members, and by many others, as unfairly reducing the representation of States where voters are fewer on account of the preponderance of the female element in the population. Others oppose the amendment of the Joint Committee on the ground that it holds out a direct premium upon the disfranchisement of whole classes, upon grounds other than race or color. They argue forcibly against inserting into the fundamental law of the republic a rule which admits of any State denying the elective franchise to its poorer citizens, for example, by a property qualification, thus constituting an oligarchy instead of a republican form of government, while still counting the full numbers disfranchised as a basis of representation in Congress. There are others who object that the proposed amendment recognizes the right of the States to disfranchise, on account of color, large bodies of their citizens. These objectors demand an amendment investing the federal Congress with power to prescribe the qualifications of electors who are to participate in the federal Government. This latter view, although not yet very fully insisted upon, is felt by a large share of the Republican majority to be the strongest and most logical position that can be maintained. It is unquestionably more simple and freer from practical objections than any of the other propositions. It would establish a uniform rule throughout the nation, to be modified or amended only by national law. Why should each State be permitted to prescribe a different rule as to who shall be competent to vote for officers of the United States? Now that slavery is got rid of, the obstacle which prevented the slavery-bound founders of our civil polity from making a uniform rule of representation no longer blocks the way.

Of course, this plan will encounter the opposition of all the Democratic party, as well as of the so-called Conservatives. The battle of the champions of the State-rights heresy, as against the power and authority of the nation, will be vigorously renewed. But since this school is just as intensely opposed to any disturbance of the Constitution at all, and it is questionable whether twenty-seven States (three-fourths of thirty-six) can be got to make even the amendment proposed by the committee a part of the Constitution, is it not just as well to make the issue upon ground that is tenable, and sure to be reached at last, if we are to continue a nation, and not an aggregate of warring sovereignties? Thaddeus Stevens, indeed, significantly assumed that but nineteen States are needed to make the amendment he reported valid as a part of the Constitution; but this theory, which counts eleven States as out of the Union, has been practically ignored by Mr. Seward in his proclamation of the adoption of the anti-slavery amendment, as well as by sundry statutes in the past legislation of Congress.

The passage of the Freedmen's Bureau act, substantially as it was originally reported by the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, leaves that body free to proceed with the bill regulating suffrage in this District, as well as with Mr. Trumbull's bill to enforce the Constitutional Amendment guaranteeing the freedom of all persons. Both measures are expected to pass by about the same majority as made the Freedmen's Bureau bill a law.

It is more and more evident, as time advances, that no progress toward the renewed representation of the South in the federal Government is to be made during this session of Congress. Not even the Tennessee members are likely to be admitted to seats, and it is only candid to state that the evidences of continued disloyalty constantly coming up from those States are the chief obstacles which prevent Congress from recognizing their claims. No members are more strenuous in opposing hasty "reconstruction" than the four radical Congressmen from Kentucky, and the seven or eight (including the two senators) from Missouri.

DIARY.

Monday, Jan. 22.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner offered a petition from the colored convention of South Carolina praying Congress to secure them in their lives, liberty, and property, and grant them equal suffrage. Referred. Mr. Fessenden, from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, reported a proposed amendment to the Constitution as follows: "Representatives and direct taxes shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included in this Union according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed; *Provided*, that whenever the elective franchise shall be denied or abridged in any State on account of race or color, all persons of such race or color shall be excluded from the basis of representation." Laid over. Senate bill providing that in any trial before United States courts for capital offences the case may be carried to the Supreme Court by writ of error, and questions of law there determined and the judgment of the court below affirmed or reversed, also authorizing persons to act as jurors in such cases, notwithstanding an opinion formed or expressed, was taken up. Mr. Sumner and Mr. Davis objected that the latter provision set aside the universal law of the courts of the United States, as laid down by Chief-Justice Marshall in the Burr case. The bill was postponed. The resolution referring to the Reconstruction Committee all papers relating to the condition and representation of the late rebel States was passed, with the verbal understanding that it did not embrace credentials. The bill to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau was discussed by Messrs. Cresswell, Wilson, and Trumbull in its favor, and by Cowan, Davis, Saulsbury, and Guthrie against it.

In the House, Mr. Finck offered a bill amending the oath of office, so as to make the requirement of loyalty to the U. S. Government prospective, and not retrospective. Referred. Mr. Stevens moved to instruct the Judiciary Committee to enquire whether legislation is necessary to enforce the taking of the test-oath by all officials, South as well as North. Adopted. Mr. Ashley offered a constitutional amendment that in case of the death or disability of the President or Vice-President, the Chief-Justice shall act as President; also, that in case of no election by the people, Congress shall elect a President in joint session. Referred. Mr. Jenckes offered a bill providing for the regulation of elections in the District of Columbia. Referred. Bills were offered and referred, to construct a ship-canal around Niagara Falls; to admit Colorado as a State into the Union; to grant pensions to soldiers of the war of 1812; to establish a navy yard on the Delaware; to provide for defence of the North-eastern frontier; to authorize the President to appoint certain officers of his household, and fixing their salaries; and to grant bounty land to soldiers of the U. S. Mr. Williams offered resolutions for the trial by military commission for violation of the laws of war, and not by civil courts for treason, of leaders of the rebellion now in custody. Referred. Mr. Niblack offered resolutions of commendation of the President for refusing to accept presents, and censuring all officials who accept presents from their subordinates in office. Laid over. Mr. Stevens, from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, reported the constitutional amendment already cited in the Senate proceedings, and proposed to call the previous question, and to have the resolution passed before the sun went down, after one speech on each side; whereupon a lively discussion arose, developing great differences of sentiment among the Union majority. Mr. Conkling, of New York, made an extended speech in behalf of the amendment, and Mr. Rogers against it. Mr. Stevens said as twenty-one State legislatures were now sitting, and nineteen States would constitute the three-fourths necessary to amend the Constitution, he should urge immediate action.

January 23.—In the Senate, Mr. Conness presented resolutions of a California Miners' Convention, protesting against the bill for the survey and sale of all mineral lands of the United States. Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, offered a constitutional amendment prohibiting the States from discriminating against any of their citizens on account of color or race in prescribing qualifications for electors. The Freedmen's Bureau bill was discussed by Messrs. Fessenden and Trumbull in its favor, and by Messrs. Saulsbury, Hendricks, Davis, Johnson, and McDougall against it.

In the House, Mr. Henderson, of Oregon, offered resolutions declaring that rebel States have forfeited their rights and existence, and that their government belongs to

the United States; also, that the negro race ought to be colonized in Texas and protected as a dependency of the United States. Referred. Mr. Grinnell moved that a census of the United States be taken in the year 1866. Referred. The constitutional amendment reported by the Joint Committee of fifteen was discussed during the whole day. Mr. Brooks introduced into the debate the petition of sundry "women's rights" advocates in New York for female suffrage, and gave notice that he should move to amend by inserting the words "or sex" into the constitutional amendment.

January 24.—In the Senate, Mr. Kirkwood, of Iowa, senator elect, was qualified and took his seat. Mr. Trumbull, from the Committee on the Judiciary, reported against repealing the test-oath of July 2, 1862. Mr. Wilson offered a constitutional amendment prohibiting any payment by the United States or any State for emancipated slaves, or for any debt incurred in aid of rebellion. Mr. Dixon offered a resolution looking to legislation for the protection of loyal citizens whose property had been confiscated by the Confederate Government. Referred. The Freedmen's Bureau bill was again discussed. Mr. Davis offered eleven amendments, aimed at curtailing the operation of the Bureau, all of which were rejected.

In the House, the constitutional amendment as to the basis of representation was again discussed, occupying the whole day.

January 25.—In the Senate, a bill authorizing the Postmaster-General to employ twenty-nine additional clerks was passed; also, a bill providing for an additional land district in Oregon. Mr. Davis spoke three hours against the Freedmen's Bureau bill, after which it was passed; yeas 37, nays 10.

In the House, the constitutional amendment prescribing the basis of representation was debated during the entire day. Mr. Julian offered a resolution looking to the protection by United States laws of the lives of passengers on railroad cars. Referred.

January 26.—In the Senate, a bill for the relief of seamen on board vessels wrecked in the naval service was passed. Also, a bill extending to four years the time for withdrawal of imported goods from bonded warehouses. Mr. Howe's resolution for provisional governments over the late rebel States was taken up, when he made an argument to show that the insurgents have not surrendered their cause.

In the House, it was ordered that the debate on the constitutional amendment, reported by the Committee of Fifteen, be closed on Monday, January 29, and that the vote be taken January 30. The measure was then discussed by Mr. McKee, of Kentucky, in its favor, and by Messrs. Harding, Kerr, and Wright against it. The House passed a bill granting a copyright to Mrs. Herndon for the republication of Herndon's "Exploration of the Valley of the Amazon," heretofore published by Congress.

January 27.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, the day was spent in Committee of the Whole on the State of the Union. Speeches were made by Messrs. Smith, Baker, and Broomall, all discussing the conditions of restoration of the late rebel States.

THE FREEDMEN.

General Saxton's report for South Carolina and Georgia estimates the number of acres of abandoned lands seized by him for the Bureau at 312,014, and the number of houses transferred by the Treasury Department at 120. "Under the provisions of Circular No. 15, from the War Department, these have mostly been restored to their former owners." On some of the Sea Islands the freedmen colonized under General Sherman's order "have established civil government, with constitutions and laws for the regulation of their internal affairs, with all the different departments for schools, churches, building roads, and other improvements." The number of colored children now being educated in South Carolina is 6,000. "The entire want of capital on the part of the planters to pay for labor is undoubtedly the principal reason why the planters cannot, at present, secure all the labor they require. As a rule, the freedmen are ready to work where they are sure of receiving their pay."

General Gregory reports that the crops in Texas, of all kinds, are garnered, and the subsistence for the coming year for blacks and whites is abundant. The cotton crop, though only half as large as in former years, was so well gathered that, under present prices, it will bring more wealth into the State than any heretofore grown. This has been accomplished chiefly by the labor of the freedmen amid the distractions and uncertainties of their transition. "They are, as a general thing, strongly impressed with religious sentiments, and their morals are equal, if not superior, to those of a large majority of the better informed and educated." Their desire to learn is intense. Their testimony is admitted in some of the judicial districts, but excluded in others. Where federal troops have not been quartered, the blacks are not unfrequently restrained of their liberty as of old.

Colonel Robinson's report for the district of Mobile (embracing seven counties) is a powerful argument for continuing the Bureau, and endowing it with higher powers. The press and the civil courts unite in wilfully impeding the elevation of the freedmen, and seek to deprive them of security. "If the matter of enlightening them by a school of education was left to the white citizens, the unfortunate class would be indefinitely continued in ignorance and mental darkness such as slavery alone could entail."

Colonel Osborne has submitted to General Howard a plan for colonizing freedmen in Florida. He proposes that the Government shall procure by purchase and erect as a Territory all that portion of the State below the 28th degree of latitude. None but freedmen to be allowed to buy or pre-empt land, and each head of a family to have 80 acres. About 400 townships, or an area of 9,000,000 acres, are suitable for settlement and cultivation, accommodating 115,000 families in the ratio mentioned.

—Gen. Terry has again pulled rein on the reconstructed Virginians. The Legislature enacted a law applicable to vagrants, among whom are reckoned those who, not having wherewithal to support their families, live idly and refuse to work for the usual and common wages given to other laborers in the like work in the place where they then are. This was in manifest complicity with such combinations of employers as we noted last week in the case of the James River planters, and Gen. Terry so regarded it. The penalty for vagrancy was compulsory hire for three months, or four if escape was attempted, with authority from a justice of the peace to work the offender with ball and chain. This the general regarded as another form of servitude, between which or the insufficient wages of their employers the freedmen must choose. He accordingly ordered that no magistrate, civil officer, or other person should in any way apply or attempt to apply the provisions of the statute to any colored person in the department.

—The Senate passed on Thursday the bill "to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau," by a vote of 37 to 10. It was substantially that introduced by Senator Trumbull on the 5th of January; but for sections 4 and 6 were substituted sections 5 and 6 of Representative Eliot's bill, and section 5, confirming and making valid the possessory titles granted under Gen. Sherman's order, was so altered as to protect the occupant from disturbance or ejectment during three years from the date of that order, unless the owner shall be able to make with him a settlement satisfactory to the Commissioner of the Freedmen's Bureau. The Senate refused to except Kentucky from the surveillance and authority of the Bureau. The Bureau continues until otherwise provided by law.

—The Sampson County (N. C.) court recently sentenced a negro to be sold into servitude on a charge of drawing a pistol on a white man. Major Wyckersham, of the Freedmen's Bureau for that district, at once ordered the court and all the parties concerned to be placed under arrest in Raleigh.

—The Tennessee House of Representatives passed a negro testimony bill on the 24th ult. by yeas 44, nays 32.

—There are upwards of 23,000 colored persons in Washington city. In 1860 there were less than 15,000, bond and free, in the entire District. The white population of Washington at that time amounted to 11,138.

Minor Topics.

The advent of the new year suggested to us the idea of noting down a few of the material indications of the progress made by the world since the beginning of the century, and we speedily made out a list of things which are so familiar to us that we have not only ceased to think of them as novelties, but very few of us can even fancy the world getting on without them, though our grandfathers had never heard of them. The material progress made within the present century is, to be sure, a trite subject, but, then, we doubt whether, in spite of all that has been said upon it, many people have sufficient acquaintance with its details not to be startled by seeing them grouped together. A man need not be very old to remember the time when there were no railroads, no locomotives, no steamships, and no telegraph wires—no gas-lights, no petroleum, no California gold, no india-rubber shoes or coats, no percussion caps or revolvers, no friction matches, no city aqueduct, no steam printing-presses, no sewing-machines, no reaping machines, no postage stamps or envelopes or pens of steel or gold; when there was no homœopathy or hydropathy, no chloroform or teeth extracted without pain; when there was no mesmerism, no biology, and no table-tippings and marvels from the spiritual world; no planet Neptune, no Stuart's syrup, no Hecker's flour, no temperance societies;

no sax-horns or cornets or Boehm flutes or seven-octave pianos; no photographs, no paint-tubes for artists, no complete stenography, no lithography or anastatic printing or etching on stone, no illustrated news, and hardly a decent wood engraving; when omnibuses and street-cars were not dreamed of; when dull street-lamps lit with whale-oil were a luxury, and the Metropolitan Police an Utopian vision; when there was no unpopular Christianity, no Emerson or Parker, no slavery agitation, no Garrison or Phillips; Tennyson, Browning, and Carlyle were in embryo, and even Wordsworth was hardly known; when there were no public schools, no special departments of science in colleges, no gymnasiums, no art unions, no literary or political clubs, no lyceum lecturers, no wisely organized and widely operating philanthropic societies, no prison discipline, no good lunatic asylums, no houses of employment and reformation for young scamps—and generally very little hope for reform in young or old scamps.

In those days people drank green tea, and ate heavy suppers, and went to bed with warming-pans and night-caps, and slept on feather-beds, with bed-curtains round them, and dreaded the fresh air in their rooms as much as sensible folks now-a-days dread to be without it. And if they heard a noise in the night, they got up and groped about in the dark, and procured a light with much difficulty, with flint and steel and tinder-box, and unpleasant sulphur matches. And went to their medicine chests and took calomel and blue pills, and Peruvian bark, and salts and senna, and jalap and rhubarb. In those days the fine gentlemen tippled old Jamaica and bitters in the morning, and lawyers took their clients to the side-board for a dram—while the fine ladies lounged on sofas reading Byron, and Moore, and Scott's novels. In those days long leather fire-buckets were hung in the entries, filled with water, and, when a fire broke out, every citizen was a fireman. In those days gentlemen chewed tobacco, indifferent where they expectorated, and ladies cleaned their dental pearls with snuff, and wore thin shoes, and laced themselves into feminine wasps and consumption. Babies were put to sleep with spanking and paregoric. Urchins were flogged at school *à posteriori*, and subjected to all sorts of unheard-of chastisements. Picture-books and toys were dear and poor. Big boys played *hockey* (or, as they called it South, *bandy*) in the streets, with crooked sticks and hard wooden balls (policemen being unknown), and went home to their mothers to have broken shins anointed with *opodeldoc*. Street-fights occurred between schools, and schoolmasters were persecuted by the biggest boys. Young ladies danced nothing but formal and decorous cotillions, or fast and furious Virginia reels, in wide entry halls, by the light of candles that called for snuffers every ten minutes—to music by black fiddlers or cracked and jingling pianos; while mothers sat darning stockings, and fathers played backgammon, or gambled, and swigged brandy-and-water—or came home late, roaring bacchanalian songs, and enquiring of their sleepy wives in which brown-paper parcel the *milk* was tied up. Boarding-school misses in calico gowns practised the "Battle of Prague" or the "Caliph of Bagdad" or Clementi's "Sonatas" on instruments not much bigger than a modern young lady's travelling trunk, strung with jangling wires that were always snapping: and occasionally chirped Moore's "Melodies," or such airs as "Gaily the Troubadour," or "Pray, papa, stay a little longer," or "The banks of the blue Mosche-he-he-helle." Guests sat on hard wooden chairs, sometimes with their feet up, over roaring wood fires, "spittin' round and makin' 'emselves sociable," with juleps, egg-nogg, apples, and cider. Every man shaved; wore a bell-crown hat; a swallow-tail coat with a horse-collar; carried a turnip-shaped timekeeper in his waist-band, with a heavy seal hanging out; had his breeches' pockets full of silver half-dollars; wore round-toed boots and linen shirts; cased his throat in a high black satin neck-stock or heavy cravat, with high standing shirt-collars; ate all manner of indigestible food; swallowed all manner of nauseous quack medicines; dined at one o'clock, some families eating the pudding before the meat; took naps in the afternoons (on Sundays preferring the pews for that purpose); had nothing to say against slavery or rum; took a meagre weekly newspaper; smoked "long nines;" ate fried oysters, and lobster salad, and Welsh rarebit with plenty of red pepper, and drank fiery Madeira or punch, at twelve o'clock at night; got his feet wet on slushy, snowy days; took awful colds and rheumatisms; sent for Dr. Sangsue, and was bled, blistered, and leeched; had nightmares, headaches, dyspepsia, fever, delirium, death and darkened rooms. In those days a journey from New York to Albany took as much time and thought as a voyage now to Panama; and a voyage to Europe was like a departure to the next world. We saw our friends aboard ship with sobs and tears, and a letter from across the ocean was like an angel's visit.

Such are a few of the reminiscences of fifty, nay forty, years ago. No doubt our horizon has expanded in a vast number of directions since then. But, *per contra*, have we not lost as well as gained? If we are better provided with ways and means for material comfort, have we gained also in self-reliant and industrious and simple habits? If we are all more on a level, are we as courteous? If riches abound more, do not luxury and extravagance threaten us proportionally? If we have grown more intelligent, have we grown wiser? If human and philanthropic associations overspread the country, are we individually less selfish? But we are not going to preach.

The delicacy of General Delafield ought not to go unsung by a muse vigilant to celebrate the progress of refinement; for since the first days of the war, when our generals fought the enemy in a spirit of brotherly kindness and conciliation, we have not seen so great proof of tenderness for the rebellion as General Delafield has lately shown. In an old army man, too, it is all the more surprising, for it must be confessed that soldiers—those surgeons of civilization—get rough habits of frankness, and like leeches, who make a great deal of incision, have a certain ruthlessness of touch. But General Delafield has preserved all the sensitive courtesy of his youth, and will not call a spade by its name in the presence of gardeners' children.

It is known that in the course of the late regrettable hostilities the Government troops took from the rebellious forces some thirty guns, which were sent to West Point, there to be inscribed with the names of the actions in which they were captured, and kept as trophies. The Secretary of War has now transmitted to Congress the correspondence between the Academy and the chief engineer of the army, in relation to these cannon, from which it appears that General Delafield, with the delicacy which we admire, replied to Captain Balch's request for leave to mark the guns with the proper inscriptions, that it had better not be done. In speaking of the pupils of the Academy, he said:

> "It should be our study with these young men to permit nothing of an irritable or boastful spirit to be placed constantly before the sight of those whose section of country suffered by the rebellion. Let history tell the evils this rebellion has produced, and let us, through the instrumentality of the Military Academy, renew its powerful influence in establishing national feelings through the friendships that are sure to flow from a scholastic fellowship under military training for years. These guns should be preserved only as historical of the artillery arm of the service, indicating the period and place of manufacture of each, calibre and description of gun, omitting everything connected with their capture or use."

No one can deny that this is thoughtful and amiable in General Delafield. To be sure, the gentle purpose might be more perfectly accomplished by melting down these unhappy guns and substituting others just like them for use in the study of historical gunnery; but still it is to be hoped that the young gentlemen of the North and West will emulate General Delafield's generosity, and never allude to the capture of the cannon in the presence of their Southern fellow-students. Too many of those who remained true to the Government in the hour of its calamity, and helped beat down armed treason in the bloody field, cherish an indecent pride in the recollection of their deeds, which cannot be rebuked with sufficient severity; and the sooner their sons can be taught to forget the whole affair the better. There is a peculiar propriety, moreover, in hushing up the secret of the insurrection at West Point; for it is well known that some of the most distinguished chiefs of the treason were educated at that Academy; and if there were anything there to remind the Southern students that the treason had suffered an utter and inglorious defeat, it might not only wound their high-toned sensibilities, but would, perhaps, warn them that rebellion is disaster.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE CONSTITUTIONAL AMENDMENT.

THE amendment to the Constitution reported by the Joint Committee—excluding from the basis of representation all that portion of the population of any State which may be disfranchised by the State laws on account of race or color—has some manifest advantages over the proposition to make legal voters the basis of representation. In the first place it does not, as the latter would have done, punish the older States for sending large drafts of their young men to the West, by depriving them of a large proportion of their federal weight. In the next place, it does not tempt the States into competing for voters, and getting them of whatever quality, where and how they can, and at whatever cost. It would leave the public judgment free to decide whether any qualifications are necessary for the exercise of the franchise, and, if any, what they ought to be.

But, then, it would not settle the Southern difficulty. It does not restore or secure any human being in any of the revolted States in the possession of his rights. It does not provide for freedom of speech or freedom of the person or freedom of instruction. It does nothing for the restoration of industry. It does not furnish any Southerner with a single reason for laying aside his old fear or hatred for the Union, or for desiring to be in feeling, as well as in fact and in law, one of its citizens. It does not remove any of the causes, whatever they may be, which now either hinder or retard the assimilation of society in both sections into one homogeneous whole. We do not say that its failure to do any of these things is a good reason for opposing it. It may have uses, and great and grave uses, without accomplishing one of these results. But then these are after all the great ends of any process of reconstruction. Any amendment of the seventy now before the public that does not help us, and materially help us, to obtain these results, ought to have very striking merits of some kind to entitle it to weeks of debate, and the solemn confirmation of a national vote.

What will this amendment accomplish? It will certainly, as long as the Southern States do not choose to admit the colored population to political equality, diminish the representation of those States in Congress. This may be a gain; for the present, and as long as they exhibit the least restlessness under the public debt, or the least disposition to make us pay for the damage done to their property in following their armies over their territory, it certainly will be a gain. If they do admit the negroes to political rights, there is, of course, every probability that the vote of the latter will be cast on our side, and that the addition they would make to the Southern delegation would weigh in our favor. But, then, suppose the South should give up all hope of damaging the public credit—suppose they should consider any such scheme Quixotic; should perceive that, owing to the mode in which the public debt was contracted; owing to the character and influence and wide diffusion through the land of those who hold it; owing, too, to the sacredness of the associations which surround it, to the strong hold it has on the heart of the North, as the very price of national existence, they should abandon definitively all hope of either impairing its value or swelling its volume by adding to it any portion of their own burdens—suppose they should be satisfied, after a little better acquaintance with Northern feeling, that the least attempt to lay a finger on it would cause the very stones of the free States to rise and mutiny, and should make up their minds to sit down quietly and pay the taxes necessary for its redemption—what then?

We should undoubtedly have escaped a great danger. But where should we stand? The South would have a few delegates less in Congress than it would like to have, and one great cause of Northern uneasiness would have been removed. But then the problem of all others which puzzles us most just now—the problem of social and political inequality at the South, would remain as far from solution as ever. A large portion of the Southern population might still, probably would still, be permanently excluded from the citizenship on grounds which we all hold to be absurd and unchristian, if not utterly repugnant to the spirit of our institutions. Caste at the South might still be created and perpetuated. A feudal system, based on serfdom, would still be possible under the Constitution. But this is not the worst of it. All this we have had in times past without considering ourselves morally responsible for it. The trouble is that, the present amendment once passed, we *should* be morally responsible for it. The question would have been solemnly submitted to the Congress and people of the United States, whether a State with a "republican form of government" should have a right to disfranchise a portion of its population for being of a particular color or belonging to a particular race, if it chose to cut down proportionally its representation in Congress; and would have been solemnly answered in the affirmative.

The choice in this case does not lie between an exercise of the "war power" and a constitutional amendment, as it did when negro suffrage began to be first debated, but between two constitutional amendments. An amendment forbidding any man's exclusion from political rights on the ground of race or color is still possible. It would, perhaps, hang fire for the present in some of the Northern States, but it would certainly be carried before very long. In days when New Jersey votes for the abolition of slavery, nothing is impossible. And we confess we believe that the submission to the country, by the national legislature, of a proposition to strike out at once and for ever from every statute-book the last traces of the great stain of our history, might bring the matter home to the national conscience with a force which would soon show that the votes in some States, such as Connecticut or Wisconsin, did not, after all, express the feeling of the people in its highest and noblest moods. At all events, we should be saved from the danger which now threatens us of establishing a bad precedent for the sake of avoiding a temporary inconvenience.

OUR INDIAN POLICY.

THE Government, in attempting to solve anew, in a statesmanlike manner, and once for all, the question, What shall be done with the Indian? is not left wholly in doubt what course to pursue. The faith of the nation has been pledged to the treaty Indians, and it must be sacredly kept with them. It is clear, also, that the discharge of this duty falls properly upon the civil Department of the Interior, acting through the Indian Bureau, as at present. Important measures, in fact, were inaugurated last summer in this direction, and gave promise of good results. They began in the councils at Fort Smith, Arkansas, with the Indians of the Southern Territory, who had, by participating as nations in the late rebellion, violated treaty stipulations. These, accordingly, had to be made anew. The other councils were those held by General Sanborn, and agents of the Indian Bureau, on the Little Arkansas, and the council presided over by General Curtis at Fort Rice on the Upper Missouri. The result of the Sanborn council is to remove into the western part of the Indian Territory the tribes which have been engaged in hostile operations along the Kansas and Colorado frontiers, and upon the overland and Santa Fé roads. General Curtis's council projected treaties with nine different bands of Sioux, and opened negotiations which will be continued favorably in the spring. The stipulations will mainly confine the North-west Indians to the region lying between the North Platte and the Upper Missouri. A number of contiguous reservations are to be located on or near the river. The chiefs begin to realize that they must become cultivators of the soil, or in a few years perish from the land. The Sioux are a fierce, warlike, and powerful people, occupying nearly the whole of Dakota. Several of their largest bands have increased in numbers during a few years past—a significant fact when contrasted with the general result.

Among the propositions which for some years past have been growing upon the attention of public men is one providing for the organization of the country south of Kansas into a Territory, with a

proper form of civil government. In this it is proposed to settle all of the reservation Indians who are willing to remove, and do not desire to take their present lands in severalty and assume citizenship, thus losing their race identity to become one with us. Within its boundaries there are already living about forty-five thousand Indians, a majority of whom are quite well educated and count many able and intelligent men. They have written constitutions and forms of government, and are, consequently, qualified for ultimate relations with the people at large. Before the rebellion they were among the most prosperous communities on the continent. It will take but a short period for them to recover somewhat of their old position.

In the provisional treaties made at the Fort Smith council the idea of an original Indian territory was kept in view. Conditions were made for the purchase of land for the settlement of civilized tribes from Kansas and elsewhere, as fast as arrangements could be made. The western portion of the territory can and will be used for the hunter tribes. The Little Arkansas council had this in view when locating the Arapahoes, Cheyennes, Kiowas, and Comanches in the region lying between the Arkansas and the Canadian Rivers. The Osages, a tribe living in Southern Kansas, have agreed to a treaty by which they move to the south-west of the proposed territory. All of the hunter Indians south of the North Platte and east of the mountains could be readily concentrated into the western half of the territory, especially if the parallelogram of Texas known as "Young's Territory," running between that State and New Mexico to within half a degree of the Kansas line, could be added thereto. It is an excellent hunting and grazing region, and, with proper direction, the nomads could be transformed into shepherds and herdsmen. The civilized tribes will inhabit the largest half to the east. They are farmers now. As before stated, they are partially educated, and the Southern tribes have been trained to participation in government. They could become a capital police force to keep the peace with the more unruly tribes of the west. Their intelligent men ought to have due influence in determining policies designed for their race.

Commissioner Cooley's treaties wisely embrace propositions for the organization of a territorial government, for the settlement of other tribes in its borders, for the aid of these tribes in suppressing disorders among the marauders of the plains, and for the development of the country by the encouragement of railroads. Two very important routes are projected: one towards the Gulf, from Kansas to Galveston; the other towards the Pacific, from Missouri to San Diego, California. Another provision is the recognition of the freedmen's citizenship among them, and providing for their proportionate possession of land. General Sanborn, as acting commissioner of freedmen, is engaged in carrying out these requirements.

A bill has been introduced into Congress providing for the organization of a territorial government. Should it become law, as is likely, we shall see a worthy attempt made to enable the Indian to perpetuate his existence, not as a wandering, begging, marauding savage, or a pauper on the bounty of the Government, but as a part of our common country, and entering at the proper time the family of States. In connection with it provision should be made for as early an abolition of tribal distinctions as can be brought into practical effect. Further, while indiscriminate trading should not be allowed, measures ought to be adopted looking to the abandonment of the present system of licenses. In fine, just as fast as is compatible with the Indian's ability to take care of himself, it should be the aim of Government to withdraw its guardianship.

The proposed territory lies between the 34th and 37th parallels of latitude and the 93d and 100th of longitude. It contains an area of 74,127 square miles, 47,441,480 acres. It is 320 miles from east to west, and 220 north and south. On the same range as Arkansas, Tennessee, Virginia, it possesses a delightful climate. Its agricultural advantages are unsurpassed, the soil being fertile and capable of raising abundantly all the cereals of the temperate zones and the staples of the South. The scenery is lovely and inviting, especially in the eastern part. The finest mill privileges are found on the streams flowing into the Arkansas, on the Canadian, and the tributaries of the Red River of Texas. W. T. Powell, civil engineer, who was chief rebel engineer in this region, says that coal of a superior quality is found over the entire country from Fort Smith, Arkansas, to Boggy Dépôt, a distance of one hundred and forty-five miles. From this stratum the rebel government obtained its trans-Mississippi supplies. Mines were worked at Boggy Dépôt and at other points east to Jenny Lind, Sebastian County, Arkansas. Lead, gypsum, copper, and the ores of iron are also found in various quantities. No portion of the continent is better adapted for grazing and cattle-raising. Immense herds of cattle still exist, while for four years two large armies have been fed therefrom and millions of dollars' worth stolen and driven out of the territory.

The projected Indian territory is worth duplicating. The region itself is ample enough for all the Indian race. But the removal thither of all is simply impracticable. The mountain Indians cannot be transplanted, nor can those from the Pacific or North-west. For the last-named, the region indicated by the treaties projected at the Fort Rice council, or the section lying between the James River, the Upper Missouri, the mountain base, and the British line, affords ample room. It is a good grazing region, frequented by the buffalo, has abundant timber, and, being fertile, the short summers would afford sufficient return to industry. It was in this region that Gen. Pope proposed to carry out the plans he submitted to the War Department. Within our vast mountain territory we certainly can find a spacious and suitable section into which might gradually be brought the eighty or ninety thousand Indians who are likely to be in our and their own way. If the practicability of this be doubted, an examination of the Navajo settlement at the Bosque Redondo, or of the methods pursued towards the Puebla and Mission Indians in New Mexico and California will, it is believed, satisfy any doubt. Nor should there be found much difficulty in concentrating on the Pacific coast. This policy is now framing in California.

It may be urged that such plans would be attended with too great expense. Not so much certainly, in the long run, as attends the present system of scattered reservations, multitudes of agents and traders, and annuities. A fit and accessible place once obtained, the next step will be to insure the Indians protection in it, and speedy punishment of the wrongdoer, whoever he may be. Then to provide them with suitable teachers—persons who can teach them to farm as well as to read, their women to cook as well as dress decently. Industrial civilization will pave the way for religion, and the missionary should be last though not least. The money paid them for lands should be laid out directly in improvements, clothing, and food. So much for a permanent policy, looking alike to our security and their preservation and welfare.

The present disturbed condition of such large bodies of Indians affords an opportunity of adopting a beneficent and sagacious policy. One thing should *not* be done. No peace ought to be made which has not been preceded by a warfare so vigorous as to impress upon the Indians the futility of further resistance. We like the ideas advanced by General Pope on this point. As proposed by him, the control of Indians at war should be placed entirely under the military authorities, and a line of posts be extended around the section already indicated in Dakota, hemming in all the North-western hostile Indians. They should be required to remain there as prisoners of war, having the limits of that region and no more. No traders should be allowed to go among them. All treaty stipulations, having been violated, should be considered annulled. Such payments as would have been made to the tribes in peace should be administered directly in their behalf. They should be kept from starvation and encouraged to hunt and farm. At certain designated stations, and no others, trade should be allowed. Here, also, schools and farms might be established where the Indians, persuaded to settle, could receive direction and support. On no account should they be allowed to pass the boundaries; any outrage or violation by individuals being considered a declaration of war, to be followed by suspension of trade, supplies, and more or less active hostilities until the transgressors were given up. Being under martial law, any trespassing or marauding whites could be readily punished. This rule should be maintained until the necessity had passed.

It is understood that General Grant has determined, first, to afford ample protection to the great lines of travel; second, to put in the field a sufficient force to subdue the Indians; and third, to carry out a plan like this of General Pope's. The result may safely be left to the future.

THE FRENCH STUDENTS.

In this time of congresses, the Belgian students thought they also must have a congress. They invited their friends of the French and German universities. Six French students accepted the invitation and went to Liege, the old episcopal town where the meeting took place. In Belgium—a free country, the freest in Europe—nobody paid much attention to the proceedings of the students. But the French police had followed the six young representatives of the Academy of Paris; their words and their actions were as carefully watched as if they had been great statesmen instead of foolish and enthusiastic young men. If we can believe the police reports, wisdom did not mark their conduct. Elated and intoxicated as it were by the atmosphere of liberty which they breathed, they indulged in every sort of revolutionary nonsense; but their worst crime seems to have been to refuse to figure in a great procession of the students with the tricolor French flag; they carried instead a black flag, and offered themselves to the quiet and bewildered population of Liege as the mourners of French liberty. After this holiday, they quietly returned to France, trusting that they could not be punished in their own country for deeds committed across the frontier.

Not a human being in France had heard of the speeches pronounced by the students at Liege, and their very names were as unknown as if they had never been born. There is no law yet by which a French citizen can be prosecuted before a court of justice for what he has done out of France. But Mother University has her own laws; her authority may be regarded as a sort of paternal authority; so it is at least in England and in Germany. Oxford has its own tribunal, and the Vice-Chancellor acts often as a justice of the peace. In France the jurisdiction of the university is not as extended as in England or in many German towns; the student has no privileges; he is treated by the law like any other citizen. Students are sued for debts like anybody else; there is no university prison or university police. M. Duruy, however, the present Minister of Public Instruction, and head of the university, thought it necessary to punish the students who had gone to Liege. Long after the ill-fated congress had taken place, he convoked the *Conseil Académique*, formed of the deans of the various academies and of some professors, submitted to them the police reports of Liege, and, at his suggestion, the Council pronounced the perpetual exclusion of the six students from the Academy of Paris.

What does this exclusion mean? It means that they will not be allowed to take their degrees, as all of them are medical students; it means that, after several years already spent in the hospitals of Paris, the title of doctor of medicine will never be granted to them by the Academy.

> "Non dignus, non dignus est intrare
> In nostro docto corpore."

As the jurisdiction of the university is considered as a quasi-paternal one, as its authority professes to be simply substituted for the authority of the family (and under no other pretext could the university have extended its disciplinary power over acts committed outside of France), this decision has generally been thought very hard and tyrannical. All the students, who till it was promulgated had taken no interest in the orators of Liege, immediately espoused their cause. Their speeches were not known to the majority of them, and those who had heard of them mostly disapproved of their tone and their tendencies; but the ostracism of the Academical Council raised questions of a higher importance. It was known, besides, that M. Duruy, the minister, had only prosecuted the six students in order to ingratiate himself with the Empress Eugénie, who never liked him and who once turned her back upon him before all the other ministers. The students, therefore, of the Academy of Law as well as of the Academy of Medicine took in hand the cause of their comrades, and resolved that no lectures should take place as long as the decision of the Academical Council was maintained. The spirit of the revolutionary times once more visited the old Quartier Latin, changed as it is by M. Hausmann's streets and boulevards. The old type of the student is no more to be found there than the old houses, where hope and poverty lived gaily together, where the *grisette* (an extinct species also) shared the modest fare of the young *bacheliers* and learned from them the songs of Béranger. Béranger is dead, the grisette *a passé l'eau* (has crossed the Seine) and has become a *lorette*, the student is now a *gandin* and wears the latest fashions. Still, something of the old spirit seems to be preserved in him. One after the other the learned doctors and jurists were obliged to retire before the good-humored but deafening noise of a thousand excited youths. This went on day after day till the Government became uneasy. A regiment of policemen was sent to the colleges, and a note appeared in the *Moniteur* announcing that, as some individuals *not belonging* to the academy had tried to foment trouble, each student must come to the lectures provided with his card. The young men were obliged to go to their lessons between two rows of policemen, one by one, and their card in hand. The noisiest were arrested, put in prison, and their last *inscriptions* were lost. (An *inscription* is the fee paid from time to time to the university; an examination can only take place after a certain number of inscriptions are paid.)

The students were not to be calmed by such proceedings, and became only more excited. An occasion was soon given to them. A new drama was to come out at the Théâtre Français, under the name of "Henriette Maréchal;" the authors are two brothers, MM. de Goncourt. Before the play was given to the public, they had read their drama in the salon of the Princess Mathilde and placed themselves, so to speak, under her patronage. This was quite sufficient for the students. On the morning of the first representation, small placards were fixed on the walls of the Quartier Latin inviting the students to go to the Théâtre Français in the evening. The placards were signed by this odd name: "Pipe en bois" (wooden pipe). "Pipe en bois" was obeyed. When the curtain rose, hissing began at once, and, to the horror of MM. de Goncourt, and of their august protectress, Princess Mathilde, who was seen in the Imperial box, the piece could not be played. The actors screamed in vain as sailors would in a tempest. The drama became a mere pantomime. For eight nights in succession the same demonstration took place, and the authors were finally obliged to with draw their play.

Matters becoming serious, the professors of the two academies held a meeting, under the presidency of M. Tardieu, the dean of the Faculty of Medicine. M. Tardieu had made himself obnoxious to M. Duruy; for, though he could not hinder the policemen from abusing the students on the Place de l'Ecole de Médecine, he would not allow them to enter the lecture rooms. While the meeting of the professors was taking place, a despatch arrived from M. Duruy, "the meeting could not be held without the minister's authorization and must be at once dissolved." Such was the substance of it. M. Tardieu read it to his colleagues, and proposed to continue the proceedings—a miniature of the famous *Serment du Jeu de Paume*. We doubt, however, if M. Tardieu looked as fierce as Mirabeau, when he exclaimed to the king's messenger: "Allez dire à votre Roi que nous sommes ici par la volonté du peuple, et que nous n'en sortirons que par la puissance des baïonnettes!" The other professors, at any rate, did not feel in themselves the spirit of Mirabeau; they quietly went home. M. Duruy, hearing of M. Tardieu's proposition, sent him a most impertinent letter, to which M. Tardieu simply answered by his resignation. Thus matters now stand. Of course a thousand young men cannot long check the most despotic government of Europe; order must be and will be restored by some means; the students cannot for ever do without lectures, without examinations, without degrees. We note these facts as symptoms, as signs of the times; without in the least trying to exaggerate their importance.

THE REIGN OF TERROR IN JAMAICA.

If any proof were wanting that it was time for England, with the new year, to turn over a new leaf with Jamaica, the last West India mail supplied it. Enough facts had already transpired to strip the colonial government of even the poor defence of having acted under a panic. Perhaps one of the most striking indications of their madness was the introduction into the legislature of a bill of pains and penalties directed against all "dissenters," and particularly suppressing all

forms of worship except those of the Anglican, Scotch, or Roman Catholic churches.

It is not surprising that Governor Eyre, in his address to the Assembly, declined to accuse by excusing himself. He found it much easier to congratulate them on the summary suppression of the "rebellion" than to state the extent of the conspiracy, the amount of resistance encountered by the military authorities, or the losses on either side. And when a member made bold to move for official returns of the persons killed by the rebels, the number of rebels tried by court-martial, with the result, and the number of those shot, hanged, flogged, or otherwise punished without trial, the Government party refused to vote the enquiry. It was even a condescension for the Governor to furnish some of his grounds for believing that the disaffection was not over, and that they were still on the eve of a general insurrection. Col. Whitfield—the only, and, it is to be inferred, the strongest authority that could be adduced—had observed and reported "men of sullen and dissatisfied looks riding about the country in all directions," and giving him the impression that they would like nothing better than to cut his throat if they could. It is the old story of the perversity of the negro race. There had been, in the events of the just preceding weeks, such capital incentives to mirth and hilarity, such irresistible provocation to relax every muscle with laughter, such reasons for devout satisfaction with their appointed lot, that a sour-faced black was very naturally regarded, first with positive amazement, and then with commendable suspicion. The pity is that the Governor and his backers were so selfishly disposed to have the fun all to themselves. In the smothered resolution of enquiry, what a chance for a new series of *contes drolatiques!* There was once, you know, a merry massacre in Jamaica—of humble origin, for it began in the stealing of threepence-worth of cocoa-nuts from a deserted plantation. For this the culprit was condemned to pay a fine of four shillings (to help establish the title to the estate), and costs amounting to twelve shillings and sixpence, or suffer thirty days' imprisonment. This judicial severity in a district from which an upright and humane magistrate had been jealously removed, excited a riotous interference on the part of the people of color, in which they lost as many lives as they took, not exceeding a dozen. Thereupon the Governor, declaring the outbreak a rebellion and proclaiming martial law, immediately despatched his forces to the disturbed locality, and did not recall them until three thousand (always retreating) blacks had been shot on the roads and in the woods, or hanged by drum-head court-martials, and an unknown number of both sexes flogged, including those executed, while some three hundred young women and girls were "catted." Of the soldiers and sailors engaged in these drolleries, not one, fortunately, received a scratch; and the Maroons, on their return, were the objects of every demonstration of gratitude and respect.

We can imagine nothing better calculated to breed a general insurrection, not confined to the blacks alone, than the régime of Governor Eyre since the close of "hostilities." There has been a gag on the minority in the Assembly, and a gag on public expression in words or through the press. No man dared speak his mind in opposition to what had happened, for fear of arbitrary arrest or proscription. Only in private letters home could any one venture to narrate the truth. "The publication," says such a correspondent, "of the notes taken at the trial of the late G. W. Gordon, with his defence, was strictly forbidden." But the authorities, not content with this terrorism, attempted, by radical measures, to secure for themselves a virtual monopoly of political power. At the suggestion of the Governor, bills were introduced empowering him to proclaim martial law at any time, by and with the advice of the Privy Council; to abolish the volunteer force and coerce its members into a permanent militia; to prevent rebellious proceedings, among which are reckoned "seditious articles" in the newspapers, for which the penalty, if conviction is had in any court appointed by the Governor, is hard labor for seven years in the penitentiary; and to regulate the places of religious worship, to which we have referred above. On the 7th of December Governor Eyre approved a bill to try by military tribunals certain offences committed under military law, and another amending the constitution in the interest of despotism, provided, however, in each case, that the Queen should add her consent. The latter bill, as first drafted, abolished the franchise for ever, and substituted for the Legislative Council and House of Assembly a single Chamber, to consist of twenty-one members nominated by the Governor. Afterwards it was so modified as to allow one-half the representatives to be elected, with such qualifications of membership and suffrage as to disfranchise nineteen-twentieths of the population.

Sir Henry Stork now temporarily displaces Governor Eyre while instituting an enquiry into his conduct. He is to have as his assessors two London lawyers of character and distinction, and unless Governor Eyre has in reserve a large stock of justificatory evidence, which he has so far declined to produce, it is hard to see how the investigation can avoid ending in his removal. Whether anything more serious than removal will befal him will depend very much upon the relative strength of rival parties at the opening of Parliament. For the Jamaica affair, atrocious as it is, will doubtless, like the American war, be made a strictly party question, on the one side the Radicals and Dissenters, and on the other the Tories, High Church, and pro-slavery men. A vigorous effort will probably be made by Mr. Gordon's friends to have Governor Eyre, or at least the members of the court-martial, tried for murder. The trial was absolutely illegal upon every possible theory of gubernatorial power.

THE LATE AFFAIR AT SERINGAPATAM.

Speculation had long been rampant at Seringapatam. One class of wise men—Parsees—had predicted that business would decline and that prices would fall; but another class of wise men—Banians—had stuck to it that business would increase, the value of the currency decline, and prices advance. In no security had the contest between Parsee and Banian been so hotly waged as in the stock of the Bangalore and Bednore Railway—which, as everybody knows, is the leading speculative security of the Stock Exchange of Seringapatam.

The leading director of the Bangalore and Bednore Railway was Dhan Dhrahu, a Banian of vast wealth, strict probity, and so high religious repute that he might almost have become a Brahmin any day he chose, and many wondered why he adhered to the lower caste. Like Warwick, he preferred to be king-maker rather than king. He created and paid the chief Brahmins, but himself remained in the humble caste of Banians.

Now Dhan Dhrahu was a believer in an advance in prices—what we in New York should call a bull. He was especially a believer in an advance in the stock of the Bangalore and Bednore. So believing, he had been a large buyer of the stock; and finding that, notwithstanding all his purchases and all his vaticinations, it did not advance, but, on the contrary, when he stopped buying, tended downward, he resorted to various devices to make it do that which, according to the best of his judgment and belief, it ought, as a well-mannered stock, to have done of its own accord.

It seems that, on the Stock Exchange of Seringapatam, brokers are in the habit of borrowing stocks of each other, to be returned on demand. The venerable Dhan Dhrahu, as a large holder of Bangalore and Bednore, had lent stock in considerable quantities to the pestilent Parsees, who persisted in selling it short. Once, twice, thrice, he required sharply that this stock should be returned to him, and refused to re-lend it; so creating an unexpected demand for cash stock, and forcing up the price for the moment. But the effect was short-lived. As soon as the immediate demand was supplied, down fell the price. To realize his object new methods were necessary.

There happened to be in Seringapatam a firm of brokers who did business under the name of Banbox & Barriman—young and enterprising people, who had a fair credit and commanded a good capital. To these—who were Banians of his own caste, though by no means of as high standing as he in the Hindoo Church—went Dhan Dhrahu, and told them that the stock of the Bangalore and Bednore Railway was going up so fast that incalculable fortunes were to be made by buying it, and that the man who neglected to secure a quantity of it that day was a traitor to his family. To do them justice, Banbox & Barriman were disposed to take the same view of the matter, and were easy converts. Seeing them well-disposed, the veteran proposed to them to buy 6,000 shares of B. and B.; agreed to take one-fourth of the pur-

chase; and, almost in so many words, guarantied a profit on the whole. Banbox & Barriman at once swallowed the bait.

They bought the 6,000 shares at pretty high prices. But they were not satisfied. Being enterprising men, and having a robust faith in the judgment of the veteran Dhan Dhrahu, they bought 5,000 more for their private pocket.

The veteran had told them that the stock was so scarce—having been bought up by shrewd capitalists at Seringapatam as an investment for their families—that they would find it very difficult indeed, and a matter of many days' work, to obtain so much as 6,000 shares.

Banbox & Barriman were agreeably disappointed in this particular. They not only got the 6,000 shares in a few minutes, but they likewise secured the 5,000 extra shares without the least difficulty.

When their brokers reported the purchase of 11,000 shares in an hour or two, and the price still remained steady, mild misgivings began to creep over the soul of Banbox.

He instituted on the following day a system of espionage, with a view to ascertain whence so much stock had come.

The veteran, according to his own statements, was a large buyer, not a seller. The Seringapatam capitalists, on the same authority, were investing their savings in the property. Who, then, in view of the advance which Dhan Dhrahu pronounced inevitable, had sold the 11,000 shares which Banbox & Barriman had bought?

In the Presidency of Madras, as every traveller in India is aware, a judicious person can obtain much valuable information by cultivating pleasant relations with the bank officers of the country. Our friend Banbox had established such relations, and now began to use them.

They soon informed him that the stock which he had bought was coming through various devious channels from his ally and adviser, Dhan Dhrahu, and that the money he was paying for said stock was going through the same crooked ways to the same Dhan Dhrahu. With this light it took but a few minutes to enable Banbox to realize the state of the case.

He grasped the situation. In ten minutes he had discovered his remedy. Of the 11,000 shares he had bought, 1,700 were yet to be delivered by one house and paid for by him, Banbox. Instantly ascertaining from his cashier his balance in bank, he drew it out in money. When the 1,700 shares came in he paid for them in a beautiful check, with the name of the firm chastely engraved thereon, and a signature affixed which was a marvel of caligraphy. Pocketing the 1,700 shares, he purchased a tooth-brush and a shirt-collar and took the boat for Pondicherry.

About the time he was departing, the venerable Dhan Dhrahu was informed by his brokers that a check for 162,500 rupees, drawn by Banbox & Barriman in payment for 1,700 Bangalore and Bednore, was so much waste paper. A messenger, despatched in haste to the office of Banbox & Barriman, brought back word that these gentlemen had gone to Pondicherry—possibly for some time.

In a fury the veteran appealed to the police, and his agent, a polished diplomatist, took command of the chase. He was not successful in discovering the signers of the check. But he soon met a man who was empowered to represent them.

"What is your pleasure, gentlemen?" said the man.

"We desire to arrest Messrs. B. & B. on a charge of swindling, obtaining stock on false pretenses."

"Gently, gentlemen, gently!" said the man. "Let us quite understand each other. You desire to arrest my principals. Very good. They will offer every facility. And I have no doubt these same efficient policemen will execute a warrant I hold in my hand for the arrest of your principal on a charge—let me see—yes—a charge of swindling—obtaining money on false pretences."

The practised diplomatist who represented the veteran Dhan Dhrahu was staggered.

"What do you mean, sir?" said he.

"Simply this, my dear sir. Our principals have both been victims of a sad mistake. You told us that Bangalore and Bednore was going up, and that if we bought we should make money. We bought; it did n't go up; you prevented it going up, in fact; and so we did n't realize our hopes. It was a mistake of yours. On the other hand, you delivered us 1,700 shares of stock, and we gave you in payment a check which we said was good. You took it; the check was not good; we prevented it being good, in fact; and so you did not realize your hopes. It was a mistake of ours. The circumstances strike me as precisely parallel."

A moment's reflection satisfied the diplomatist that whatever the issue of a lawsuit might be, sound policy dictated a compromise. He asked what the enemy wanted.

"Oh! very little. We bought 11,000 shares, on your advice, at say 96¾ per cent. The present price is 89. We are not covetous. Take our stock off our hands at 96¾, and the check for 162,500 rupees will be paid."

It was simply a question whether it was better to lose 85,000 or 162,500 rupees, and the judicious diplomatist did not hesitate an instant. The bargain was closed on the terms offered.

Private letters from Seringapatam say that this is the first occasion on which the veteran Dhan Dhrahu has ever been fairly outwitted.

FREE FICTION.

We lately took occasion to speak of the Boston Public Library in a manner which showed our high appreciation of its value. No more liberal or sagacious educational foundation exists, to our knowledge, in any other city in the United States, nor any, perhaps, of similar character, which does not equally share the defect we purpose now to remark upon. Borrowing recently a catalogue of the popular department of this library from a young woman to whom it belonged, we found that she had noted for her own reading every book of prose fiction contained in the collection. She had not been at all squeamish, for her signature ranged from "Tristram Shandy" to "Cœlebs in Search of a Wife;" from "The Decamëron" to "Mrs. Opie's Illustrations of Lying." She had marked, even, "The Manikins" of Mr. Cooper, although, being human, it is safe to affirm that she never has read it, and that she never will read it, except under press of a famine of fiction which the liberality of the trustees of the Boston Public Library will not allow us to anticipate. We thought, as our eyes ran down the attractive columns, in which the story-tellers dominated over the sages, of the distresses of our grandmother, trembling at midnight at "The Horrors of Oakendale Abbey," or furtively devouring "Clarissa Harlowe" in a corner. What would she have said if statutes had been enacted, if stately buildings had been erected, if dying men had made testamentary provision, if librarians had been appointed, that she might have more novels than she could read, with the privilege of reading as many as possible, under sanction of the municipal authorities? Such a license, if it had not at once destroyed, would certainly have moderated, her appetite; and it is really a matter of congratulation that in Puritan Boston novels are no longer in the category of prohibited enjoyments. For the most rigid supervision never was effective, and girls were no more to be kept from romance reading than from chalk and charcoal. The supply of trash was endless, and the appetite of Angelina unfailing. The staples of the Minerva Press were monotonously alike, but they never wearied; the loves, the murders, and the apparitions were always relishing. Those who would appreciate the utter worthlessness of this class of books must study the catalogues of the circulating libraries sixty or seventy years ago. It is hard to believe that these forlorn and forgotten volumes, constructed upon one bad pattern, and each the sighing echo of the other, stuffed full of maudlin sentiment and all the frivolities of artificial coquetry, were once in as high fashion as "The Newcomes" are now, were welcomed with a like trembling eagerness, and read with a similar avidity. But how should they escape oblivion when it is sure to overtake and cover up works of genuine merit? Who reads "Zeluco" or "The Man of Feeling" now? or the novels of Robert Bage? of Sophia and Harriet Lee? of William Godwin? of Thomas Holcroft? of Mrs. Brunton? of Lady Morgan? of Lady Blessington? What a noise Maturin made fifty years ago, and where is Maturin now? or Monk Lewis? or Beckford? or Miss Ferriar? There are old-fashioned people who still swear by Sir Walter Scott; but ten readers seek "The Caxtons" for one who calls ever for "The Antiquary;" and "Jane Eyre," a very clever but a very crude book, is exalted above the admirable stories of Maria Edgeworth. We sneer at the romantic nonsense of the last age, but will our children hold us in any higher esteem when they learn that we bought and read twenty editions of Miss Braddon's novels? that Ainsworth and Bulwer and James were eminently popular? that Dickens was esteemed (especially by the ladies) above Thackeray?

The value of lending-libraries, if we may indulge in a truism, depends very much upon the quality of the books which are lent. Reading is unquestionably a refined amusement, but it seems to us that the object of a great free library is not to furnish gratuitous amusement merely. It is hardly worth while, however innocent novel-reading may be, to take it under public patronage, and to furnish it to eager school-girls as bread is furnished by charitable associations to the poor. We have no other statistics to guide us except those which this catalogue affords, but it is a little discouraging to examine its pages and to find upon the very first leaf twenty volumes of history by Rev. Jacob Abbott and eight volumes of history by Rev. J. S. C. Abbott, since these are fictions concerning the immoral influence of which there can be no dispute. We take it for granted, when those who are charged with the purchase of books for this and similar institutions think it necessary to furnish so much of what is absurdly called light literature, that there must be a demand for it; and the librarian's records would show, we suspect, if they were examined, that this demand is as constant as, it appears to us, it must be unhealthy. The leading idea of those who manage these institutions seems to be that any reading is better than no reading at all—an axiom at once false and full of mischief. A knowledge of the alphabet is desirable, but there are books so utterly abominable that it would be better for a young person to remain incapable of distinguishing one letter from another if, through his ignorance alone, he might escape their perusal. Those who affirm that nobody is made the worse by reading must be prepared to maintain the converse, and to show that nobody is made better—a proposition which, if it were once established, would be fatal to all libraries whatsoever. The Boston Public Library has a complete set of the works of Sir Bulwer Lytton. It lends to school-boys and to school-girls such books as "Pelham," "Alice," "Eugene Aram," and "Lucretia." Of the first named it has four different editions to supply the demand; of the second, three; of the third, five; and of the fourth, three. Because these books do not damage those of adult age who can make a shift to read them, it does not follow that they are precisely the pabulum for young and growing natures. The false taste which they must engender is bad enough, but what is it to the bad morality which they inculcate? Compared with Fielding and Smollett they are as absinthe compared with some natural and generous wine. Read at an age when the taste is unformed, when the passions are just developing, when the will is feeble, principles are unfixed, and resistance to temptation is difficult, if they do not utterly spoil the inquisitive minds which are attracted by their glittering mediocrity, it will be because nature is stronger than education, and original vigor more than a match for enfeebling moral influences. Yet these books are furnished at the public expense by the city of Boston to its youth! The library has one edition of the works of Dr. Channing, and three or four different editions of the works of Bulwer. Are we to take it for granted that this provision is made according to the laws of supply and demand?

It will not do to undervalue works of fiction. Perhaps the poorest of them, if they are not absolutely vicious, have their uses; an extremely bad novel may be as entertaining as a good one. The author of the "Elegy in a Country Churchyard" thought nothing would be finer than to be stretched all day upon a sofa reading eternal romances by Crebillon. Charles James Fox was an inveterate novel-reader, and so was Dr. Parr. Chief-Justice Marshall was wont to read such books upon the bench while the young lawyers were making their arguments. "I like Mr. James's stories," we once heard Mr. Thackeray say at a dinner-table, "especially when I am getting up from an illness." But while we can well enough understand the weariness which seeks in such perusal a pastime, a relaxation, or an anodyne, we confess that there is to us something wonderful in the appetite which, leechlike, still cries Give, and in the gluttonous passion for new stories which all Mr. Mudie's library fails to satiate. Granted an intellect only tolerably robust, we do not understand why routine should not weary it; why the ceaseless narrative of one single human passion, not subordinated as in Shakespeare to the facts of life, but dominant and out of all proportion to reality, should not tire; why a succession of almost identical tales, making the name of novel a misnomer, should not drive the consumer to the mathematics of Newton or the philosophy of Kant, to books which charm by their incomprehensibility or, at least, pique the mind to something like muscular exertion. Gin-drinking is a ruinous custom, but gin stimulates; opium-eating is very wrong, but opium gilds the dreams of its votaries and dulls the tooth of pain; there are fifty bad habits which provoke pleasure, mental or physical, but the hunger which nothing but novel-reading will satisfy, which is not palled by gratification, which feeds as keenly upon the thousandth romance as upon the first, can hardly be called a taste, is scarcely respectable enough to be termed an intellectual pleasure, and may be fairly set down as one of those minor manifestations of the second nature which sometimes exhibits itself in taking snuff, sometimes in the retailing of gossip, and sometimes in a morbid affection for cats and canaries.

The acquisition of a private collection of books, however small, is usually creditable to the collector, for it rarely happens, even when his resources are unlimited, that anybody makes a large private collection of novels. The circulating or public library is often, though not always, the resource of those who care to spend little or no money upon these mental pleasures. A young man who is willing to pinch in other expenditures for the sake of being the owner of a few books, generally selects good ones. There are certain standard volumes which he is ashamed to be without, and he buys these not to be once carelessly run through, but that he may again and again read and refer to them. He becomes a master of their contents, familiar with their pages, and attached to their physiognomy; he makes them perhaps more valuable by annotation; and as one cherished book makes necessary another, he indulges in small but well-considered additions to his stock. Such a collector knows better the worth of books than any biblomaniac who ever screamed at a sale or bent over a Nassau Street stall. His little treasury of knowledge represents his self-denial, his disregard of coarser pleasures, his cultivation of purer tastes, and his mental prudence and provision. His shelves, few and narrow, are dearer to him than the widest public alcoves. His books were not brought to his door, they were not thrust upon him by municipal authority, they were not borrowed to be speedily returned, they are his beloved companions, in sickness his consolers, in doubt his assurers, and, as his mentors and helpers, they will be vigilantly cherished until he shall read no more. It was thus that Franklin bought books and kept them. The mention of that venerable name reminds us that he too was the founder of a public library. Whether he would have thought money for supplying the rising generation with unlimited romances a judicious device, we leave those acquainted with his solid character to decide.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXVII.

MACON, Ga., January 12, 1866.

WHILE staying in Atlanta I heard a strange story, which, perhaps, should not be related in a correspondence professing to give only undoubted facts, for in repeating it I give currency to a report which, indeed, seemed to me probable, but which I am not in a position to prove. If, however, the business to which the report refers is not actually in existence, it would be so easy to establish it, and at the same time secrecy would be so necessary for its establishment, that I may be excused if I give publicity to what I heard.

Since August last, my informant stated, a traffic in negroes has been carried on between several points on the Southern coast and the island of Cuba. The negroes are hired as if to work at lumbering in Florida and Georgia, or, in fact, for work of any kind in any place so distant as to furnish a pretext for taking them on board a vessel, and then they are at once run over to Cuba, where purchasers are readily found. The negroes cost little or nothing, and the business is exceedingly remunerative.

A steamer is spoken of which was partly freighted in Augusta, and made the trip only three weeks ago, and it is said that more than one party in Charleston have made very profitable ventures. Their secret having become known, certain other persons were desirous of embarking in the same enterprise, and it was from some of the efforts of these latter to obtain the requisite capital for their purpose that the facts which I give transpired and became known to me.

In my last letter I spoke of the charge which is brought against the Southern people of being hostile to the settlement of Northern business men among them, and gave it as my own conclusion, from what I had seen and heard, that this hostility did exist to such a degree as that the immigrant, unless he was willing to be cut off from all agreeable intercourse with the people among whom he lived, would be compelled to restrict his accustomed freedom of speech and action and defer to the social and political theories and opinions of his neighbors. Since arriving at Macon, I have heard the particulars of two or three cases which appear to show that in some communities even the acceptance of such conditions as these is not enough to disarm the ill-will of the native population.

Major R., of the 187th Ohio Volunteers, and Captain C., of the same regiment, not along ago secured a three years' lease of two plantations situated in Stewart County, and owned by a Mr. W. They intended to cultivate cotton, and, having purchased all the requisite implements and a sufficient number of mules to stock both places, they sent down forty negroes to live

on one of them, while they themselves remained in Macon and awaited the mustering out of their regiment. This event, however, not taking place so soon as was expected, Captain C. went down into the country to perfect his arrangements for planting, and, very much to his surprise, was met by his landlord with a proposal that he and his partner should withdraw from the further prosecution of their enterprise, inasmuch as persisting would bring trouble upon all concerned in it. The neighbors, he was told, had given Mr. W. to understand that no Yankee should be suffered to live in that country; that if he rented land to those two Yankees his tenants should n't live to harvest their crops, and his own house should be burned over his head. Out of consideration, therefore, for him and his property, if not for their own safety, he begged them not to disregard these threats, which were made by men who would carry them out, but to abandon their project. If they came down he would be exposed to constant losses and danger, and if they did not lose their lives, their operations would be interfered with in every conceivable way. He would take all the tools and animals off their hands and buy back the lease, or, at any rate, one year of it. Perhaps at the end of a year the feeling against Northern men would not be so strong. These proposals were agreed to, and the captain and his friend have given up all intention of planting in Georgia, and propose to invest their money in some Northern State. Another gentleman who, during the past summer, administered a military office which brought him into contact with very many people and gave him opportunities for conferring obligations upon all of them, said that when a few months since he left the service and went North, he flattered himself with the idea that he had a great many warm friends in Georgia, and was exceedingly popular throughout the district in which he had been on duty. He decided to return, therefore, and establish himself in business in one of the most flourishing towns in the State. He had an intelligent partner, and both members of the new firm worked hard and paid close attention to business, without, however, reaping any adequate reward for their exertions. By-and-bye he learned, through the detectives employed by the district commander, that there were several persons who entertained the intention of killing him as soon as an opportunity presented itself. He became aware, also, that it was commonly said in the town that he should not sell goods there or grow rich on Southern money. He could see nothing better to do than to sell out his share in the business to his partner, who was a Southerner, and the store is now, he tells me, quite liberally patronized. To the recital of these facts he adds the remark: "This country won't be any place for Yankees or niggers when the troops are mustered out. When the military goes, I 'm going too."

The knowledge that such a state of feeling exists, coupled with the belief that there is no good reason for its existence, gives rise to a corresponding hostility on the part of those who are its objects. The other day I heard several officers talking upon this subject, and one who spoke as follows was applauded by the company: "My heart never was in this war all the time that I was fighting. I never hated a Johnny, you know, and I guess all our fellows felt the same way. But, by Jupiter, I wish now that they 'd leave off singing the 'Bonnie Blue Flag' and damning us poor devils that have to stay down here in their God-forsaken country, and try pitching in again. I want 'em to get up another war, you know, and then I want a cavalry command. Won't I raid through Georgia! There sha' n't be anything left behind me. I 'll destroy every house and barn and plantation. The voice of song shall cease; there won't be anything left to feed the little birds, you know, and they 'll all die, except the buzzards. Every buzzard shall be filled. No; but, confound 'em, I mean if they have another war I 'm going to go for 'em with a will."

The condition of the freedmen in the country around Macon, so far as I could learn from the Sub-Asst. Commissioner of the Bureau, is exceedingly satisfactory. This officer has his headquarters in Macon, and the district over which he presides embraces thirty-four counties. In each county he has three subordinates, who were appointed from among the citizens on the recommendation of the delegates to the Constitutional Convention, and many of the delegates having been willing themselves to accept the government of the freedmen in their own neighborhood, the office was, in many instances, conferred upon them. They receive no salary, but in all cases which are tried before them they are allowed to retain such fees as are customary in justices' courts. The Bureau, I was informed, contrary to the character which it generally bears, is quite a popular institution in the Military District of Columbus.

The negroes are quiet and well-behaved, and conducted themselves admirably during the holidays, not a single complaint having been made against them. The white people were very apprehensive of a rising of the freedmen, and in some places the militia picketed the roads and patrolled the country in all directions. During the last week of 1865 three negroes were killed, and, of course, a great many outrages of less consequence were committed. The murderers of one negro had not been arrested, but those of the other two were caught, and were now awaiting trial before a military commission. The power of the Sub-Asst. Commissioner extends no further than to impose a fine of $150 or a term of three months' imprisonment.

From General Dawson, who is in command of the sub-district, I learned further particulars of the picketing above mentioned. The United States officers in Georgia refuse, I believe, to supply the State militia with arms, call on them for no assistance, and hardly recognize that they exist. In Monroe County, contrary to the proclamation of the provisional governor, the citizens formed not one but two or three companies of volunteers. Then they requested the withdrawal of the federal troops, and the request was complied with, the garrison being withdrawn a fortnight before Christmas. During Christmas week the difficulties between the militiamen and the freedmen began. Negroes were stopped on the roads, which were all patrolled or picketed; some of them were beaten, all were searched and compelled to give an account of themselves, and one was killed. The general has seven men who are charged with the murder under bonds of two thousand dollars each, and the evidence against two of them is so strong that he expects to secure their conviction before the civil court of the county, and, at any rate, intends that they shall be tried there rather than before a military commission. He wishes to establish a precedent for the conviction of a white man for murder by the testimony of negro witnesses. The battalion of militia in Monroe County has been disbanded, and the citizens have been threatened with the establishment among them of a garrison of colored troops.

General Dawson, as well as some of the gentlemen mentioned above as having suffered from the hatred of the Southern men toward their Northern countrymen, unite in saying that the persons who disgrace themselves and the community to which they belong by outrageous acts and words are but a minority of the Southern people, and that the men of wealth and social standing, and, in general, the elderly men, as distinguished from the young men and the women, are well disposed towards the United States Government. He deprecated the complete removal of the United States troops from the country, and thought the process of mustering out had already gone too far.

The negroes, I was told, are very generally entering into contracts with the planters, and it is thought that almost all will have found employers before the 1st of February. All negroes who at that time shall be unemployed and not willing to make contracts, it is the intention of the Commissioner to arrest and treat as vagrants. The demand for labor is greater than the supply, and the Commissioner has frequent calls made upon him for able-bodied men to go to other States and to other parts of Georgia. With these calls, however, he does not comply, being unwilling to drain off all the young and strong men, and leave in his district a disproportionate number of women, children, and aged persons. By a recent order of General Tillson, the compensation for the labor of a full hand is fixed at $12 a month, food, and proper medical attendance. This order creates much dissatisfaction among the planters, as they had previously been hiring laborers for food, medicine, and $10 a month. I believe the soil in this part of Georgia is not very productive, and that a planter thinks he does well if he gets a bale of cotton of five hundred pounds weight from three acres of land.

An Alabama planter with whom I conversed upon the prospective profits of cotton planting, informed me that in his neighborhood a negro on a plantation, properly supplied with mules, was in old times expected to cultivate fifteen acres of cotton land, and would now be expected to take care of ten acres. The planter in this part of Georgia may, therefore, calculate on something like 1,600 lbs. of cotton from each full hand, the money value of which will probably be not less than $400. As corn is worth $1 50 per bushel and bacon is worth $35 per cwt., the food of each laborer who receives his full allowance of 13 bushels of corn and 200 lbs. of meat would cost $89 50. His wages being added to this amount makes the total year's cost of the laborer $233 50, and the employer's profit on his labor in an ordinary year may be set at $166.

COLUMBUS, Ga., Jan. 17.

In the journey by rail from Macon to Columbus there is little to interest one who has previously travelled for any considerable distance in the South. All along the road is the familiar scene of their desolate-looking forest, with now and then a way-station with its dozen or so of loungers and its negro women selling cakes; and now and then a watering tank and a wood-pile, where usually the passengers walk about a little, examine the engine, look back at the long, undulating line of the track, and wonder, perhaps, that such rails have been able to bear the train safely thus far. Inside the cars also the scene is familiar—here and there a uniform, grey or blue; one or two

families, man, wife, and children, who seem to be seeking a new home, or, more likely, returning to an old one which is safe now that the war is done and the husband is out of the army; a few Northerners and many men unmistakably Southern in manner and language.

The conversation, which may be heard by snatches, is on various topics, the two chief being the war and its experiences and the negro. I very seldom hear anything said now about colonization, and the race is less frequently pronounced worthless; but the prospects of making cotton by free labor are often discussed, and one man gives another details of his farming plans for the coming season, and tells of the operations of the Freedmen's Bureau, an institution which commonly is severely denounced, though once in a while a man commends its action in his particular case. I hear President Johnson praised at the expense of the radicals in Congress, and not unfrequently Maximilian is mentioned. I judge it to be the prevailing opinion in this part of the country that the United States should let him alone. "When Kirby Smith broke up, you know," I heard a young man say yesterday, "we met one o' them Juarez colonels and he offered captains' commissions to Tom and me if we 'd go into his regiment. 'Not much,' I told him; 'I 'd been whipped once, and I did n't want to be again.' No, sir; if I was going into that fight I 'd go in on the other side. Did n't tell him that, you know, but that 's what I 'd do."

While riding on this train I noticed, also, one or two illustrations of the fact that the women of the South are outspoken in their dislike of the federal soldiers. Just in front of me were two young ladies, and, as the cars stopped at a little village, we saw two men on crutches. On the platform were also some of the garrison. "It makes my heart ache," murmured one of the ladies, "to see our poor wounded Confederates. And look at those creatures in blue mixing with them!" Not long afterwards these ladies left the cars and their places were occupied by three others of less pleasing appearance, whose voices could be heard even above the noise of the wheels. Two soldiers sat in a seat across the aisle, and were compelled to hear much loud talk about "the miserable Yanks" who had stolen the corn and meat of such a person, or who were the probable destroyers of this or that building by the roadside "when they made one of their brave raids." Officers on duty in this city tell me that some of the women still carefully gather up the folds of their dresses when they approach a man in the federal uniform, and prefer crossing the street to walking under the national flag. Manifestations of the same feeling have fallen under my observation at Liberty, Lynchburg, and Danville, in Virginia; at Raleigh and Salisbury, North Carolina; at Charleston, South Carolina, and at three cities in Georgia. The most amusing instance occurred in Lynchburg. A lady called from an upper window to a little girl on the sidewalk: "Julia, come in this minute, child. That Yankee will rub against you if you stay there." The Yankee referred to was a soldier, a dull-looking fellow, who appeared confounded at this attack upon him. He quickly recovered himself, however, and, turning his face towards the chamber window, addressed the little girl, who was obeying her mother with alacrity: "Yaas, go 'long in, you skinny little thing! Do n't rub against the Yankee. I guess your father tried it on down at Petersburg, and *he* did n't like it, you know."

Columbus is about a hundred miles from Macon, and the journey was made in nine tedious hours. The town is built on flat land, and is a pretty place, with many trees, and like Augusta in the great width of its thoroughfares. These are not in the best order; but that is a matter of small consequence, for each driver has a broad expanse of roadway from which he may choose a path. Cows and pigs wander up and down in them without molestation. One of the pigs I praised as I was standing in a shop on Broad Street. "Yes," said the shopman, who was a small dealer in groceries, and an Irishman, "'t is a fine hog, and ye may be sure it 's a nigger's. One o' them would ha' knocked it on the head if 't was a white man's was runnin' the street like that." Then he went on to lament the changed times and customs. The niggers was above work now and was all for living like gentlemen and ladies. Every one o' them in Columbus had seven or eight other ones living about him and stealing for him. When they was slaves they all had plenty o' money, and eating and drinking to their hearts' content, and now they had nothing, and would n't work to earn. It would be a fine day when the Yankees should be off about their business, and the people left to manage their own niggers themselves. Then they 'd be brought to their senses. When one o' them runs away from his lawful work, then a man 'll just take his pistol in his hand, and get on his horse, and, faith, if the nigger won't come back with that, he 'll be welcome to stay where he 's left. It was nothing but the Yankees made them so much above themselves.

Like the other large towns of Georgia, Columbus wears an appearance of more prosperity than is seen in other Southern cities, and seems to be a busy place, its show of activity being perhaps partly due to the large number of idle people in the streets. The Chattahoochee, a reddish stream of considerable size, whose further shore is in Alabama, runs close by the town, and adds much to its beauty. The weather during my stay has been charmingly mild and soft; many of the trees are green, the flowers are in blossom in the gardens, it is so warm, and under my open windows the children are playing barefooted.

I find that the freedmen and the farmers in this part of Georgia are now busily preparing for the work of the coming season. Since the 1st of January the officers of the Freedmen's Bureau have recorded in their books ninety-nine contracts, the great majority of which were entered into by the plantation negroes with their employers, and each day several new ones are brought in for approval. In the month of December six contracts were put on record. The branch of the Bureau here established has charge of three counties, Chattahoochee, Muscogee, and Talbot, and it is by citizens of this district that nearly all these contracts have been made, although a few of them made in other counties, and a few made by parties living across the river, in Alabama, have, for convenience sake, been recorded at the office in Columbus.

The amount of compensation given the laborer is very variable. I was told that the order issued by General Tillson, fixing the minimum rate of wages at $12 a month for a full hand, had never been enforced here, and, indeed, that it had never been heard of. Most of the negroes, therefore, have been hired for less than that, though I am informed that now $14 per month is offered. By permission I copied from the books some of the contracts which have received approval:

"This contract, entered into on this 26th day of December, between David J. Shipp of the one part, and the freedmen hereinafter named of the other part, witnesseth that the said freedmen contract to remain on the plantation of the said Shipp during the year 1866, and perform such reasonable labor of any kind as he or his agent may require of them; their whole time to be employed by said Shipp, and they to accept for their services such compensation as is hereinafter annexed to their names, in addition to the usual allowance of shelter, food, clothing, and medicine given to field-hands, except that Silas, Maria, and Billy Shipp and Joseph Jones are to pay for their clothing and food furnished by said Shipp out of their hereinafter named compensation.

"Said freedmen are to be obedient, honest, and faithful, and shall remain in the employment of the said Shipp until the expiration of the contract, when they are to receive the full amount of wages due them. But should they prove disobedient, faithless, and dishonest, or leave their employment, they shall be dismissed from service and forfeit whatever wages may be deducted by the proper authority.

"In case of illness requiring the attendance of a physician, the employer will hold himself responsible for the bills, and deduct the amount from the wages of those for whose benefit they may have been made, also making a deduction for the time lost in sickness. The said Shipp binds himself to comply faithfully with his portion of the contract, and to treat his employees with humanity and justice, and protect them in all their rights of person and property so far as is in his power.

"George Bernell, $60; Georgianna, $40; Little Rick Shipp, $50; Dock Shipp, $60; Rick Shipp, $60; Amy Totman, $40; Sally Totman, $40; Tilda Shipp, food and clothing; Silas Shipp, one-third of the produce of twenty acres of land; Maria Shipp, do.; Billy Shipp, do.; Joseph Jones, do. and $40."

Another contract, which I copied, was the following:

"COLUMBUS, Ga., Jan. 2, 1866.

"Contract and agreement entered into between R. A. Martin, of the first part, and Kendle Souther, freedman, for himself and family, of the second part. The second part agrees to labor faithfully for the first part, and to obey all orders given by the same, and to be responsible for all property entrusted to his care; the first part promises to furnish him with a house to live in so long as he may be in his employment, and to pay him $135 and board for them that labors, and sell him provisions at the market price for them that don't work, and nothing more. In witness whereof we have set our hands and signatures.

"R. A. MARTIN,
his
"Approved. "KENDLE ⋈ SOUTHER."
mark

In the majority of the contracts which I examined, the planter binds himself to pay the laborer for one year's work $120 and his board. In the printed forms for contracts which are now used in this office at Columbus, it is provided that "for neglect of duty—or other misdemeanor—or any question of doubt arising, the same to be referred to the nearest officer or agent of the Bureau or justice of the peace."

I found five instances in which negroes had leased land. In one case a third of all the produce was to be given to the owner as rent; in another, one-fifth; in another, where forty acres of land were rented, the lessees were to pay $250 and 48 bushels of meal; in another, one-half of the crops was to be paid, and in this case the negro seems to have been considered a farmer of some skill and character. The agreement reads as follows:

"STATE OF GEORGIA, Muscogee Co.

"An agreement entered into this 7th day of December between D. W. Urquhart, proprietor, on one part, and a freedman, Thornton Allen, on the other part, witnesseth that the said Urquhart covenants and agrees to furnish the said Thornton Allen a house and lands, to wit: The Joe Diamond place, with 140 acres, more or less, of land for cultivation; and, furthermore, to furnish the said Thornton Allen $500 worth of provisions and two mules to assist in cultivating said land. And the said Thornton agrees on his part to well and faithfully cultivate said land, and put not less than 60 acres in cotton, and all the balance in corn and other grain and suitable crops of sweet-potatoes and melons, to put the orchard and vineyard in proper trim and cultivation, and that he, the said Thornton, will faithfully market the products of said orchard, vineyard, melons, and potatoes, and freely and honestly pay over to said Urquhart the one-half of the products of lands so cultivated and the products so marketed, and pay the one-half of the corn and cotton on lands so cultivated into the store of the said Urquhart."

There was one record of an indenture of apprenticeship. A boy of seven years old had been bound out by his mother for fourteen years, the master agreeing "to provide for all his temporal wants and learn him to read and write if he will take it, and at twenty-one give him a suit of clothes."

The officer of the Bureau in Columbus, who is very soon to be mustered out of the service, is decidedly of opinion that a large majority of the planters will be kind and just towards their laborers, and that his successor will have but little difficulty in his dealings with those two classes of persons. He congratulates himself, however, that he is relieved from duty before the militia is allowed to take the place of the United States troops. The withdrawal of the federal troops he considers equivalent to the withdrawal of the Bureau.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, 6th January.

EVERY day diminishes the few that still remain before the opening of the new Parliament, and yet nothing indicates the probability of any vigorous political action on its re-assembling. The Ministry still remains incomplete. For the last three months we have got on "indifferently well" without a President of the Council; and I suppose if we were never to have another again, the world would go on pretty much the same. Such a heresy, however, as this is one which a Whig Premier would be the last to entertain; and, practically, the vacant post is not filled up because the requisite occupant cannot be found. Earl Russell is well aware of the weakness of his cabinet, and wants to get assistance which will strengthen without eclipsing him. Overtures were made to Lord Stanley, though without success, and since this ineffectual attempt to form a coalition between the moderate Whigs and the still more moderate Conservatives, Earl Russell has turned his attention to the advanced Liberals and has formed a sort of quasi-ministerial alliance with Mr. Bright. The truth is, that the men whom the Premier would like to have as his colleagues hang back till he has declared his programme of reform. Many are afraid it will prove too liberal; a few that it will not prove liberal enough. Moreover, the antagonism between the Palmerstonians and anti-Palmerstonians in the present cabinet is already making itself manifest. It is reported that the Premier wished to offer Mr. Stansfeld a post in the Ministry. This gentleman, as you may perhaps remember, was driven out of the late cabinet in consequence of his close connection with Mazzini, and his supposed complicity in some anti-Napoleonic conspiracy instigated by the great Italian agitator. On the offer becoming known, Lord Clarendon declared, it is said, that he should resign his office of Foreign Minister if it was not withdrawn, as the re-appointment of Mr. Stansfeld would throw difficulties in the way of our friendly relations with the French Government, and in consequence Earl Russell had to withdraw the offer. But the incident shows the want of harmony between the members of the Russell-Gladstone administration. This want of harmony will, I have no doubt, become conspicuous if ever a Reform bill is seriously introduced as a cabinet measure. The old Whigs, as a body, are opposed to any extension of the suffrage that is likely to materially alter the distribution of political power; and any measure of reform calculated to satisfy Mr. Bright will most assuredly cause a split in the ministerial ranks.

My own suspicion is that the Ministry have not really made up their minds what they are going to propose; they are waiting to see which way the wind blows—and as yet there is no sign of wind from any quarter of the political sky. Mr. Bright, however, either conceives that Earl Russell has decided on his programme, or else, as I rather incline to think, he assumes that the programme is determined in order to force the hands of the Ministry. For the last few weeks he has "taken the stump" upon reform, and has delivered a series of brilliant orations in favor of a scheme which he intimates has been adopted by the Ministry. This scheme leaves the arrangement of the seats just where it is now, leaves the ballot an open question, and reduces the borough franchise to a five-pound, and the county franchise to a ten-pound, rental. Now, if this proposal should be made law, a million of voters would be added to the million and a half of which our electoral body is now composed. Personally, I should be glad if such a bill could be passed; in the first place, because I think we have no right to exclude anybody from the suffrage; in the second place, because it would give a more democratic character to our system of government. But, putting personal wishes aside, I can see little prospect of any proposal of this kind being really carried through Parliament. The Tories would oppose it energetically; the Whigs would support it languidly, and counteract it privately; and a large section of the genuine Liberals would throw in their influence against it. There is no good in disguising the fact that the reform would alter the whole character of our constituencies. The million of new voters would be taken exclusively from the operative and mechanic class, and thus the election of members would be thrown into the hands of the hitherto unrepresented masses. This is a consummation at which a large section of our English Liberals stand aghast. Even so genuinely liberal a paper as the *Spectator* is never tired of protesting against the peril of swamping the educated classes. John Stuart Mill himself is an advocate of some scheme like Mr. Hare's, by which workingmen should have a certain number of votes, but yet the ruling power should still be retained in the hands which exercise it at present. My own view, that a country should be ruled according to the wishes and interests of the majority, and that, as the working-men form the vast majority of English men, they ought to have the upper hand in government, is one which, I own, finds favor with very few Liberals of the class to which I belong. Under these circumstances, I cannot think that any Reform bill which could add a million of working-men to the constituencies can possibly be carried, except under the pressure of intense popular excitement, and as yet there is no indication of any popular agitation whatever.

It is, I think, to the credit of the nation that—as I stated in a former letter—the excitement created by the Jamaica massacre should have superseded for the time the interest in the question of reform. Though for the moment the agitation has been pacified by the appointment of the commission of enquiry, yet the suspension of outcry is, I think, only a temporary one; and a singularly foolish speech of Mr. Cardwell, declaring that the Government had no intention of inflicting any slur on Governor Eyre's character by an investigation into his conduct, has created a demonstration of feeling in the country which showed that the popular sentiment on this topic cannot safely be trifled with. On Monday the two fellow-commissioners of General Storks—Mr. Russell Gurney, the Recorder of London, and Mr. Maule, the Recorder of Leeds—sailed for Jamaica. Their appointment on the whole, has given satisfaction. They are both men of high character and of considerable reputation for ability and fairness in the discharge of their official duties. Very great difficulty was experienced in getting men to serve on the commission. All men who had expressed, or were known to entertain, opinions on the subject, were considered disqualified from acting as investigators; and to men who took no especial interest in the subject one way or other, a more ungrateful task could hardly be offered than that of conducting a Jamaica enquiry. If they espouse the side either of the planters or the negroes, they will give deadly offence to one of two very powerful interests in England, and will be bitterly abused by their respective organs in the English press. If they side with neither, and try to take an impartial view, they will, unquestionably, be abused by both parties. I am not over-sanguine of the success of the commission. The Government is trying to perform an impossible task—to satisfy the demands of those who call for justice in respect of these Jamaica outrages, and yet to avoid offending the governing classes, who sympathize with Eyre. Between two stools they will, probably, fall to the ground. Meanwhile a legal difficulty has already been suggested. It seems the crown has no power to issue a commission without the consent of the legislature of the island; and, therefore, if the planter parliament should think fit to resent the slight upon their conduct conveyed by the mere appointment of such a commission, it is not clear what the gentlemen sent out will be able to do. However, I am afraid the planters are hardly likely to be so infatuated as to throw open difficulties in the way of the enquiry. My fear is that they will endeavor to gain their cause by apparent frankness. The first principle the commissioners ought to lay down—as a friend of mine who had lived long amidst a subject race said to me the other day—is that pleasant-spoken, courteous gentlemen, who seem the very soul of honor, will lie, on such questions as are under investigation in Jamaica, like any pickpockets; and this is exactly what, from my knowledge of the commissioners, I fear they are not likely to appreciate.

Then, too, I should say that the prevalence of the Rinderpest rendered the season an inauspicious one for the successful introduction of a reform bill.

In the counties, people are too much absorbed in devising means for checking the progress of this murrain to think much about politics. Last week there were nearly eight thousand cases of malady, as against a little over six thousand to the preceding one. As all cattle affected had to be killed, the week's loss to the owners and breeders of stock cannot, at a low average, be reckoned less than a hundred thousand pounds. The country, at last, is really becoming frightened about the pestilence; and, under the influence of panic, the most drastic remedies are being adopted. In Northamptonshire, for instance, regulations have been issued by the county magistrates, absolutely precluding the removal of cattle from one field to another, and forbidding their being even driven to the butchers for immediate slaughter. If other counties follow this example, the sale of beeves and stock will be almost suspended. The butcher will have to go and kill his meat on the farmer's premises; and the consequence will be an enormous increase in the cost of meat, and, in consequence, in its market price. How far these remedies are likely to prove effectual I greatly doubt. London cannot live without meat; and so long as the markets are held, as they must be, in the metropolis, the cattle disease must be propagated by contact. Moreover, according to the theory of which Professor Gamgee is the exponent, the mode in which the infection is conveyed is so subtle as almost to preclude detection. It is seriously alleged that the contagion is carried by foxes from one farm to another, though they themselves are not affected by the disease. And in order to remedy this danger, the suspension of hunting, and even the wholesale destruction of foxes, have actually been proposed in Northamptonshire. The proposition, I am bound to say, met with no encouragement; and to anybody who knows the "shires," the mere fact that such a proposal should have been even mooted there speaks volumes.

Taking things altogether, I should confess that we were approaching a period of trouble and disturbance. With the optimism which has become so much an article of faith in our papers, we are told that we are entering once more on an era of domestic prosperity and foreign peace. I hope it may be so, but I cannot see the grounds for the belief. One small circumstance has already happened, which to me appears suggestive of trouble ahead. The French Government has given notice of its determination to terminate the extradition treaty with England, on the ground that it does not work. Of course we are assured that this means nothing, and that the idea of demanding greater concessions with respect to the rendition of political fugitives has never entered the head of the Emperor. But Napoleon III. seldom does anything without motive. There is something curious in the revival of the old complaint that the license of our English laws is a danger to the Continent. We shall certainly not alter our laws to suit French ideas. But if our refusal should lead to unsatisfactory relations between France and England, the dream of coming prosperity will be rudely dispelled.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, Jan. 5, 1866.

THE New Year's display of this quick-witted city usually reflects the leading interest of the preceding twelvemonth. That which followed the close of the Crimean campaign was marked by the imitation of Russian forms and styles and the prevalence of unpronounceable Russian names. The war in China overwhelmed us with "Chinoiseries," from squat mandarins to the elaborate imitation of Chinese patterns in every imaginable object. The Italian campaign sent us back to the days of ancient Rome and yet more ancient Etruria. This year not having brought us any special nationality for the inspiration of Parisian ingenuity, the fancy of each maker has had free sway, and every shop-window has rejoiced in its special group of elegant novelties. And what a show we have had! From the dazzling display of Samper, whose windows contained more than a million sterling in pearls, diamonds, rubies, and their sister sparklers, down to the humblest sausage shops (in some of which that favorite Parisian delicacy, truffled pigs-feet, has just been seized by the police at the instance of indignant customers who found the slices of the precious tubers to be represented by bits of black merino), the enumeration of all the fine things on which Paris has been feasting its eyes for a fortnight would read like the catalogue of an industrial exhibition. Suffice it to say that dolls have reached, this year, a pitch of perfection, in the way of speaking and moving, unknown before; that the various mechanical toys are more wonderful than ever; that among them the cheapest are some thousands of birds cut out of white wood and representing the casoar, which is being acclimatized in this country, whose head and tail keep up a constant oscillation, to the immense delight of youthful purchasers; while one of the most seasonable is a sturdy workman laying about him in all directions with a pick-axe, and christened "The Municipal Demolisher;" that Siraudin's four new comfits, the "Ambrosial," the "Ephemeral," the "To be Alone," and the "Spirits of the Wood," surpass everything yet achieved by the confectionery art; and that the array of boxes and baskets, running up in price as high as a thousand francs, are miracles in their way. A really curious trifle among the mass of cheap wonders sold by the humblest class of dealers—those who display their wares on small tables or a square bit of oil-cloth laid on the ground between the booths—is the decanter which, though holding water when let alone, opens out, when the neck is pulled upwards, into a long spiral coil of glass wire, that settles again, of its own accord, into the shape and nature of a decanter when your hold on the neck is loosed. The pale, yellow-haired youth who sells these queer specimens of the craft of the glass-worker, who has been discoursing on the wonders of his wares incessantly from early morning till midnight for ten days past, and is no doubt expatiating thereon with unflagging eloquence as I write, is always surrounded by a crowd, and is probably making a good thing of his persistent vociferation.

The Emperor is not known to have had his usual evening stroll with the Empress, *incog.*, along the boulevards, during the height of the New Year excitement. But her active and fun-loving Majesty, with one or two of her favorite ladies, all very plainly dressed, and wearing thick veils, took a walk, a few evenings ago, along the greater part of the animated thoroughfare, stopping the oftenest at the booths, from which she bought largely, especially from those whose owners looked the poorest, to the amazement of the dealers, leaving gold where *sous* were looked for, sometimes stuffing her purchases into her pockets, but more often leaving them, with a request that they would keep them "until she came back."

The bands of the regiments garrisoned in the capital have ushered in the new year with their usual magnificent performances in the court of the Tuileries, and been rendered happy by the bestowal of the usual Imperial gratuities; the usual receptions of the dignitaries of church and state, domestic and foreign, have taken place at the Tuileries, to the satisfaction, let us hope, of those who figured in the brilliant ceremonial, as well as to the dense mass of spectators gathered outside the palace to enjoy the spectacle of all the grand carriages as they rolled by, with the many-colored glories of liveries without and of uniforms within. It may interest distant readers to know that His Majesty, who was unusually smiling and chatty in his reception of the diplomatic body, talked longer and more graciously with the representatives of Austria (Prince Metternich) and of the United States (Mr. Bigelow) than with any of the others. The reception of the wives of high officials, formerly held on the second day of the new year by the Empress, was left off last year, because it often happened that the ladies of the prefects, many of whom would come to court on these occasions for the first time, would contrive, under the combined influence of nervousness and court-trains, to get their feet entangled in the latter, and finish their elaborate curtsies to the Empress by a sudden descent upon the floor.

The distributions of bread, fûel, and money which are made on New Year's Day among the poor of Paris have been as liberal as usual. The Imperial family, the leading capitalists, and others contribute largely for this purpose, the distributions being made, according to the decisions of the examining officers, at the "beneficence offices" of the various wards and at the innumerable convents, which would fain secure the monopoly of these annual benefactions.

Victor Hugo—who, like two or three others of the principal actors in the scenes fifteen years ago, prefers occupying the pedestal of voluntary exile to returning to obscurity in France—has also been celebrating Christmas by giving, as he has done for some years past, a dinner, warm clothes, and toys to the children of the corner of Guernsey in which he has taken up his abode. A complimentary notice of this little fête having been published in some of the English journals, the poet has come out with a modest disclaimer of the praise thus bestowed on his charitable work, most amusingly characteristic of the writer, who speaks of "his plan" of giving flannel and dolls to the children of the poor at Christmas as a novelty that "has been most successfully adopted in many parts of England and America," but declares that it is not absolutely original on his part; "the first idea of it not being mine, but the great and noble example of Jesus Christ," whose command, "Suffer little children to come unto me," M. Hugo considers himself to have thus carried out. He expatiates on the moral and physical benefit the children are found to have derived from this annual treat, and rises to lofty eloquence in passing from the Christmas-tree to the tree of liberty, which, he says, "is yet to be planted by enslaved humanity." According to the not very amiable reminiscences of the Parisians, the poet's head must have undergone, of late, a rather decided development of the bump of philoprogenitiveness, as his relations with his own children were not considered in his younger days to be characterized by indulgence.

The Bavarians are still quarrelling about the recent expulsion of Dr.

Richard Wagner from their little kingdom. It appears that the young King was brought up by his sire and predecessor in the style of what the Parisians would term "Victor Hugo's earlier manner." He was kept in total retirement, never allowed to see or hear anything of interest, his education neglected and deprived of all suitable companionship and amusement. Called suddenly to the throne, invested with a freedom as entire as had been the restraint of his former life, it is not surprising that the young King should have committed among other mistakes in the choice of his surroundings that of mistaking Dr. Wagner for an artist, and his hideous cacophonies for "the music of the future." As Dr. Wagner has the reputation of being an innovator in other matters besides music, and is abused by the clericals as a republican, socialist, atheist, and so forth, the great intimacy which had speedily sprung up between him and the young King provoked the clamors of the court and the priestly party to a pitch that at length alarmed the new votary of the "Tannhäuser," and induced him to send its author out of Bavaria. Public opinion, in that country, is excited in regard to an affair which looks, to outsiders, very much like a "tempest in a teapot;" but the Bavarian people are a good deal in advance of their Government, and, though not caring a straw about Dr. Wagner and his musical vagaries *per se*, they are indignant at the ignominious treatment which they regard as aimed rather at his anti-absolutist tendencies in governmental matters than at his heresies in the field of art.

Our late visitor, the young King of Portugal, a lover of music of a very different calibre from his brother of Bavaria, having been greatly delighted with his impromptu visit to Rossini, when he passed through Paris on his way to Italy, sent word to the maestro before leaving, last week, that he was coming to see him in the course of the morning. Rossini, on receiving this message, sent off in haste for Verdi, Auber, and a few others of the most illustrious composers and performers now in Paris, who were all assembled in Rossini's hospitable drawing-room when the young King arrived, attended by the Portuguese minister, Viscount Paiva. His Majesty, delighted at meeting so many illustrious representatives of his favorite art, soon seated himself at the piano, playing various *morceaux* from the works of the composers present, airs, duets, and trios being thus executed with the greatest spirit, and all joining in at the choruses, to the immense satisfaction of all present.

The little diplomatic difficulty which occurred at the wedding of Princess Alexandrine of Prussia, when, in consequence of there having been no seats reserved for them at the royal table, the French and English ministers, with their ladies and the members of their respective legations, left the palace, on the conclusion of the ceremony in the Royal Chapel, thus missing the banquet, has had an amusing *finale* in the shape of a communication addressed by the grand chamberlain to the chief of police, and informing that functionary that "certain ill-advised persons," as the chamberlain mildly puts it, "have stolen various pieces of plate from the royal wedding-table—among others two silver dishes, ten large spoons and five forks of the same metal, and one dozen of plated spoons and forks, which were doubtless supposed to be of silver!" STELLA.

Correspondence.

WIT AND HUMOR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Your contributor in No. 29 came to the conclusion that wit and humor are only different names for the same thing. It is, indeed, often difficult to distinguish the one from the other, as in the prismatic spectrum we cannot fix the precise spot where one color begins and the other ends; but most of us know green from yellow, and it seems to me that, when we use the words wit and humor, we feel a difference that really exists.

Leaving aside any psychological examination of this peculiar and pleasant form of mental action, I think we may arrange a scale after the manner of the prismatic, at the top of which shall stand wit, humor next, and so on downward to burlesque and buffoonery. They all spring from the same source, and each one passes into the next below it by a gradation as imperceptible as the dividing line of the colors in the spectrum—but, as I said before, it is easy to see that yellow is not green.

When wit and humor come nearest together, a difference suggests itself at once. Wit is condensed, crystallized, polished—sharpened to an edge and to a point. No one ever called an epigram humorous. If wit and humor are made of the same stuff, so are a diamond and a lump of coal. Wit flashes and sparkles like the diamond, and, like it, lasts a very long time.

Then, wit is always more in earnest than humor. I know no better definition of wit than Addison's: "A truth in the understanding is, as it were, reflected by the imagination"—reflected and photographed. There must always be a truth, or what passes for one. Wit explains, illustrates, and drives this idea home and clinches it—represents it to the judgment in so strong a light that it is fixed for ever. Wit without ideas is like a vine without a trellis to grow upon; it lies upon the ground, and bears no fruit worth the gathering, only jests, quips, and verbal jingles.

Wit, then, must be like McClellan's theory of a campaign: short, sharp, and decisive; and it must have a genuine meaning in it. Brevity is not the soul of wit, in spite of the proverb. Brevity is its body, its soul is good sense.

Under the stimulus of a grand or solemn subject wit may rise into the region of metaphor and poetical imagery. Addison's famous comparison of the soul aspiring to divine perfection to one of the asymptotes—"a line that may draw nearer to another to all eternity without the possibility of touching it"—is genuine wit of the highest class; and so is Coleridge's saying, that human experience is "like the stern-lights of a ship at sea, which illumine only the path we have passed over."

But humor deals with everyday life. It contrasts small things with greater. It is a good-natured comparison of the weaknesses of human nature with a higher ideal—a kindly *reductio ad absurdum* of the trivialities of society. And the reason why women so seldom show a sense of humor is that they see nothing trivial in the doings and sayings of society. They believe in the importance of all that goes on in the circle about them.

The humorist writes as a superior being, although full of the best of feeling towards his inferiors; when we read and enjoy his descriptions, we unconsciously assume the same position. But humor must always be good humor, or it turns sour and passes over into satire. Hence, according to my theory, the range of humor is limited, but that of wit knows no bounds.

May I give a few examples of humor, as I understand it, which occur to me at this moment? Washington Irving on his first visit to France writes home: "I took Paris by the tail." Charles Lamb meets a newly married lady "who marvelled that an old bachelor like him should assume to know anything about the propagation of oysters." Addison, in a sketch of the fashionable *décolletées* young ladies of his time, candidates for matrimony, says: "Many a man has been hindered from laying out his money on a show, by seeing the principal figures of it hung out before the door"—and has been "so attentive to those objects he could see for nothing that he took no notice of the master of the show, who was continually crying out: 'Pray, gentlemen, walk in!'" The whole paper, by the way, is not at all out of date. And Goldsmith, in an essay on critics: "Another has written a book himself, and being condemned for a dunce, he turns a sort of king's evidence in criticism, and now becomes the terror of every offender." This I call humor. The following I should call witty—Voltaire's hint to writers: "The adjective is often the enemy of the substantive even when they agree in gender, number, and case." Pope's: "Some solitary wretches seem to have left the rest of mankind, only as Eve left Adam, to meet the devil in private." Quintilian's advice how to deal with short-witted people: "A narrow-necked bottle must be humored; pour gently, or you spill instead of fill." Coleridge's comparison of language, as ordinary men use it, to a barrel organ, "that supplies at once both instrument and tune." Mme. de Staël's criticism on the ontological systems of her German friends, "that they had all the darkness which preceded the creation without the light that followed it." The Bishop of St. David's suggestion that the many insignificant names signed to a certain petition were like zeros preceded by a decimal point, "however far the series may be prolonged, it can never rise to the value of a single unit."

I do not offer the foregoing as the choicest specimens of either class, but I think they will serve my purpose. No one will call Addison's "show" witty, or the Bishop of St. David's hit humorous. One word on puns before I end. This despised species of pleasantry deserves all the contempt it has received when it consists in a mere verbal jingle, and offers only sound to the ear that is expecting sense. There is no class of harmless men more insupportable than the parrots without feathers who wish their hearers to consider the repetition of a sound a joke. But let a pun have a meaning to back it, and it may be genuine wit; often more effective on account of the sound; as rhyme adds to the effect of verse. What is Dr. Channing's famous saying, that a man is not to be judged by the rightness of his doctrine, but by its uprightness, but a kind of pun? Is not Burke's, "Majesty stripped of its externals—a jest," witty? And this old conundrum, which Fenians may relish: What makes treason reason in Ireland? The absent *t*. Is not that good wit? Or Jerrold's definition of dogmatism, Puppyism come to maturity? or Lowell's favorite conundrum: Why is a

ship called she? Because the rigging is worth more than the hull. And to descend lower in the scale, there is wit in the *Saturday Review* when it says an election bribe is the modern votive offering, and in Blackwood's Piccadilly when he calls a fashionable ball in London a "daughtercultural show."

X.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

THE list of book announcements just issued by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields is almost enough to redeem the whole publishing trade from the charge of inactivity. It comprises nearly twenty different works, all to appear during the present season. Among them are: "The Biglow Papers, Second Series," by James Russell Lowell; "Snow-bound, a Winter Idyl," by John G. Whittier; an edition of Mr. Swinburne's first work, "The Queen Mother, and Rosamond;" "Drift, a Sea-shore Idyl, and other Poems," by the late George Arnold, edited by William Winter; "Lucy Ailin," by J. T. Trowbridge, author of "Neighbor Jackwood;" "St. Martin's Summer," by Anne H. M. Brewster, author of "Compensation," etc.; "Honor May," a novel; "Geological Sketches," by Louis Agassiz; "The Masquerade, and other Poems," by John G. Saxe; "Asphodel, a Romance;" "The South since the War," by Sidney Andrews ("Dixon" of the Boston *Advertiser*); "Spare Hours, Second Series," by Dr. John Brown, author of "Rab and his Friends;" "Royal Truths," by Henry Ward Beecher; "The Life of James Gates Percival," by Julius H. Ward; "Poems," by Florence Percy; and "The Flowers of Liberty," edited and illustrated by Julia A. M. Furbish—"a unique volume containing forty chromo-lithographic illustrations of Union emblems, accompanied by a choice collection of poems, original and selected, from leading American poets," to be sold exclusively by subscription. Messrs. Ticknor & Fields have always been remarkable among publishers for the encouragement they have afforded to young and comparatively unknown authors; and it is but a well deserved return for their enterprise, that the productions of some of the most valued writers of the day are included in their list of publications. A large portion of the above announcement, it will be seen, is composed of works of this character by writers yet "unknown to fame," whose books may be expected with interest, as their acceptance by the firm that issues them is in some measure a guarantee for their merit.

—The passion for establishing new magazines seems to have reached this side of the water from England, where it has prevailed extensively for some time. In addition to several new weekly periodicals, we have now the announcement of a fortnightly magazine, "Town and Country," devoted to American literature. The enterprise is undertaken by Messrs. Bunce & Huntington, who promise that its outward shape will be a large octavo of eighty pages, printed on fine paper in clear type, and that it will be the aim of its intellectual portion "to portray and illustrate all the varied phases of town and country life; to delineate, under the forms of fiction or essay, the labors, the festivities, the humors, the pathos, the refinement, and the tragedy of life in town; accompanied with pictures of the sports, the employments, the adventures, the pleasures of the woods and the waters, the firesides, and the comedy of life in the country." This sufficiently extensive programme will be accomplished solely by original contents, consisting of contributions from the foremost names in American literature. Each number will contain illustrations, principally from drawings by our best known painters—the fresh, vigorous, and truthful designs of the new schools. "Town and Country" is to see the light in April next, when we doubt not that the public will be ready to respond to the enterprise of the publishers.

—Messrs. Hurd & Houghton's professional activity does not appear to be retarded by removal of their establishment from the noisy region of Broadway to the comparative quiet of Broome Street; on the contrary, being less occupied with general miscellaneous business, more may be expected of them in the publishing department, and as an earnest of this they have already issued announcements of several new books intended to appear during the spring season. Among them we notice "Our Mutual Friend," by Dickens, Household Edition, completing the series of his works, in four volumes, with illustrations on steel from designs by Darley; a new and complete edition of the "Works of the Hon. J. P. Kennedy," comprising "Horse-Shoe Robinson," "Swallow Barn," "Rob of the Bowl," "Quodlibet," and "Life of Wirt," in five volumes crown octavo; "Pictures of Country Life," by Alice Cary; "The Authorship of Shakespeare," by Judge Holmes of the Supreme Court of Missouri; a new novel by Bayard Taylor; "Explorations toward the North Pole in the Years 1860-61," by Isaac L. Hayes, M.D., commander of the expedition, with illustrations designed by Church, De Haas, Darley, and others, in one volume octavo, uniform with "Dr. Kane's Arctic Expedition," etc.; "Poems by Thomas Hood," People's Edition; a reprint of the late English edition of Douglas Jerrold's "Mrs. Caudle's Curtain Lectures," illustrated by Charles Keene; and "Out of Town," by Barry Gray, author of "Matrimonial Infelicities," illustrated by Bierstadt, Gifford, Beard, and other artists.

—A new feature is to be noticed in the publication of American local histories—the appropriation of a sum of money by a town for the preparation and publication of the record of its past history. Prof. Fowler, well known for his work on the English language published by Messrs. Harpers, "Memorial of the Chauncey Family," and other scholarly works, is a resident of the town of Durham, Connecticut, and has for some time been engaged in researches among the papers of his own and other families for historical purposes connected with the settlement and early progress of the State. With the intelligence characteristic of New England, his fellow-townsmen have resolved that a work interesting to all should be brought out under the public auspices, and have voted an appropriation to provide for the appearance of Prof. Fowler's book in a style worthy of the subject. The printing is now going on by the Hartford Publishing Company, by whom the work will be issued, at the expense of the town. Durham is one of the thoroughly rural towns of Connecticut, in Middlesex County. Its origin is derived from New Haven, whence it was settled in 1698. Prof. Fowler has just delivered an address before the Colonists' Society of New Haven on the same subject, which will also be printed.

—After a long silence, Mr. George Catlin, the Indian traveller and artist, is heard from by the publication of a prospectus of an intended work meant to embrace the whole results of his many years' wanderings and residences among the Indian tribes of North America. He feels a natural pride in the perpetuation of these hard-earned illustrations, the fruit of the exertions of the best years of his life, obtained under peculiarly favorable circumstances, and now, from the rapid changes in the circumstances of the country, impossible ever to be repeated. He proposes to embody these unique traits of a vanishing people, preserved by his pencil and gathered from an intercourse with sixty-two different tribes, speaking distinct languages, in a work entitled "Souvenirs of the North American Indians in the Middle of the Nineteenth Century: a numerous and noble race of human beings fast passing to oblivion and leaving no monument of their own behind them. The result of eight years' travel and residence amongst the wildest and most interesting tribes of North America. By George Catlin, of Wilkesbarre, Valley of Wyoming, State of Pennsylvania, United States." If sufficient encouragement is given, the work will be brought out in three volumes, elephant folio, containing several hundred plates, none of which will represent less than three figures.

—An important landmark in the progress of Oriental civilization and Christianization has been placed by the appearance of "The Koran of Mohammed" in a Turkish version, forming two volumes octavo. It is the first authorized translation of "The Koran" out of the original Arabic ever made in the East. It has been undertaken and completed by command of the Sultan, who wishes every educated Turk to read the sacred book of his religion in his own language. The strict Mohammedans looked upon the proceeding as little less than impious, and remonstrated vigorously against the proceeding, but without avail. The only reply they could elicit from the authorities was "that the Christians were placing translations of their sacred books into Turkish in the hands of the Turks, and it was necessary, in defence of the Moslem faith, to counteract their teachings by enabling the faithful to fortify themselves against Christianity by reading 'The Koran' in their own tongue." This is a recognition of the efforts of our missionaries so decisive, because unconsciously and unwillingly given, that they may well be proud of, and it will no doubt stimulate them to further exertions. An account, by President Woolsey, of the Oriental version of the Scriptures now in process of publication by the American Bible Society, was one of the papers read at the semi-annual meeting in October last of the American Oriental Society at New Haven. It had a special reference to the great undertaking of stereotyping the new and most carefully revised Arabic Bible, translated by Drs. Smith and Van Dyck, now in progress at New York.

—One of the most enjoyable books printed for a long time is the new series of "Curiosities of Natural History," by Frank Buckland, just published in two volumes, with illustrations, by Mr. Bentley. Mr. Buckland is surgeon of the 2d Regiment of Life Guards, and makes it a practice to learn all he can wherever he goes, and to talk to every one he meets, especially to aged people. An old village gossip gives him the greatest delight, and his book abounds in curious stories respecting nature and her works gathered

from oral sources of information, corrected by the scientific knowledge of the writer. He goes—in principle—to see all the shows, gets intimate with the dwarfs, bearded ladies, fat boys, spotted children, etc., gives dinner parties to the giants, measures them at his leisure, prescribes as an amateur medical man for the animals in the Zoological Gardens, dissects them when dead, and has something interesting to tell about them all. *Apropos* to osseous relics of various kinds, he relates the true history and fate of the skull of Ben Jonson—respecting which there have been some newspaper paragraphs of late. The father of the author, Dr. Buckland, was Dean of Westminster at the time the grave of the poet was exposed by the preparations for the interment in the Abbey of Sir Robert Wilson, and he had, consequently, every facility for examination. His account is well calculated to show the uncertainty attending such relics and the folly of attaching any considerable value to them, as it shows that on four separate occasions, by himself and an official of the abbey, unknown to each other, the skull in question was removed on purpose to preserve it from depredation, until its identity was quite lost and no one could tell which it really was. The most probable skull still had remains of red hair attached to it. A curious confirmation of a popular tradition was given by the fact that the remains of the dramatist were found to have been interred upright, instead of the usual recumbent position. All who wish to learn about talking fish, happy families, mermaids, how to train "industrious fleas" and breed salmon, should consult the "Curiosities of Natural History," with a certainty of getting satisfaction on these and a hundred other kindred topics.

—A novelty in catalogues has just been brought out, relating to the public library of the University of Cambridge, being a separate catalogue of the "Printed Books containing MSS. notes and adversaria preserved in the University Library, Cambridge," by Messrs. H. R. Luard & Churchill Babington. Books so often derive additional value from preserving traces of the studies and tastes of the eminent men through whose hands they have passed, that the idea of giving an account of them by themselves, so as to save them from being lost in the general collection, is a praiseworthy one, that might be imitated with success in other quarters rich in literary remains. The library in question has for the last three centuries been the general receptacle for the books of many of the greatest scholars of the time, particularly in classical and Oriental literature, from the days of the Reformation downwards. The books particularized contain the annotations of Dr. Edward Castell, Bentley, Dr. John Taylor, the editor of "Demosthenes," Richard Porson, Elmsley, Godfrey Hermann, the German critic, and others. One of the most careful annotators of his books was the famous antiquary, Francis Druce, whose rare and curious library was bequeathed as an addition to the stores of the Bodleian at Oxford. Almost every book in the collection contains its literary history, curious notes, etc., relating to the subject and its author, by the former possessor, whose long life was devoted to such researches, though he never published any works except his "Illustrations to Shakespeare" and treatise on Holbein's "Dance of Death." It has been proposed to publish a selection from these MS. collections. They would make one of the most curious books of literary "ana" ever produced.

—It is remarkable how the general taste for investigations proves that the existing stock of what used to be considered the heaviest and most unsalable books in the world is insufficient to meet the requirements of students, rendering new editions imperative. No less than six reprints of the immense "Jewish Talmud" are now being published in Germany. Two editions of the still more voluminous "Acta Sanctorum, or Bollandist Collection of the Lives of the Saints," the great treasure-house of mediæval history, are also in progress, and every day brings notice of other undertakings of the kind.

—A splendid work on dogs will shortly be issued in London by Mr. Hardwicke, the natural history publisher. The author is the well-known naturalist, J. R. Jesse, Esq. It will be entitled "Researches into the History of the British Dog," and contains a vast amount of curious and interesting matter from old records, charters, and historical documents, hitherto unpublished, forming two volumes octavo, illustrated by about fifty spirited etchings by the author.

—By what we cannot but consider a mistake in judgment, Gustave Doré has been persuaded to undertake the illustration of Tennyson's "Idyls of the King." We say persuaded, because it is put forth officially that M. Doré is not sufficiently acquainted with the English language to read the poem in the original, and we cannot conceive that any artist would by preference employ his pencil in the illustration of a work whose purport he can but dimly understand through the medium of an imperfect version, while all the finer shades of poetical expression and subtle meaning, instinct with the life that should inspire his hand, must be entirely lost to him. There is one work fortunately existing in both an English and French original which M. Doré seems born to illustrate, and which it is surprising has not attracted his attention. We refer to "Vathek," by Beckford. The supernatural splendor and gloom of that unique romance, with its cynical tone of comment on human life, would find apt expression in the genius of the artist, who is in every fibre a Frenchman of the Voltaire school, if it is allowable to draw such a parallel between literature and art. The success of the Bible and Dante's "Inferno" is causing a transference of all Doré's works to editions with English text. The last that has appeared is his "Baron Munchausen's Adventures," from electrotypes of the original cuts, published in a handsome imperial quarto volume—the first time most unquestionably that the Baron has ever appeared in this aristocratic form, and an honor due solely to the artist.

—Dr. Julius Petzhold, of Dresden, well known as one of the highest living authorities on all that relates to books and literary history, has just published an important book, whose circulation will, however, be more limited than it should be, as it is written in German. It is called "Bibliographia Bibliographica: a Critical List of the literature belonging to the whole range of Bibliography, systematically arranged, with Alphabetical Indices." The work is founded in every instance on a personal examination of the books enumerated and characterized. It includes not only reference works, but also the bibliographies appended to other books, as transactions, memoirs, etc. The want of such a guide has been long felt and recognized. A translation has been proposed by an American scholar, who, we hope, will be encouraged to persevere in the attempt.

—A new tale of individual adventure and suffering, equal in vivid attraction to the most glowing pages of the romance writers, and with the advantage of being a record of undeniable facts, is one of the novelties of the present publishing season in London. The book is announced by Messrs. Lockwood & Co. as "The Modern (and True) Robinson Crusoe," "castaway on the Auckland Islands, a narrative of the wreck of the *Grafton*, and of the escape of the crew after twenty months' suffering, from the private journal of Capt. Thomas Musgrave, together with some account of the Auckland Islands; also, an account of the sea-lion and its habits. Originally written in seal's blood, as were most of Capt. Musgrave's journals. Edited by John J. Shillinglaw, F.R.G.S."

PERRY'S POLITICAL ECONOMY.*

The study of political economy is at so low an ebb in the United States that any honest man who sits down to write about it renders a service to the public. Let him acquit himself of his task ever so poorly, the mere discussion of the theories of the science cannot but do good. There is probably no branch of human knowledge with which most of us fancy we are so familiar, and there is probably none about which the mass of us are so ill-informed. The country is full of practical men, men of shrewdness and sagacity, who have achieved, or are achieving, remarkable success in every walk of trade, commerce, and manufacture. They have every operation of business at their fingers' ends. They, therefore, naturally enough find it hard to believe that scholars, philosophers, and professors can have anything to tell them that they do not already know about such matters as exchange, production, profits, wages, interest, rents, and taxation. The idea of there being anything too recondite for their "common sense" about processes which they are every day performing, and have been performing ever since their boyhood, with an ease that has made them almost mechanical, seems ridiculous. And yet, as a matter of fact, the most outrageous nonsense on these subjects that has ever appeared in print—the wildest schemes that ever have been propounded—have emanated from "practical business men;" while the whole science of political economy, so far as it can be called a science—for it must not be forgotten that its claims to that appellation are disputed—has really been built up by men of the closet. In every country in which it has been successfully cultivated, most of the contributions to it of any value have been made by writers who were not of the business world, but surveyed its operations from a distance; men for whose opinions on "business matters" few merchants or manufacturers would have given five cents. There are several ways of accounting for this, some of them obvious enough, such as the blunting effect which constant contact with details is apt to have upon the generalizing faculty, and the indisposition, if not inaptitude, of most business men for protracted investigation into abstract questions, and the strong and clouding influence on the judgment which close attention to the best manner of realizing imme-

* "Elements of Political Economy. By Arthur Latham Perry, Professor of History and Political Economy in Williams College." New York: Charles Scribner. 1866.

diate profits is apt to have with regard to all calculations touching remote results.

In this country the general and extraordinary prosperity has spread a sort of poetic haze over the whole machinery of society, and made all enquiry into the laws of its working seem a kind of idle speculation. There is, probably, no state in the world in which so large a proportion of the population are engaged in working out the theorems of the science, and yet we have in eighty years produced only one author, Mr. Carey, who has made any important contributions to it, and only one or two attempts have been made to "popularize" it. Now that men of intelligence at the North are released from the really ridiculous task of proving that slavery is not a divine institution, we may fairly look, however, for a more vigorous discussion of politico-economical questions than has ever before been bestowed on them. No such field for the examination of them was ever before offered to the student as this country affords, for in none are the laws of human nature, on which the science is based, left so free in their working; and the immense complication in our financial system wrought by the war will, doubtless, prove a constant stimulus to enquiry.

For all these reasons we should have cordially welcomed Professor Perry's book even if it had had less merit than it really possesses. It is in its main features rather what is called a "manual" for popular use than a treatise. He presents in a clear and concise shape the conclusions of American and foreign economists, wherever they agree on all the leading questions of the science, and, where they disagree, states the points of difference neatly, and pronounces his own judgment with almost an excess of modesty. He has adopted, and largely illustrated, M. Bastiat's definition of value, as "the relation between two services exchanged." In discussing exchange, he lays down the doctrines of free trade in the broadest manner. The chapters on labor and capital are amongst the best examples of lucid, popular statements on these subjects we have met with, and we cordially recommend them to the perusal of the advocates of the eight-hour movement. He adopts, with strong and well-deserved eulogy, Mr. Carey's law of the distribution of products between laborers and capitalists; but Mr. Perry shirks the discussion of the law of population in a way that shows that the man of science is not, after all, always uppermost in him. He says:

"The law of population and of human fecundity is just that with which God saw best to endow the race; that experience has shown that it is not too strong for the purpose for which it was given; and that the same law of population which produces laborers produces capitalists as well; and that the restraints on population which political economists have recommended are as likely to keep capitalists out of the world as laborers, which would be a disadvantage to the latter" (p. 126).

Now, the only restraints on population which political economists, except Aristotle, have recommended, are the refusal of permission to marry or cohabit to paupers supported by the public, and the prohibition of marriage in the case of other young persons until they can prove the possession of property sufficient to support and educate a family. Both of these restraints have, wherever put in force, worked tolerably well. The right of paupers to support is undoubted; but their right while in this condition to produce other paupers is incapable of proof, and society is bound in its own interest and that of possible children to deny it. Whether it is best for the state to make enquiries as to the ability of people to support a family before permitting them to marry, is a question which has not arisen, and is not likely to arise, in this country; but in old countries it does arise, and it is not met by the assertion "that the law of human fecundity is that with which God saw best to endow the race." We might as well say that the law of God which doomed children to suffer for the sins and shortcomings of their parents was a bar to compulsory education of the young. The whole question of legal restraints on population really turns on the extent to which the state can be considered responsible for the well-being of the next generation. The drunkard or profligate who brings children into the world for whom he cannot and will not provide obeys the "great law of human fecundity;" but have the children, possible or actual, no claim on public protection? Professor Perry lays it down that "economy being the science of exchange, presupposes the actual existence of men in society, and therefore it is without its province to discuss the laws under which they are born into society." This would be very true if the laws under which they are born into society did not materially affect their condition in it. But they do. The too rapid multiplication of laborers under these laws may, and does, produce extreme misery, and often without the laborers knowing why. It is the business of the political economist to call attention to the relations of capital to labor, and if there be any special cause, such as the habit of contracting improvident marriages, operating to produce superabundance of the latter, he is bound to mention it, and leave governments or individuals to do as they please about it. Whether preventive legislation be expedient or not, is, perhaps, not the business of an economist to discuss; but it is undoubtedly his duty to do what he can as a public teacher to excite public reprobation of any abuse of men's liberty which seems likely, by producing and perpetuating poverty, to retard human progress.

Professor Perry's theory of rent is striking and, we believe, original; the chapter on money is excellent; but the following is another example of hazy thinking. At page 255 he says the United States legal tender notes have

"Been more or less depreciated from the first—and at times very much depreciated; and this not because there has been *any doubt* about their ultimate redemption, not because of a lack of confidence in the stability of the Government, for thousands had been freely loaned by the people to the Government on the public faith in the interval, but partly on account of their excessive quantity and *partly on account of the nature of credit money unfitting it to maintain a high and steady value.*"

Now when paper money in time of war depreciates, it is partly owing to overissue, but partly also to want of confidence in its redemption. It is true that millions in the United States had no doubt of the will and ability of our Government to pay its debts, but a great many had, and the rest of the civilized world had no faith whatever, or very little. The effect of this was, of course, to diminish the market for the currency, and therefore depreciate it. Nothing but *universal* faith will keep paper money up to par. Even if *all* the inhabitants of a country have full faith in it, if the rest of the world has not, it will inevitably fall below gold, because it cannot be used at par in the purchase of foreign products, even if it do not exceed in volume what the country requires. And, in fact, the ups and downs of the gold market during the war were so many indications of variations in public confidence, and little else. Speculators speculated, but they speculated on public fears and anxieties. All this seems plain enough, but Professor Perry refutes his own doctrine elsewhere. At page 261 he says of the paper currency, "that, after all that can be said in favor of it, it is *credit money still*—and exposed to the dangers inseparable from credit money—namely, *distrust of the people*, the undue enlargement and sudden diminution of its volume," etc. Speaking, too, at page 310, of the National Bank paper, he says that

"Their circulation is nothing but *credit money*, and liable in some degree to the disorders *inseparable from every form of credit. Credit is not payment*, but a promise to pay. The promise may be good; it may be sure to be fulfilled; but it is not and never can be made the same thing as fulfilment. . . . And men are so constituted and society so delicately organized, that times are liable to come when men shall have a general distrust of mere promises, and shall desire to see them changed into fulfilments."

Nothing can be sounder than this. The "patriotic citizen" of the newspapers here disappears, and the political economist speaks his honest thought.

We cordially recommend Professor Perry's book to all, of whatever school of political economy, who enjoy candid statement and full and logical discussion. But we would suggest to the author that he revise it carefully if, as we hope it may, it should reach a second edition. It is marred by colloquialisms, vulgarisms, and, in a few instances, downright bad grammar, which, considering that the work issues from a university, is not permissible. Such expressions as "Man does not ache so *bad*" (p. 91); "Capitalists, do not feel too much *stuck up* towards your workmen;" and the constant use of such abbreviations as "do n't" and "won't," ought not to appear in any book written by a man laying claim to a good education. Political economists, too, are just as much responsible as others for the use they make of the people's English.

WINIFRED BERTRAM.*

"WINIFRED BERTRAM" is, in our judgment, much better than the author's preceding work: it is in fact an excellent book of its class. This class it is difficult to define. Were it not that in a certain chapter where Sunday literature is brought into question, the author fails to express her sympathy with it in a manner so signal as almost to suggest an intent to deprecate, we should say that her own book was fashioned on this principle. The chief figure in Miss Winifred Bertram's world, and one quite overshadowing this young lady, is a certain Grace Leigh, who, albeit of a very tender age, is frequently made the mouth-piece of the author's religious convictions and views of life. She is so free from human imperfections, and under all circumstances gravitates so infallibly and gracefully towards the right, that her attitude on any question may almost be taken to settle that question for spirits less clearly illumined. She administers a quiet snub to "Sunday books"

* "Winifred Bertram and the World She Lived in. By the author of 'The Schönberg-Cotta Family.'" New York: M. W. Dodd. 1866

by declaring that she possesses none. "I do not think Shakespeare is quite one," she adds, "nor Homer, although it often helps me on Sundays, and every day, to think of them." The truth is, however, that this young lady is so instinctive a respecter of Sunday that she can very well afford to dispense with literary stimulus. Wherever we place this work, its generous and liberal tone will assure it a respectable station; but is the author confident that she has not been liberal even to laxity in the comprehensive *bienveillance* which she attributes to Miss Grace Leigh, when the latter affirms that "all sermons are nice?" It is true that she qualifies her assertion by the further remark that "at least there is something nice in them," namely, the text. But the whole speech is a very good illustration of the weaker side of the author's spirit. It is indeed the speech of a child, and may have been intended to indicate her character rather than to express a truth of the author's own intelligence. Nevertheless, as we have said, this precocious little maiden is somehow invested with so decided an air of authority, that even when she is off her stilts the reader feels that he is expected to be very attentive. Now the word *nice* as applied to a sermon is thoroughly meaningless; as applied to a Scripture text it is, from the author's point of view, almost irreverent. And yet the reader is annoyed with a suspicion that the author fancies herself to have conveyed in these terms a really ponderable truth. Here is another instance of the same gushing optimism. Having put forward the startling proposition that "everything is pleasant"—it will be observed that our young friend is of a decidedly generalizing turn—Miss Grace Leigh proceeds to confirm it as follows: "It is pleasant to wake up in the morning and think how much one has to do for people—and it is pleasant to mend father's things—and it is pleasant to help the Miss Lovels with their scholars—and it is pleasant to make the cold meat seem like new to father by little changes—and it is pleasant that Mr. Treherne [the landlord] is a greengrocer and not a baker, because there are never any hot, uncomfortable smells—and," to conclude, "it is pleasant that there is a corner of the churchyard in sight." In other words, we would say, with all deference, it is pleasant to be able to be sentimental in cold blood. This pleasure, however, is to the full as difficult to grasp as the converse luxury of being reasonable in a passion.

In spite of this defect, it is very evident that it has been the author's aim to advocate a thoroughly healthy scheme of piety. She had determined to supersede the old-fashioned doctrinal tales on their own ground; to depict a world in which religious zeal should be compatible, in very young persons, with sound limbs and a lively interest in secular pastimes; in which the practice of religious duties should be but the foremost condition of a liberal education. This world of Miss Winifred Bertram is, accordingly, a highly accomplished one. It recalls those fine houses with violet window-panes, in whose drawing-rooms even the humblest visitors are touched with a faint reflection of the purple. Sin and sorrow assume a roseate hue. Candid virtue wears the beautiful blush of modesty. We have seen how the little girl above quoted gets "help" from Homer and Shakespeare. So every one about her is engaged in helping and being helped. She herself is the grand centre of assistance, in virtue, we presume, of her being in direct receipt of this favor from the great sources just mentioned. She walks through these pages shedding light and bounty, counsel and comfort; preaching, prescribing, and chiding. She makes as pretty a figure as you could wish; but she is, to our mind, far too good to be true. As the heroine of a fairy tale she would be admirable, but as a member of this working-day world she is almost ridiculous. She is a nosegay of impossible flowers—of flowers that do not bloom in the low temperature of childhood. We firmly believe that children in pinafores, however rich their natural promise, do not indulge in extemporaneous prayer, in the cogitation of Scripture texts, and in the visitation of the poor and needy, except in very conscious imitation of their elders. The best good they accomplish is effected through a compromise with their essentially immoral love of pleasure. To be disinterested is among the very latest lessons they learn, and we should look with suspicion upon a little girl whose life was devoted to the service of an idea. In other words, children grow positively good only as they grow wise, and they grow wise only as they grow old and leave childhood behind them. To make them good before their time is to make them wise before their time, which is a very painful consummation. The author justifies the saintly sagacity of little Grace Leigh by the fact of her having been obliged to look out for herself at a very tender age; but this very competency to the various cares and difficulties of her position, on which the author dwells so lovingly, is to us a thoroughly unpleasant spectacle. An habitually pre-occupied child is likely to be an unhappy one, and an unhappy one—although, like Mr. Dickens's Little Nell, she may never do anything naughty—is certainly little more than an instrument of pathos. We can conceive of nothing more pernicious for a child than a premature sense of the seriousness of life, and, above all, of that whole range of obligations to which Miss Grace Leigh is so keenly sensitive—the obligations of charity, the duties of alms-giving. Nothing would tend more to make a child insufferably arrogant than the constant presence of a company of pensioners of its own bounty. Children are essentially democratic, and to represent the poor as in a state of perpetual dependence on them is to destroy some of their happiest traits.

But there is a great deal in these pages which is evidently meant for the parents of the little boys and girls who read them. There is, for instance, the episode of the conversion of Mrs. O'Brien from elegant carelessness, and heedlessness of her opportunities for beneficence, to an ingenious and systematic practice of philanthropy. We have no doubt that many idle women with plenty of money may derive considerable profit from the perusal of Mrs. O'Brien's story. And there is a great deal more which they may find equally entertaining and instructive—many a forcible reminder of the earnestness of life, and of the fact that by taking a friendly interest in their cooks and housemaids, and bestowing kindly words and thoughts as well as loaves and purses upon the inhabitants of tenement-houses, they may diminish the sum of human misery. We agree with the author that there is a wise way of giving alms as well as a foolish one, and that that promiscuous flinging of bounty which saves the benefactor all the trouble of enquiry and of selection is very detrimental. But, in our opinion, it is especially detrimental to the active party. To the passive one—the pauper—it is of comparatively little importance whether assistance is given him intelligently or not. We should say, indeed, that the more *impersonally* it is given, the better for both parties. The kind of charity advocated with such good sense and good feeling in these pages, is as good as any charity can be which is essentially one with patronage. To show that patronage may be consistent with humility has been—practically, at least—the author's aim. In the violet-tinted atmosphere of Miss Winifred Bertram's world, this may be so, but hardly, we conceive, in the daylight of nature. Such books as these—books teaching the rich how to give—should always carry a companion-piece showing the poor how to take. The objects of the enlightened charity practised in these pages are invariably very reasonable as well as very sentimental. A little wilfulness, a little malice, a little blockheadedness, a little ingratitude, and the position of the alms-dealer becomes very ungraceful; and Miss Winifred Bertram's companions are nothing if not graceful. As a serious work, accordingly, we do not deem this account of them very strong. As an exhibition of a very beautiful ideal of life by a person who has felt very generously on the subject, it deserves all respect; but we cannot help feeling that religion and human nature, and good and evil, and all the other objects of the author's concern, are of very different aspect and proportions from those into which she casts them. Nevertheless, her book may be read with excellent profit by all well-disposed persons: it is full of incidental merit, and is uncommonly well written. Little girls, we suppose, will read it and like it, and for a few days strive to emulate Grace Leigh. But they will eventually relax their spiritual sinews, we trust, and be good once more in a fashion less formidable to their unregenerate elders.

STEVENS'S CENTENARY OF AMERICAN METHODISM.*

The history of Methodism is a record of the most marvellous activity and the most extended success. It began in England at a time when the very existence of Christianity seemed to be seriously threatened; when the Protestant churches appeared to be dying from sheer inanity; when its friends and clergy were ridiculed, and its utter falsity seemed almost taken for granted. True, there were a few who had not bowed the knee to Baal. Some of these were men of rare endowments and sincere piety, but they seemed like mere waifs amidst the fragments of the general wreck. What was wanted was a real spiritual power, entering into the very depths of the national life, quickening the conscience, bringing home the dormant sense of the *divine*, and applying the truths of Christianity as a remedy for human ills.

This want was most singularly met in the rise of Methodism. The real founders of the great rejuvenation were John and Charles Wesley and George Whitefield. At Oxford these, with others, showed what might be called ascetic tendencies, in the formation and proceedings of the well-known "Holy Club." They led austere, self-denying lives; and met frequently for prayer, mutual counsel, and study of the Scriptures. But all these things still left English unbelief untouched. In this merely ascetic form their

* "The Centenary of American Methodism: A Sketch of its History, Theology, Practical System, and Success. Prepared by order of the Centenary Committee of the General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church. By Abel Stevens, LL.D." With a statement of the plan of the Centenary Celebration of 1866. By John McClintock, D.D. New York: Carlton & Porter. 1865.

lives were not the needed power. This was only a preparatory stage, in which they were being fitted for a further step—to become the receptacles and bearers of a vital force which should quicken the dead mass. It is a strange fact, which the student of history and of mind will do well to note, that the Wesleys and Whitefields only began to move and reform the English masses after they themselves had passed through a certain and similar religious experience. Upon an honest belief in the Bible and a scrupulous performance of every duty, there supervened a new fact, what to them was a new life, an assured sense of divine favor. Wesley expressed it by saying that at a certain time he "felt his heart strangely warmed, and that an assurance was given him that his sins had all been taken away."

With this phase of their inner life, the Wesleys and Whitefields began their work. The new apostles gathered crowds to hear them in every nook and corner of England; the whole island trembled with excitement, both hostile and friendly; and multitudes of the people forsook their evil courses and became orderly, upright, and religious.

The origin of the denomination in this country was somewhat different from its first rise in England. The Wesleys and Whitefields were men of culture. Whitefield was, perhaps, never surpassed by any man in effective eloquence; and both the Wesleys were graduates of Oxford. The planters of the new sect in this country were quite unlearned. Barbara Heck and Philip Embury, who formed the first Methodist society in America, had nothing in common with the Wesleys except the new experience. They had passed through the Methodistic fire; they, with their leaders, had experienced that strange "warming of the heart" which to Wesley came along with assurance. Around precisely that point gathered the Methodistic power. That wanting, learning was naught; that possessed, learning was not necessary. It only required good plain sense in these two persons to tell the story of their inner life as it had been developed under the Wesleyan teaching. They told it, and organized into a church the receptive hearers of their story. Hence American Methodism, with its century of strange scenes, its tireless work, and wonderful success.

We cannot here mention many of the distinguished names of the denomination; we must content ourselves with one—namely, Francis Asbury. If he did not first plant Methodism in the New World, he at least replanted and developed it. Under his vigilant eye it grew from a mere "reed, shaken by the wind," into a tree, sheltering, at the time of his death, seven hundred travelling preachers and between two and three hundred thousand members. He rode over the continent on horseback, with little regard for distance or fatigue. His life was crowded with work, until the very hours seemed to lag; he had no time to marry, no time for intentional recreation; but little need of human sympathy or human counsel or close social intercourse. He was frank as light, and yet reticent and mysterious. His appearance was stern, but covered a restrained and gentle humor which knew how to disclose itself upon any fitting occasion. He was the bishop of a continent, and yet the elder brother of his flock; he had the power of a king, and used it like a father. Under his labors and rule the denomination grew with a rapidity which seemed almost necessarily to imply and foretell early and disastrous collapse, and yet when he died it seemed only to plume itself for loftier flights and to aim for still broader conquests.

The statistics of Methodism now, considering the period of its life in the country, are remarkable in a very high degree. It far outstrips all the other Protestant sects, both in the number of their churches and of their communicants. Its missionary collection for the last year rose above half a million of dollars; its missionaries are numerous both at home and abroad; and its contribution to the ranks of the Union army is estimated by Dr. Stevens at 100,000 white and 75,000 colored soldiers. Such, too, is the vigor of the denomination that they came out of the war appropriating $1,000,000 to home and foreign evangelization, and resolving to raise several millions more during the centenary year for education and for other purposes in the church.

When this success is looked at, and deliberately compared with that of other ecclesiastical bodies, we naturally begin to ask for the reason of the difference. Where lies its peculiar power, its secret? This has sometimes been sought in its peculiar organization, especially in its itinerant ministry and its love-feasts and class-meetings. But these are its mere instruments, outgrowths, expressions of its inherent energy. It was, indeed, natural that a power such as Methodism has demonstrated itself to be should project a system of means suited to the intensity of its life and the rapidity of its movements; but this machinery is no more its power than pistons and cranks are the power of the locomotive. At other times the power of Methodism has been sought especially in its doctrines. But it has, in fact, no peculiar doctrines. It teaches, indeed, and lays stress on Christian perfection, and yet in the same breath denies and rejects sinless perfection. It holds a universal atonement, and so do other Protestant sects; it believes in the doctrine of assurance which the early reformers also held, and which is substantially accepted by several other of the modern churches.

Its power and secret lie not in the doctrine held, but in the manner of apprehending it. The genuine Methodist preacher of the Wesleyan or Whitefieldian type had but little thought of creed or catechism as such. With him definitions were translated into fiery convictions. In his own experience he had *felt* sin rather than defined it, and, when he came to preach about it, he had no thought of a treatise or discourse, but aimed only to show its "exceeding sinfulness." So, too, when his hearers yielded to his sturdy blows, and cried for mercy, if he attempted at all to define the process of conversion, it was only in the interests of an actual and pressing want; he cared but little for the case he made out, if he could only see in the burdened and struggling soul the dawn of the new spiritual consciousness. He preached faith when he did not and could not explain it.

The difference between the early Methodists and other religionists, therefore, lay not in what they believed, but in the way they believed and in the way they felt. They trembled at sin as if it had been a second fearful personality confronting them in the human soul; they were as well assured of pardon as of existence; heaven seemed to them no further off than the neighboring hill-tops. Their feeling was therefore intense, and the word *feeling* gradually came to express their whole spiritual state. This, of course, might easily run into abuse, and sometimes did. It was not the doctrine of Methodism that overcame, but the blaze in which it was wrapped; it was not the itinerancy that raised up the new people; a vapid orthodoxy on the itinerant's horse would have deepened the popular slumber; it was experience that set heart and doctrine on a flame, and out of the fire was born a conquering organization. The true power of Methodism lay precisely in that strange "warming of the heart" of Wesley, which for substance was the same in all Methodists, however variously expressed. To tell this, to watch it, to conserve it, to spread it, cultivate it, deepen it, and make it the all of life, was the work of Methodism.

It is true that much of this glow and confidence has entered into other sects, and doctrinal differences are falling before its advances. Yet the great characteristic of Methodism still remains, and reveals itself in its stateliest churches. They cannot sing their old hymns without giving a ring of warmth to both the prayer and the sermon which follows it.

This peculiarity of *Methodism* has, no doubt, greatly contributed to its remarkable catholicity. Experience, not forms or doctrines, became the keystone of its arch, and Calvinist and Arminian, on this principle, came together most lovingly. Wesley himself found piety worthy to be printed for the benefit of his own people in Roman Catholics and even in Unitarians. For entrance into his societies he required only the condition of "a desire to flee the wrath to come, and be saved from sin;" and these societies, grown into churches, now mingle freely with all evangelical bodies where sectarian exclusiveness does not repel advances.

The period for the more complete consolidation of Methodism is now opening. Whether or not the great educational schemes of this denomination and the spirit of other churches will modify it injuriously or beneficially is hard to say; that will greatly depend on the wisdom and goodness of those who give tone to its advancement. Dr. Stevens's book is a revelation to the outside world; its style is warm and bright, remarkable at once for suppleness, vigor, and beauty.

FROTHINGHAM'S LIFE OF WARREN.*

GIBBON tells us that whenever he was about to read a new book, he first turned over the subject in his own mind, in order to bring together what he already knew of it, and thus prepare himself to form a just idea of what he might learn from the new volume. This rule of the great historian is also the best rule for the critic in approaching all that class of works which undertake to add to our knowledge of facts, principles, circumstances, or character. Works of imagination, like works of mere amusement, require a different test; but history—and biography is history from an individual point of view—has no claim to our attention unless it add, either by freshness of form or novelty of matter, to what we had already learnt from other sources. For every work that does this there is room in every library; the many that daily fail to do it, we commend, in all sincerity, to the trunk-maker and the grocer.

In applying this test to Mr. Frothingham's "Warren," it can hardly be necessary to tell the American reader that of all the names in our history there is none that stands so high as Warren's with so narrow an historical

* "Life and Times of Joseph Warren. By Richard Frothingham." Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1865. 8vo, pp. 558.

basis. It is the first that springs to our lips when we would speak of Bunker Hill; it is closely associated with the uprising at Lexington and Concord; it meets us twice on the anniversaries of the Boston massacre; and it is constantly present with an indistinct and mystic grandeur through the eight years of intellectual warfare which preceded the first shedding of blood in battle. But of the words which he wrote and said, of the ideas and principles which he enforced or developed, of the methods by which his influence was won, and the manner in which he exerted it, history hitherto has told us so little that it has hardly been possible to form any definite idea of him either as a public or a private man. Eliot, his contemporary biographer, has given him but five pages; his latest but eighty-five, of which forty are devoted to his three orations. Out of Everett's ninety duodecimo pages fifty-five are given to Bunker Hill. Had he fallen in repulsing the foraging party at Grape Island instead of falling after twice helping repulse the best troops of the English army at Bunker Hill, although his coolness and intrepidity were the same on both days, what would have been his place in history? "Il ne suffit pas d'être grand homme, il faut venir à propos." Never was historical *à propos* more perfect than Warren's. He died on a great day, and history, without pausing to take note of his life, classed him unhesitatingly among those who are made great by death.

It is from this unsatisfactory though brilliant position that Mr. Frothingham has undertaken to remove him, assigning him a definite place among his fellow-laborers and connecting his name by documentary evidence with that series of wise, bold, and consistent measures by which resistance gradually passed from the pen to the sword. We hasten to add that we think he has, in a great measure, accomplished this difficult task, and that, in bringing Warren nearer to us as a man, he has taken nothing from him that belonged to him as a hero.

The materials for a life of Warren, although less complete than they might easily have been made had any of his fellow-laborers told us all that they knew about him, are still sufficient to confirm his claim to the prominent place which has always been accorded him. The records of the various public bodies of which he was a member have been carefully preserved, and in these his name meets us on every important committee. Frequently, too, the communication between these and other similar bodies was in writing, and the pen was placed in his hands so often that it is impossible not to acknowledge that he had fully won the confidence of his colleagues. Many of his private letters, also, have been preserved, and in these, his thoughts flowing with the freedom wherewith thoughts naturally flow in the intercourse between friends who have the same interests and the same objects, he unconsciously gives us the measure both of his statesmanship and of his feelings. But the speeches and debates of the time have not been preserved. The newspaper reports and official records are provokingly and often puzzlingly meagre. Yet, by a patient and thorough examination of them all, Mr. Frothingham has been enabled to follow Warren, for the first time, from meeting to meeting, from committee to committee, establishing in one place his claim to the authorship of important official papers, in another to the composition of spirited essays which passed rapidly and at the right moment from hand to hand in the columns of the Boston *Gazette*. From these sources he has derived sufficient confirmation of all that had been told and believed of his subject as a public man. In these laborious researches Warren gradually passes from a brilliant myth to a distinct historical reality, losing by the transition nothing of that moral grandeur which has always raised him so far above the men of selfish aims, of that tender halo which, from the day of his death, has surrounded him as "the first great martyr" of the Revolution. As a material contribution to our knowledge of facts, Mr. Frothingham's "Warren" deserves a prominent place in the library of American history.

Yet there are some things wanting in it which we would have much desired to find in the life of such a man. It is impossible to look upon Warren's portrait without feeling a sadness and a longing gradually steal over you as if you were looking upon features which you had known in life. Its oval is of that just proportion which takes at a glance and satisfies the eye. It is neither too long nor too broad, but both above and below forms lines wherein strength and gentleness are suggestively blended. You could hardly add to the open forehead or take from it without disturbing its harmonious relation to the softly rounded chin. There might have been something of coldness in the firm outline of the Grecian nose but for the sweetness that rests upon the lips and beams from the eye. And as you gaze you feel that there is a warm, earnest, tender human soul looking through these features; you feel that, where great thoughts are to be uttered or great things to be done, those gentle eyes may flash with indignation, those calm lips curl with ineffable scorn or tremble with conviction; and that, underlying all that gentleness and sweetness, there is no common force of will, but strength to love a noble cause and die for it.

Now, we could have wished that Mr. Frothingham had followed up the line of enquiry which Warren's portrait suggests, and tried to tell us more at length what kind of a man he was among his friends and by his own fireside. We have great faith in biography, and believe, with our great poet, that when it is worth writing at all, it is worth writing fully. Although but the instrument of a higher power, man is still a conscious instrument, laboring by force of will; seldom, indeed, reaching his own aims, but always the faithful representative of the aims and relative position of his age. And if invention of character is one of the greatest gifts of the poet, delineation of character should be held one of the choicest distinctions of the historian. Livy's "pictured page" has been the delight and marvel of eighteen centuries. Even in his own day, one of his readers is said to have gone from Spain to Rome in order to look upon his face, and, having seen him, to have returned home without caring to see anything more of the wonders of the great city. But Livy's marvellous strength is in the painting of character, and in this he can hardly be called second either to Homer or Shakespeare. Rome lives through him with a freshness and fulness of moral power which makes her great names as familiar to-day as they were in the day of her physical power. Curiosity, therefore, about the lives of great men seems to us one of the most laudable forms which that stimulant of enquiry can take. It springs directly from human sympathy, and leads directly to juster and kinder appreciations of our fellow-men, strengthening our heads for action and our hearts for endurance and our minds for the acceptance of truth. But to work this good we must be brought near by it to man as man, and allowed to see all the traits which we have in common with him as well as the peculiar characteristics whereby he is raised above us. Now, with all that he has added to our knowledge of Warren, Mr. Frothingham has failed to give us that intimate knowledge of him which is essential to a perfect delineation. It is probable that the materials for doing it fully were wanting; still we feel that he might have done somewhat more towards it.

The general literary execution of the work is good. The style, though neither very graceful nor very warm, is clear and manly. Mr. Frothingham knows what he wants to say, and says it distinctly and directly. He is happiest, perhaps, in narration. The stories of "The Boston Massacre" and "The Boston Tea Party" are told with great richness of detail and true narrative power. We have here and there found some questionable rhetoric, such, for example, as the *rushlight and the sun*, on page 216; and occasionally, also, an approach to declamation, rendered all the more noticeable by the general level of style from which it rises somewhat too abruptly to satisfy a rigorous taste. We prefer his own declamation, however, to that of Mr. Knapp, which adds nothing to the distinctness of our conceptions or the warmth of our feelings. Indeed, we are not a little surprised that so good a scholar and so accurate an historian as Mr. Frothingham should have overlooked, for the sake of Mr. Knapp's Fourth of July rhetoric, such a blunder as this: "Tully poured the fiercest torrent of invective when Catiline was at a distance and his dagger no longer to be feared." Sallust tells us, "Tum Marcus Tullius consul, sive præsentiam ejus timens, seu ira commotus, orationem habuit luculentam atque utilem reipublicæ, quam postea scriptam edidit." We had always supposed this oration to be the first Catilinarian, second for fierce invective to none that the great orator ever pronounced; and as to the dagger, Sallust also tells us of Catiline, "Ipse cum telo esse, item alios jubere."

This is Mr. Frothingham's second contribution to our Revolutionary history. His "Siege of Boston" has become a work highly esteemed for accuracy and extent of research. The "Life of Warren" will take equal rank for the same reason, and we believe that the author is still young enough to justify us in looking for some future volume to bear them company in the same rich and useful field.

A GOBLIN ROMANCE.*

THIS is a goblin romance, indeed; the most goblin, we think, that we ever read. It concerns a maiden who was spirited away by fairies, in Ireland, and left her lover to die. It is not a long story, and yet it takes a good while to tell it in verse. It begins with a weird picture of twilight, when all the natural objects contribute to the beauty of descriptive writing, and even among the grass

> "The dry stems wheeze a tiny pipe,
> To show they wakeful lie;
> As urchins mumble unknown type,
> When pedagogue struts by."

About this time in the evening the youth and maiden of the romance made

* "Eva: A Goblin Romance. By John Savage." New York: James B. Kirker, 1865.

love to each other, the youth having suffered physical torments from the glance of the maiden's eyes:

"Eyes of such unearthly light,
Though dark as ever wrought,
By heavens! they twist me as a sprite
Though I but see in thought.
Much more they twisted you poor soul,
The brave youth at her side."

Surviving, the youth sang a song concerning a true lover who

——"gazed on his love as martyr would
On the hope that raised his soul,
And his eyes to her rolled as the halo should
Round the head of the Virgin roll."

Won by the appeal, the maiden confesses her tenderness for the youth:

"My heart is throbbing like the sea,
And could sea span the skies above,
I feel its vast immensity
Could not cradle half my love."

The maiden's confession roused the ghosts in the old church near which they stood, and the spectres all united in a goblin merry-making, led on by the immortal part of a remorseless baron, who in life

——"had been known to brag
The number of vassals he clove with his mace;
And he took less delight racing after the stag
Than he did in staying the human race."

As for the phantoms of certain unfaithful wives, when the

"'Yes' from Eva's mouth
Proclaimed youth Kevin's bride
All swirled, as though the grapes of the south
Were gurgling their skulls inside."

One of the greatest rogues among the fairies was Thatchet, and when the fairies assembled to plot the abduction of Eva

"Thatchet sneaked off in the crowd
Under the wing of a fly,
And he tickled the fly's kind shroud,
For tears came in laughter's eye."

The fairies sang with the voice of the lover (in order to lure and bewilder the maiden) a love-song, of which the burden, frequently repeated, was:

"Not in fields of clover,
Neither in the bower,
Nor by rushing rover,
But *here*, at this hour."

Then the fairies, triumphing in their cruel deceit, exulted and sang:

"From the prismal—sunlight glory,
To the dismal—caves of earth;
From the flood-god's—Sagas hoary,
To the wood-god's—give us mirth!"

The poor, forsaken youth, coming, ignorant of his loss, to greet his love, chides his heart for its rapture:

"Ah! happy me! O proudest one!
Restrain thy throbbing side,
It swells amain with radiant pain,
Till comes thy radiant bride."

His death shortly follows. On the whole the poem is wildly original, and reads like the production of a man who was not friends with his printer: say the production of a Mahony Fenian put in type by a Roberts Fenian.

THE MAGAZINES FOR FEBRUARY.

We suppose the droll people who have been shocked at the publication of extracts from "Hawthorne's Note-book" will renew their dismay over the present number of the "Atlantic," for these extracts are continued in it, and form, by all odds, the most attractive paper of the magazine. We find them of singular value, both as means of knowing the literary methods of Hawthorne, and as a study of that part of his life with which his admirers have a right to be acquainted. The extracts are made with taste and tact, and contain nothing to wound the sensibilities of those most jealous of the great romancer's "sacred riches of private reputation." The passages given in the February "Atlantic" are somewhat longer than those of the preceding number, and have rather the character of entries in a diary than of jottings in a note-book. They tell of a visit made at a friend's house near the Canadian border of Maine, and abound in sketchy descriptions of the half-French, half-Irish population of the region. There is a French language-master who is presented much as he would have been in one of Hawthorne's romances, if the author had spoken of him in the person of Miles Coverdale. The pictures of natural scenery are *more* Hawthorne: a thought or emotion lurking in every part of the landscape, as in those caprices of Kaulbach's where the woods and fields are full of human faces. —We have found the quietude and gravity of Rossetti's "English Opinion on the American War" rather too much for our interest, but there is no doubt that the paper is written candidly, and if Americans have not ceased altogether to care about English opinion, good or bad, concerning the war, many will find it profitable to read Mr. Rossetti's paper to the end.—It is a good notion to print "The Freedman's Story" just as the freedman wrote it, and the story happens to be interesting, which is better.—"A Landscape Painter" is a very charming love-story indeed, written with grace and spirit.—Whittier's poem, "Two Pictures," is scarcely worthy of him. There are many beautiful lines in it, but the story is not well told. The moral, however, is the grain of sand which breaks the reader's back. The poem teaches that if young ladies marry apparently poor young men for love, they are very likely to find them rich after all.—As for "Riviera di Ponente," the less we say about that poem, the better for the poet. It is rhyme of a revery at Nice, and deals with the past and present in such dreamy fashion as conveys little idea of either scenery or history, and imparts scarcely a sentiment of time or place to the most receptive reader. Besides, it is full of such rhymes to Riviera as fairer, sharer, air are—rhymes utterly inadmissible, unless, indeed, the reader cherishes the provincial vulgarism of omitting to enunciate the letter *r*. Let us write one stanza of the poem, with printing to suit the pronunciation and meet the requirements of prosody:

"There black waw-ships doze at ancha, in the bay of Villa-Franca;
Eagle-like, grey Esa, clinging to its rocky pe'ch, looks down;
And upon the mountains dim, wearied, shattehed, ste'n and gwim,
Tu'bia sees us through the ages, with its auste'e Roman frown,
While we climb, where coola, rara
Breezes sweep the Riviera."

—One is glad, in "Griffith Gaunt," to be assured (though of course one knew it from the first) that neither Griffith nor Neville was killed in the duel; but the story leaves off, as before, at a point most distressing to the reader. It is droll to find Reade quoting Artemus Ward, and calling him "Artemus the delicious."

In "Harper's Magazine" "An International Affair" is concluded, and it is decided that the fiction is both a love-story and a horse-story. The American hero wins the Englishman's beloved, and the American's mustang beats the Englishman's thorough-bred. The story is well told, and its hints on horsemanship are no doubt valuable.—The magazine opens with a highly illustrated paper on the "Hospital of the Insane at Blackwell's Island," which is professedly written by a gentleman lately under treatment there for lunacy. It is full of amusing sketches, which we doubt the justice of printing. The author may urge his late disorder in extenuation of the error committed, but what has the editor, who cannot plead insanity, to say in defence of publishing pictures and histories of the unhappy people whose infirmities certainly render them interesting to science, but do not justly make them material for magazine literature?—The poetry of the number seems to us rather better than usual.—There is a very interesting and instructive paper, illustrated, on "Diamonds and other Gems," which tells something of the manner of cutting precious stones, and recounts the history of famous gems.—The "Editor's Easy Chair" is the most attractive part of the magazine to us, and in the present number we think it delightful. One may always turn to it with the certainty of finding some interesting topic of manners or morals discussed with exquisite grace and faultless good-breeding.—"The Monthly Record of Current Events," which has been such a valuable feature in "Harper's," is much extended, and will contain a résumé of the Congressional proceedings.

The second number of "Beadle's Monthly" impresses us favorably enough with the character of a magazine which does not aspire, we suppose, to take a place in the first-rate periodical literature. It is illustrated after the manner of "Harper's," and it seems to us that the illustrations are as well conceived and executed as those of the magazine named. In the February number we observe that five out of eleven papers are illustrated: one of these is a poem, and another is one of those articles made up from new books which have heretofore been the monopoly of "Harper's." The quality of the prose in "Beadle's Monthly" is strictly second-rate, and there is nothing in the poetry to put the prose to shame. We think the best paper in the number before us is that on "William of Orange," and the best poem is the "Ballad of the War."

A very pleasant magazine article is that on "The Struggle in Tyrol," with which "Hours at Home" opens. It acquaints us easily and entertainingly with the life and character of a people concerning whom most of our ideas are from picturesque tradition and conventional sentiment, rather than actual knowledge; and it recounts the events of a still existing struggle in the Tyrol between the modern Protestant spirit and the Catholicism of the Middle Ages. The writer describes the Tyrolese as a people of pure and diligent life, devoted with entire sincerity to their ancient faith and to their

Kaiser, and their priests as men of unselfish and benevolent purposes toward all within the pale of the church, but merciless bigots and unsparing of heresy. The Tyrol united with great unanimity, in 1861, to demand of the Austrian Government the withdrawal of the Protestant rights of residence and free worship, and the Diet voted to petition a law from the Kaiser, forbidding Protestants to hold real estate or form parishes in the Tyrol. The Imperial Government has evaded compliance with this petition, the courts have been obliged to decide in favor of the Protestants, and the Tyrol continues agitated by this curious struggle of bigotry to assert a supremacy which long ago passed out of the hands of the church.—Mr. Wm. Swinton, who had the best opportunities of studying the *morale* of our army, contributes some notes on the religious sentiment of the Union forces, from which it appears that as a general thing they differed in habits of parlance from "our army in Flanders." These notes are interesting and valuable, for they are testimony from an intelligent observer to the high character of the troops with whom God was not alone because their battalions were strongest.

The "Boston Review" for the present quarter has certain spirited and timely articles, of which the greater number are of a theological character, but of which some discuss secular topics. We have rather relished the exposure of a "Fraud in Authorship," wherein S. Emma E. Emonds, "nurse and spy in the Union army," is shown to be also a sad plagiarist and a person of exceedingly doubtful veracity. "George Fox" is an article which will attract those interested in a now waning sect:

> "The old order changes and the new succeeds,
> And God fulfils himself in many ways."

Quakerism is passing, but we must all respect it and honor it as one of the most effective agencies for good ever known, and we may read the history of its creation with edification even in a time which requires no such protest against its sins.

The Life and Public Services of Andrew Johnson. Including his State Papers, Speeches, and Addresses. By John Savage. (Derby & Miller, New York.)—In comparing this biography with Mr. Frank Moore's, which we noticed on another occasion, we do not perceive that it possesses any decided superiority. It is more minute and extended, but it presents very few new facts, and the old ones are brought out or slurred over very unskilfully for a partial and would-be laudatory narrative, or very uncandidly if a simple fidelity to truth was the aim of Mr. Savage. Mr. Johnson's hostility to the right of petition in the days when John Quincy Adams defended it, almost alone, in Congress, was a fact which would naturally have suggested an apology to the biographer of a Democrat *par excellence*. At the least, he might have let it pass without comment. Mr. Savage is at the pains to say of a certain speech by Mr. Johnson, in reply to Mr. Adams, that it "was characterized as a highly creditable effort." So it is rather awkward to revive at this day Mr. Johnson's naïve avowal with regard to our war with Mexico, that it must have been just, "or it never could have been crowned with such unparalleled success." For the comment is too ready, that the success of that war was a large part of the success of the rebellion, which, for the rest, by Mr. Johnson's rule, must either have been half right or right half the time. In Mr. Moore's biography every speech is reproduced entire; in Mr. Savage's, scarcely in a single instance is this the case. The sentence in which Governor Johnson offered himself to be the Moses of the colored people of Tennessee, is alone preserved from the famous Nashville speech of October 4, 1864. As for rhetoric, Mr. Savage tells of the "Greenville debating society, hugged in the romantic grasp of the Alleghany and Cumberland Mountains," and, with some confusion of metaphors, how Mr. Johnson, "under the loving tutelage of his wife, soon wielded the pen and the slate-pencil; and these *doors* being open, she soon presented him at other *shrines* of useful knowledge." The book is well printed, and the steel portrait by Ritchie seems to us better than that by H. W. Smith.

The Works of the Right Honorable Edmund Burke. Revised edition. Vol. III. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston.)—Two-thirds of the present volume are occupied with Burke's "Reflections on the Revolution in France." Everybody knows that they were by no means favorable to the greatest overthrow of modern times. He could not conceive of a state of society so bad that it was easier to destroy and reconstruct than preserve and amend it; or, to use his own words, "how any man can have brought himself to that pitch of presumption, to consider his country as nothing but *carte blanche*, upon which he may scribble whatever he pleases." The right of a people to frame and administer its own government has become somewhat more respectable than it was when these words were written.

Naval Duties and Discipline. With the Policy and Principles of Naval Organization. By Lieut. F. A. Roe, U. S. N. (D. Van Nostrand, New York.)—This work is a familiar conversation on the topics indicated in the title, and lacks the dignity and precision of a treatise or a text-book. The author is very much enamored of the theory of naval organization, and grieved at the departures from it in our service. He himself, however, takes the liberty of departing from the accepted theory of English grammar too often; as when, for example, he says: "I had as soon think" (p. 81).

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Mind in Nature; or, The Origin of Life, and the Mode of Development of Animals. By Henry James Clark, A.B., B.S. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

A Concise Statement of the Action of Congress in relation to a Navy Yard for Iron-clad Vessels. New London, Conn.

Social Life of the Chinese. By Rev. Justus Doolittle. Two Vols.—A Third Reader. By Marcius Willson.—Half a Million of Money. By Amelia B. Edwards.—Guy Deverell. By J. Sheridan Le Fanu. Harper & Bros., New York.

A Light and a Dark Christmas. By Mrs. Henry Wood. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

Our National Finances. A Review of the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury. By a Patriot. Baker & Godwin, New York.

Miss Oona McQuarrie. A Sequel to "Alfred Hagart's Household." By Alexander Smith. Ticknor & Fields, Boston.

The Dragon of the Enchanted Valley. By Rev. O. C. Dickerson. Jacksonville, Illinois.

The War: Its Causes and Consequences. By C. C. S. Farrar, of Mississippi. Blelock & Co., Cairo, Memphis, and Paducah.

Mildred's Wedding. By Francis Derrick. Bunce & Huntington, New York.

Alcoholic Medication. By R. T. Trall, M.D. Miller, Wood & Co., New York.

Sadliers' Catholic Almanac and Ordo, for 1866. D. & J. Sadlier & Co., New York.

Old New York; or, Reminiscences of the Past Sixty Years. By John W. Francis, M.D., LL.D. With a Memoir of the Author, by Henry T. Tuckerman.—Poems Relating to the American Revolution. By Philip Freneau. With an Introductory Memoir and Notes, by Evert A. Duyckinck. W. J. Widdleton, New York.

Fine Arts.

FRENCH AND BELGIAN PICTURES ON EXHIBITION.

The more important and valuable of the pictures which Mr. Pilgeram has to show us in Tenth Street, and Mr. Knoedler in Broadway, seem to be—and, so far as we know the modern art of Europe, are—stray studies of a new and promising school of historical art. Now, it is not many years since there arose a doubt in the minds of those who cared for painting, whether there were any real historical painting or could be, and if so, then what it was or would be like. The fine arts of design had become very tiresome, from the way they had been practised, and people were impatient of them. Historical painting, having been the most pretentious and the least valuable, for half a century at least, of all the arts, was the most irritating and the least beloved. That so-called historical painting which sought to represent the past stood condemned of all readers of history as crude fancies of what the past might have been, reflecting entire ignorance of what it actually was. The truer historical painting which sought to represent their own time they had, indeed, but did not value nor call historical. It seemed to be written in the book of the future that the painters were to paint history no more, but landscapes and illustrations to the poets and domestic scenes—these last being historical, indeed, after a fashion, but not by themselves making a school of historical art.

But, while history was not to be painted, it began to be written as never before: with accuracy and research, and with an attention to minor details very much like what we expect of fine art. Arnold's description in words of the Roman army at Cannæ, how it looked before it joined battle and was destroyed; Motley's revivifying of the men of Ghent and Bruges in their habits as they lived; Macaulay's minute descriptions of the towns and lands through which his showy narrative was to march, are intellectual efforts which the painters could not but feel to be akin to their own work. It became difficult to keep all the painters away. Most of that trade were, indeed, only too willing not to undertake a task so formidable as painting true history of the past. But some were very ready to work at archæology and antiquities with the writers; the more heartily that the best materials at the disposal of either were rather the painters' than the writers' property in the first place—coins, painted vases, bas-reliefs, and miniatures in manuscripts. Here and there an artist has painted pictures which are really historical in the truth of both the greater and lesser details of scenes reproduced from past time; and the widely diffused and popular art of book illustration, harmful to art in some respects, has made possible a general familiarity with historical truth in art, and compelled the painters to avoid anachronisms under penalty of even popular ridicule.

Among those painters who have, with learning and sympathy, painted the history of the past, Leys, as we have seen, stands high. Nearly all his serious work has been unadorned relation of actual events, chapters from the history of the Netherlands, correlative to Motley's chapters. Not to make a selection of our own, take the list of his important works, to be found in Vapereau's "*Dictionnaire des Contemporains*," edition of 1858, article, *Leys:* out of twenty-three names of pictures, eight are of actual events, eleven of historical compositions, true illustrations of history (as "A

Marriage in the Seventeenth Century" and "An Execution in the Middle Ages"), four only are out of both these categories. And his mission now seems to be to paint the whole history of Antwerp, page by page, on the walls of her town-hall. Other things, like the studies in the Tenth Street gallery, and the larger pictures painted from them (in his own dining-room, we are informed, and not, as was hinted last week, in another's), are of little importance in estimating the nature and importance of his work.

It is to be believed that the careful and elaborate work of his pupils, Alma-Tadema, Lagye, Koller, and the younger De Braeckeleer, and of his French follower, Tissot, is meant but for thorough study, and that they, also, will bend their maturer energies to the true painting of history. If this is to be, since their work now is very good and promises much, they will, one and all, be excellent artists and excellent historiographers, if not historians in the largest sense. But, of course, we cannot wish them to go on for ever with such subjects as they now select. They can do better. Not that the pictures now in New York are uninteresting. M. Alma-Tadema's picture, for instance, No. 2 of the catalogue, "Congregation Entering Church," is worth a brief description for those who cannot see it. The spectator is supposed to be standing within the doorway of a Flemish Gothic church, facing the people who enter from the porch. There must be a screen behind us as we look, for the people do not come full toward us, but turn off to the right or left. We do not stand opposite the middle of the door, but to the right, and see all the pier on the right hand, and beyond it a cluster of people who are evidently gathered before a minor altar in a chapel. At our feet, level with the rich pavement of tiles on which we stand, are several monumental brasses. This is probably not one of the great Flemish cathedrals, but an important parish church, and this seems to be the western door we are observing. A holy-water font against the pier stops the people as they enter, but three or four have passed it and are nearer to us. A magnificent man is in the centre of the picture, clothed in a sweeping sombre robe, embroidered all over with a sort of design of quatrefoils, enclosing, alternately, his crest and a floral pattern, a sort of Phrygian bonnet on his head, a collar of some honorable order over his shoulders, and a huge rosary in his hand; a lady on the right, her head covered with an elaborately arranged hood of white linen, secured with a jewel, and falling on her shoulders and down her back, a dark upper cloak, and a superb dress of white, embroidered thickly with a rich flower pattern in brilliant colors, all the lines of her figure and drapery quiet and graceful; with her a little girl, whose long auburn hair falls loose, who holds a big rosary in her hand, and looks up, suddenly, as she enters, at the groined roof of the church, which we cannot see though she can—all these and half a dozen other figures, types of classes of mediæval man. This is admirable study. The selection of the dresses, the types of face, the action, the architecture, even, little as is seen of it, have been made with care and after investigation and according to deliberate choice. There is more of a similar but different kind of study in No. 4—"New Year's Presents"—in which there is delightful painting of an interior one might be glad to have reproduced in his study; the walls covered, above the wainscoting, with stamped and gilded leather hangings, a marble or scagliola door-frame with a shield of arms on the lintel above, a curtain across the door now drawn back, a richly-painted writing-table and embroidery-covered chair, a beautiful dress on a pretty young lady, and other good costumes to match, natural and easy action. These two pictures are charming, and come near being the gems of the collection. But we hope to see the learning, the skill in drawing, the good if not yet wholly delightful color, and the naturalness of conception which this painter's work shows, used on subjects of the first importance. It may be soon, for M. Alma-Tadema has made his name and a certain fame, having taken a medal at the Paris Salon of 1864, and being already the cause of much patriotic rejoicing to the Antwerp press.

M. Koller, a German, as his choice of subjects shows, has already tried serious history. One little picture of his is here, "Philippine Welser before the Emperor Ferdinand." Another was in the gallery, but was sold at the private view, a "Faust and Marguerite." They are delicate and refined in drawing, and the compositions are skilfully worked up, with plenty of care and study; but there is little expression and little charm of color in either. M. Lagye is very "archaic," as M. Chesneau would say. Certainly the quaintness of the resolute mediævalism is not yet, in his pictures, raised to high historical dignity or invested with any poetical charm. But the power, even the present power, and the promise of these men can only very imperfectly be estimated from the two pictures of each which are here, for we have never seen work of theirs before. M. Henri De Braeckeleer is a nephew of Baron Leys, a very young man as yet, a skilful painter already, and fond of a photographic accuracy of reproduction. Of the two pictures in the present collection, No. 13, "Interior of a Tailor's Shop, Antwerp," is the better, we think, because the subject, humble as it is, is really more interesting, and is treated with at least equal skill. The panorama of red-tiled roofs, seen through the window, is pleasant to those who think, as lovers of color ought, a red-tiled roof by itself a good subject for a picture. But in his faithful painting of the poor room and forlorn array of utensils and unfinished work, M. De Braeckeleer has found latent color and developed it. He has painted the copper vessels on the old chest with a skill worthy of Leys himself.

M. J. J. Tissot is quite well known here through his work, and highly esteemed, young man though he is and without the sacred endorsement of the French *jury*, which has not yet singled him out for reward. It is very fortunate that there is at Goupil's a recent and important picture by him, for his last picture here, the "Faust and Margaret in the Garden," was very faulty, as we had occasion to point out in a former article, and there is none by him in the collection in Tenth Street. "Un Tentatif d'Enlèvement" is the title of the present picture, badly paraphrased on the card appended to the picture as "The Duel." A high terrace occupies the foreground, on which the action takes place. A wooden trellised arbor occupies a part of it, and an ornamental piece of water with marble rim is in the extreme front; high trees form a background; a château is on the left in middle distance. It is a grey, lowering, autumn day, the fallen leaves scattered on grass and gravel. In the centre two combatants are engaged. A young lady with yellow hair, in a black gown of heavy stuff, terrified and trembling, stands on the left, partly leaning on the parapet of the terrace. We read the story thus: The elder of the combatants has brought his servants with him, and endeavored to carry off by force the young lady before us. The other gentleman—husband, brother, lover, or friend—has come upon the scene in happy time; he rushes past the lady, draws and lunges furiously at the would-be ravisher. He, an old hand, is cool and on his guard; he has thrown off his black domino and drawn, but still seeks, as if instinctively, to conceal his face, while he easily parries his antagonist's thrust in carte. The sword of the latter, turned aside, has glanced along a post of the arbor nicking off the paint, has caught in a moulding, and bends in an arch with the force of the lunge. The cowardly servants of the villain of this tragedy are off, over the terrace wall and away. The assailant's hat is thrown away, and out of it or with it flies an opened letter, probably the anonymous one which warned him of the attempted villany and brought him here in time. His little dog rushes furiously at the stranger. Every living thing in the picture, except the lady, is in rapid motion, and every line expresses it. There is stir enough here, well managed and dramatic. The skill and knowledge that go to the making up of such a picture will be very effective when the painter begins to do work that shall be wholly worthy of his power. We of course expect, as we have a right to, that he who can draw when he tries will not again exhibit such too visibly bad drawing as some of former years. Although his work seems to us lacking in much of the charm of color and the strength of imaginative conception which one or two of his contemporaries attain, it cannot fail to be valuable and interesting if worthily applied.

There is one recent picture by M. Gérome in the Tenth Street collection, "Muezzin Calling the Hour of Prayer: Evening, Cairo," a small picture and of simple subject. There is, also, a larger work in his earlier manner, dated 1852. No other of his is now on exhibition in New York. This is, therefore, not a favorable time to speak of his work, except in the most general terms. But his position as an historical painter is, in some respects, independent of his purely artistic power and accomplishment. Whether he is a great and true painter or not, he is assuredly a historian of great eminence and high rank. His historical work has been of two kinds: reproduction of a past age, and record of this, especially as he has found it in foreign and unfamiliar lands. In both, his careful choice of subject and thoughtful treatment of it have secured for him the attention of thoughtful people. But the success as intellectual efforts of his great designs from classic history, has, as yet, been unequalled by his more recent study in modern Egypt. Perhaps it never may; it is hard to imagine what pictures could be painted from subjects furnished or suggested by the Orient in 1857 to compare with the great compositions, satires at once and honorable tributes, which the modern Empire has offered through Gérome to the memory of its prototype. Modern France had tried before to honor the shade of ancient Rome, and had failed—witness, among many, M. Couture's "Romans of the Decadence," one picture among many without much meaning, worse than many of its kind in all artistic qualities. That picture was exhibited in 1847, and in the same collection with it was M. Gérome's first exhibited work, "The Cock-fight," still so well known by photographs. The old school of historical painting

achieved a characteristic failure in the former. M. Couture's huge picture, taking Juvenal's famous lines for text:

"Nunc patimur longæ pacis mala; sævior armis
Luxuria incubuit, victumque ulciscitur orbem,"

pretended to portray on one canvas the corruption and luxury of the later Empire. But the learning was insufficient, the antiquarianism false, the perception of antique character and beauty very imperfect; no part of the historical composition even approximately truthful except the architecture. And in artistic merit it was not more admirable, for even the drawing was faulty and the color monotonous and cold. In contrast with this came the severe and moderate little picture named above—just such a study of a would-be historian as we have said M. Alma-Tadema's pictures seem to be. Out of that little episode of the Greek boy exciting the birds to fight and the girl looking on, were to come the elaborate pictured histories of Greece and Rome, which the painter has since given the world.

"Ave Cæsar, Imperator, morituri te salutant."

In that motto, in the face of the emperor, in his name below, "Vitellius, Imperator," the women and courtiers near him, the ranged seats with the vast audience, the grouped gladiators on the sand, and the bodies of the slain which attendants drag away with hooks, there is the true spirit of the Romans of the Empire when not busy with conquest and organization, but relaxed in amusement. There is another side of that strange creation, the Roman character, in the "Death of Cæsar." And there is still another facet that flashes in the "Two Augurs." "Cato mirari se aiebat, quod non rideret haruspex, haruspicem quum vidisset." Cato said that he wondered how an augur could help laughing whenever he met an augur. These two augurs have met before the coops of the sacred chickens, and they cannot help laughing. This solemn farce is just as necessary to witness, if you would understand Rome, as the blundering patriotism and jealous selfishness of the murder of Cæsar or the heartily-enjoyed slaughter of the arena. In these and all the classical compositions of the painter, the completeness and elaboration are wonderful. The highest creative imagination, indeed, is not to be ascribed to him, but his power of discovery, of ascertaining the essential facts, is so great as to raise him almost to the rank of a truly imaginative artist.

The more recent works of Gérome, painted since 1857, and generally representing scenes of actual everyday occurrence in the East, are as carefully elaborated as the others. Several of these have been exhibited here, the highly finished and effective picture of the Cairene dancing girl, "L'Almée" (which is owned in New York), the "Prayer in the Desert," and now "The Muezzin." In this last-named picture the shadows fall very steeply for "evening," that is to say, sunset, the time of the Muezzin's evening call. The picture is very interesting. The quiet figure of the summoner to prayer, with his hands laid upon and just holding the slender railing, his head thrown back, and his face raised toward heaven as he chants the sacred words of the summons; this and the "dim rich city" far below, and the architecture of the minaret on which the figure stands, and which connects it with the world of men, harmonize perfectly, and make a picture which we cannot doubt is truly Cairene. Except from internal evidence we offer no opinion as to the accuracy of M. Gérome's account of Egypt; but he certainly has what M. Renan truly said Washington Irving had not, "un sentiment historique fort élevé," and he has had abundant opportunities for study. We find record of two voyages by him in the East, one before 1856 and one in 1856–7.

Space fails us to speak, as we should wish to, if at all, of several eminent and meritorious painters, particularly M. Edouard Frère, M. Plassau, and M. Heilbuth. The last-named is connected by his work with our present enquiry, for his principal pictures are of considerable historical value as well as interesting from their artistic merits. M. Plassau seems to have a love for and power over color not common in modern France.

But importation of European pictures has begun in earnest. Hereafter we shall have opportunities of seeing and studying good art in New York, and consequently less need of crossing the sea to seek it. There is comfort and help for the painters, also, in such importation, if they choose—danger as well; but we may be allowed to hope that the danger will be avoided and the good seized.

MUSIC.

CONCERTS OF THE WEEK.

THERE were three good concerts in New York during the past week, besides the matinées of Mr. Wehli. Mrs. Fanny Raymond Ritter gave a concert at Dodworth's Hall, on Tuesday evening, to an audience composed very largely of musicians, where all the music was good, but where the performance of Mrs. Ritter herself was below the level of that of her assistants. That is to say, she is not so good as a singer as Mr. Mills or Mr. Thomas are as players on the piano or violin. Her voice is moderately sweet and flexible and has good compass and power, but is not as sympathetic as Mr. Bergner's violoncello even, though her execution is equal and correct. She appeared to better advantage in the arias from Gluck and Händel than in her other selections. The arietta of Händel, "Lascia ch' io pianga," is interesting as well as beautiful. It is from the almost forgotten opera of "Rinaldo," the first work of Händel after his return from Italy, and said to have been written within fourteen days. The air itself is reported to have been originally a minuet written for some dance-music in Hamburg. There are three or four other airs in this once immensely popular opera that are well worth being hunted up and performed for their intrinsic worth as well as their curiosity. Messrs. Mills, Thomas, and Bergner played Schumann's second trio, Op. 80, for piano, violin, and violoncello. This was written in 1847, in Schumann's prime, and is more conventional in form and shows the influence of contrapuntal studies more than his first trio. It is in four movements, the second of which is very beautiful and finely worked up.

Messrs. Mills and Thomas also played the famous sonata, Op. 47, of Beethoven, dedicated to the celebrated violinist, Rudolph Kreutzer. This sonata, written in 1805, is almost a concerto, for the two instruments vie with each other throughout, not to display the skill of virtuosos, but in the full expression of their being. It demands two performers of equal knowledge and soul, and animated by one spirit. The rendering on this occasion left very little to be desired. Mr. Mills played as always, and Mr. Thomas, evidently stimulated by the presence of Mr. Rosa, did excellently. The effect was splendid. The whole sonata is a joyous dream, with its slow introduction in D minor, changing into the lively *presto* in A minor. The *andante* with variations breathes a more quiet devotional spirit of glad rest. The variations are singularly good, with the well-managed contrasts of the two instruments. The final *presto* in A major, which renews the feeling of the first part, was originally written for the first sonata with violin of Op. 30 There were besides two pieces of Chopin played by Mr. Mills, and the variations for piano and violoncello, Op. 17, of Mendelssohn, by Mills and Bergner.

Messrs. Mason and Thomas and their supporters gave the second of their eleventh series of soirées of chamber music on Wednesday evening. Slowly but surely these concerts are making themselves felt, and gradually a refined taste is spread by their influence. But they do not reach as wide a circle as they ought. There are many who are capable of appreciating such music as is performed here, and enjoy it when it is brought to them, who never make any effort to go to hear it. They are not sufficiently ardent to give up a party or some other place of amusement. Let such persons stay away if they choose, but let them subscribe, and give away their tickets to some cultivated friend whose purse is too small to gratify wishes and needs which are constantly enlarging with culture. The music on this occasion was the sextet in C, Op. 140, of Spohr; the trio of Schumann in G minor, Op. 110; and Beethoven's quartet in E flat, Op. 74.

The sextet, for two violins, two violas, and two violoncellos, was written just after the commencement of the revolutionary movements in Europe in 1848, at a time when Spohr, in common with the rest of Germany, was very much excited by the outbreak and fruition of the ideas of brotherhood and freedom. In entering the piece in his list of works he adds, "Written in March and April, at the time of the glorious revolution of the peoples for the liberty, unity, and grandeur of Germany." Something of this spirit of unrest is seen in the first and third parts, while the *larghetto* expresses his dream of peace, hope, and concord. Spohr is manifestly a musician of the second class, yet his works compare very favorably with those of the masters. They show, as this sextet does, a wealth of melody and thorough musical science, united to a good management of the instruments; but they seldom seem spontaneous, and rarely develop unexpected and, therefore, beautiful passages. We would gladly hear more of his works—an occasional symphony would not be uninteresting—and we should then recur with satisfaction to the old and new masters.

The trio of Schumann for piano, violin, and violoncello is a beautiful imaginative work, richer and better in every way than the second trio of which we spoke above. The *finale* displays humor which is not often seen in music of this character other than by Schumann, but which is rightly introduced here. The piece was written between October 2 and 9, 1851. It is a little singular that both this and the previous trio contain themes that are afterwards touched on by the author in his fourth symphony. We were not so much pleased with Mr. Mason's rendering of the piano part as we were with the playing of Mr. Mills. His musical feeling is exquisite, but he seemed to hesitate in his touch, and betrayed a want of practice, especially in the first movement.

Nothing better could be desired than the excellent and exact rendering that was given to Beethoven's quartet. The performers seemed animated with one soul, and seemed contained in one body. The first movement contains many beautiful and salient points; one passage of scales gradually increasing from four to twelve notes in each bar was very striking; another beautiful place is where the theme is played *pizzicato* by the violins, with a bowe daccompaniment of the other instruments, and then the reverse. The repetition of this and similar passages in this movement has given the piece the name of the "harp quartet." The *presto* was also very effective with its repetition of the principal part three times, and of the trio twice, ending in a transition to the *dndante*, which, without the variations, would be a sufficient and worthy *finale*. The variations are uninteresting, and seem appended merely to stretch the *finale* out to a proportionate length.

Of the Philharmonic Concert, on Saturday evening, we have only room to say that the chief and most interesting orchestral piece was the symphony by Berlioz, Op. 14, entitled "Une Episode de la vie d'un Artiste." Mr. Wehli played two solos for the piano. His playing is good technically, but tasteless, and he is incapable of performing the best kind of music.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, January 27, 1866.

GOLD has not varied much during the week. Most of the leading operators are bears, but the prevailing uncertainty with regard to the financial measure before Congress and the advance of the rate of interest on the other side have checked the decline. The lowest point touched during the week was 138¾, on Tuesday, and the highest 139⅞, to-day; this evening it closes at 139¾. Exchange continues to rule ½ to ⅝ per cent. below the point at which coin can be profitably shipped as a remittance. Considerable anxiety prevails in London on the subject of trade with the United States. A leading authority figures a balance of $40,000,000 in gold due Great Britain by the United States on the interchange of produce and merchandise during the year 1865, and argues that the merchants of this country must be indebted to the merchants of England in some such sum. The error in the reasoning is so obvious that it will soon be detected. If we owed Europe $40,000,000 in gold, exchange would not rule at 108½ to ⅝. It would be 109¾ to 110. The fact is, we have lately shipped so many 5-20 bonds to Europe at 65 to 67 in gold, and so much Erie, Illinois Central, and Michigan Central—to say nothing of Massachusetts State bonds and other State and county securities—that the balance of trade has turned in our favor instead of being against us. The difficulty in London is not, as the London *Times* intimates, that liberal British manufacturers are selling too many goods on credit to shaky American importers, but that far-sighted Englishmen are buying at 66 and 67 United States bonds which the same London *Times* warned them not to touch, on peril of ruin, at 35 to 40. American credit is beginning to be understood in Europe, and the natural consequence is that money is flowing to the point where it is worth most. Stout resistance is being made to the movement by the Bank of England and the other financial authorities of Great Britain. But unless they can convince their people once more that 5-20 bonds are not worth buying, their labor will be in vain. A further advance in the Bank rate to 10 or 12 per cent. has been predicted. This would gravely embarrass British trade and industry, and would put an end at once to speculation as well in United States as in all other securities. But it is not clear that it would induce *bona fide* holders of 5-20 bonds or Illinois Central shares to sell them, so long as interest on the one and dividends on the other are duly paid. It is argued in some quarters that the advance of the rate of interest must tell on the price of cotton. This will be the case if large quantities of cotton are held on speculation on the other side. At present, the European stock of American cotton is not far in excess of the actual wants of spinners, and is therefore beyond the influence of the money market. If, owing to financial pressure at home, our merchants should ship excessive quantities of cotton to the other side, a heavy decline in the price would become inevitable from the difficulty of borrowing money in England. But so long as our people can hold their cotton, and only ship moderately

it does not seem that the Bank of England can even affect the price of this staple.

Money continues easy. The rates are 5 to 6 per cent. on choice collateral, and 7 per cent. for first-class mercantile, paper. Some deposits have been made during the week in the Sub-Treasury at 6 per cent. No further action has been taken in Congress on the subject of the Morrill bill, but the impression gains ground that it cannot become a law in its present shape. A bill has been drafted by a committee of financial men in this city, among whom the late Sub-Treasurer, John A. Stewart, is said to have been prominent, which looks to the funding into a thirty-year 6 per cent. stock of all the 7.30 notes, interest-bearing legal tenders, debt certificates, and temporary deposits. This measure would enable the Secretary to clear the way for a real commencement of funding, and commands the approval of many good judges. It is, and, indeed, always has been, understood in this city (whatever may have been imagined in Washington) that no substantial reduction of the currency can be effected so long as Government owes money on short-date paper, of various denominations, which it has not the means of paying except by the negotiation of other securities. It may seem, at Washington, a feasible project to blow hot and cold at the same time. But at this, the financial centre of the country, it is well understood that Government cannot pursue two antagonistic policies simultaneously. It cannot contract the currency and at the same time negotiate loans. It can contract the currency, and thus reduce the price of everything, including Government bonds; but in this case it cannot negotiate new bonds. Or it can negotiate new bonds, and float them at a fair price, so as to absorb its troublesome short-date paper; but in this case it cannot contract the currency until it has completed its negotiations. It was reserved for the Committee of Ways and Means to suggest the simultaneous adoption of both policies: to make money dear, and at the same time to offer bonds which could only be negotiated in a cheap money market; to ask the people to give up their currency in exchange for other securities, and at the same time to leave them no currency to give up. Time will develop these little incongruities in the Ways and Means Committee's scheme, and the members of that Committee will doubtless be as ready to correct their errors as they were in the matter of the gold bill. It would be a saving of time and expense, to be sure, if a few constituencies somewhere in the United States would send to Congress members possessed of elementary notions on the subject of finance. But in the end even Mr. Stevens can be brought to admit that water cannot be made to run up hill.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, exchange, gold, and money markets:

	Jan. 20.	Jan. 27.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104	103¾	....	¼
5-20 Bonds, old	103¾	102⅞	....	⅞
5-20 Bonds of 1865	101¾	101¾	....	....
10-40 Bonds	92⅞	92⅞	....	....
7.30 Notes, second series	93¾	93¾	....	....
New York Central	92¼	91⅞	....	⅜
Erie Railway	87 ex d.	81½	....	5½
Hudson River	103½	101½	....	2
Reading Railroad	101¼	99¼	....	2
Michigan Southern	70	68¾	....	1¼
Cleveland and Pittsburg	84½	78¾	....	5¾
Chicago and North-western	31¾	28½	....	3¼
" " " Preferred	58	54¾	....	3¼
Chicago and Rock Island	102½	98¼	....	4¼
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	95¼	93½	....	1¾
Canton	44	44½	½	....
Cumberland	46¾	44½	....	2¼
Mariposa	14	13	....	1
American Gold	139	139¼	¼	....
Bankers' Bills on London	108½	108¾	¼	....
Call Loans	5	6	1	....

The feature of the week has been a general decline in prices. This has been more marked in high-priced, dividend-paying stocks than in the "light timber" of the Stock Exchange—an indication that the public are selling their stocks in anticipation of reduced dividends and increased activity in money. Thus, Illinois Central, which we do not quote in our list, as it is mostly held in England, has declined 10 per cent. in a fortnight, Michigan Central 6 per cent., and Toledo 10 per cent. In these stocks there is little or no speculation, and the decline arises from forced sales by real holders, who seek to realize, not from any tight money market, but from apprehensions of reduced dividends in the future. Reading, Rock Island, and Fort Wayne have likewise fallen considerably. The Reading receipts show no material variation in the business. But the Rock Island traffic—which was doubled by the closing of the Mississippi River during the war—is falling off at the rate of $25,000 a week, $100,000 a month, or $1,200,000 a year. If this decline continues, the stock may again sell below 50. Fort Wayne sold as low as 91½ last week, on a reported decline of over $100,000 in January. The Pittsburg corner culminated last Monday, and was the most successful affair of the kind ever known in Wall Street. The party bought 75,000 shares of the 100,000 in existence, and within a week sold them out at a profit of some $175,000. It need hardly be said that the great difficulty in corners is to dispose of the stock bought. Thus, the silly speculators who, a few weeks ago, cornered Prairie du Chien and forced up the price to 250, have got every share of the stock on hand now, and could not sell it at 45. The Pittsburg operators were smarter. Their purchases averaged less than 80 and their sales over 82. Certain smart individuals who got wind of the movement and bought above 80, have not yet sold out, and are fidgeting with the stock with a view to create the belief that it is not yet done with. But they can neither tempt the public to buy, nor, after their recent bitter experience of the stock, the bears to sell. A party is understood to have been made up in Michigan Southern with a view of cornering the shorts. But so loudly has the intended corner been proclaimed that most of the bears have taken fright in advance and bought in their shorts. The Erie party have not yet disposed of their stock, and whenever they attempt to do so, shrewd speculators, aware of their position and watching their movements, anticipate their sales. Thus, this afternoon the price was forced down to 81, against 97 only three weeks ago, by an attempt of the leading bull to dispose of a few hundred shares. New York Central is inactive and rather steady. The managers have no hesitation in confessing in private conversation that materials, labor, and taxes are so high, while fares and freights are so low, that the road is earning very little money indeed. A large quantity of the stock of the Chicago and North-western has changed hands during the week at a decline of 3 and 4 per cent. A similar decline has taken place in that other cheap and once popular fancy, Ohio Certificates. For the moment, in a word, railway stocks are out of favor with the public, and, notwithstanding a decline of 10 to 15 per cent. and very ingenious arguments in some of the morning papers in favor of a rise, people will not buy. This condition of things will not last for ever, of course; but there is no sign of a change as yet.

HOME

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Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

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For the past nine years the cash dividends paid to Stockholders, made from ONE-THIRD of the net profits, have amounted in the aggregate to

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Instead of issuing a scrip dividend to dealers, based on the principle that all classes of risks are equally profitable, this Company will hereafter make such cash abatement or discount from the current rates, when premiums are paid, as the general experience of underwriters will warrant, and the net profits remaining at the close of the year will be divided to the stockholders.

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TOTAL ASSETS	$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE constitutional amendment, as amended and passed last week, still fails to commend itself to our judgment, and, so far as we can see, to the common sense of the people. Its fate, meanwhile, is still doubtful, and a fair opportunity for considering its merits can be had by every Legislature to which it may come. The motives which induced the Republican opponents of the amendment to unite, most of them, with the majority on the final vote, are not clear. Perhaps it was simply an adhesion to the party; possibly the President's warning note excited the very opposition it was meant to intimidate. Neither reason was a good one. The amendment throws overboard the right of Federal military control in the conquered States, the right to regulate the suffrage there, and to make intelligence the qualification of suffrage. There seems to be a constantly strengthening popular demand that the last-named right should be exercised, if only for the sake of furthering the cause of education at the South.

SENATOR CHANDLER, of Michigan, has a grand plan for coercing England into payment of the *Alabama* damages, by putting an end to all commercial intercourse with her, and he declares he will keep urging it to his last hour. This scheme rises about to the level of Mr. Thaddeus Stevens's gold bill, which, as our readers may remember, that philosophical politician justified by appealing to the Middle Ages. If Senator Chandler will give himself the trouble to think and read a little on this great work of his life, he will find that he might as well try to dam up the Niagara as to stop commercial intercourse with any country with which intercourse will pay. Even if no American vessel were allowed to enter a British port, or a British vessel one of ours, trade would continue through the medium of some Continental country, if there was anything to be made by it. The thing has often been tried, and always with the same result. Every port in Russia was sealed up during the Crimean war, and yet there was little if any rise in the price of Russian commodities in the London market.

THE bill prohibiting the registry of any ship as an American vessel which during the war sailed under a foreign flag, has passed the House by a large majority. There was not a word said in favor of it except that it was a good way of punishing men who "deserted their flag" and filled their pockets with "British profits"—whatever that may mean. What service a man could render his country by having his ship burnt by a rebel privateer nobody explained. The fact is, that anybody who put a ship out of harm's way did serve the country very effectually. As regards the point of honor, it is easy for those to talk of it whose goods and chattels were all on dry land when Semmes was roving the seas. Why does not Mr. Thaddeus Stevens now bring in a bill for the punishment of all persons who, during the war, transferred their property to the English funds? They are far guiltier than the poor ship-owners, as they really did repudiate the protection of the United States Government, while the ship-owners asked for it in vain.

THE Seventh Regiment ball, of which so much was expected, was, the reporters to the contrary notwithstanding, a tolerably discreditable affair. The overcrowding was disgraceful, and converted the guests, at least at one period of the evening, into a disorderly mob. This result is now so common in all public entertainments given on a large scale, that it is assuming the proportions of a national scandal. The managers seem to have no sense of responsibility—we will not say of decency—about the number of tickets issued, and the consequence is that both ladies and gentlemen now go prepared for a personal struggle, many of the former, as is well known, wearing their old clothes, without the smallest expectation of playing their legitimate part by adding brilliancy to the scene, and with some fears of having their garments torn off their backs. This confusion has occurred now so often since large balls and receptions got to be the fashion, that it may seem hardly worth while to comment on it. But we are satisfied that the love of order and decorum and good manners is growing, and not declining in the community, and that if the public would only express its sense of these performances, the unscrupulous personages who issue tickets to twice as many persons as they are prepared to receive, with even common comfort, would be shamed into moderation. There is an art in getting up public entertainments. Won't some one or two men in each of the great cities cultivate it a little? The popular impression seems to be that when you have ordered an immense supper, a great deal of hangings and gas, and made a hole to put coats and hats in, you can bid the whole population take part in the feast. The street-cars are evidently producing their effect by developing a love of or indifference to crowding.

THE Chamber of Commerce last Thursday had urged upon them the importance of a scientific commission to China and Japan to study the agricultural economy of those countries. One argument was our want of information concerning the mode of crystallizing the products of sorghum. But according to the Rev. Justus Doolittle, whose book on the social life of the Chinese has just been issued by the Harpers, it is not in China that we may expect to obtain the desired instruction. He says:

> "The so-called Chinese sugar-cane, or sorghum, is grown very extensively in Northern China, and is known among foreigners as a kind of millet—*the Barbadoes Millet.* The Chinese name for it is *Kauliang.* . . . The Chinese do not express the juice from its stalks for the purpose of manufacturing molasses or sugar, and they manifest surprise when informed that such a use is made of it in the United States. They make a coarse kind of bread from the flour of the seeds of the Kauliang, eaten principally by the poorer classes. The stalks are used for fuel, for lathing in the partitions of houses, for slight and temporary fences, etc. . . . During a few years past, many enquiries have been made in regard to the manner in which the Chinese manufacture sugar and molasses out of the sorghum; but such information is vainly sought of them."

IN a lecture on the Indians in this city, last week, DR. D. J. Macgowan advocated the formation of an "Aboriginal Protective Society," whose special function should be to expose the frauds practised on the

Indians by the agents of the Government—frauds which, it is well known, have caused almost all the misery and provoked the bloody revenges of their victims. Such a society would, no doubt, accomplish a humane and much needed work, even if the better spirit in which the Indian question is now attempted to be solved pervades our new legislation. The plans to which we alluded in our recent articles on this subject are likely to be far better intended than executed.

THE diary of Congress which we publish from week to week is prepared at the Capital expressly for THE NATION, and in the most thorough and conscientious manner. To compress the essential proceedings of both Houses into such narrow compass, while aiming to secure perfect accuracy, is a task which requires much time, constant and careful attention, and no little labor; so that, in fact, it is very seldom attempted. Neither from the telegraphic reports nor from the summaries of the daily press can one ascertain with certainty the precise stage of business in our national legislature at the close of its day's or week's work.

SENATOR BROWN wants Congress to authorize the Post-office Department "to construct and operate telegraph lines along the principal mail routes," or otherwise to connect the mail service with telegraphic facilities. This union, we observe, has just been attempted on a small scale on the Continent, but we do not believe the time has yet come for it here. The present mismanagement of the Post-office, and the rotation by which its employees are periodically unsettled, forbid our charging it with an extra burden, and affording it another excuse for inefficiency. The system needs a thorough overhauling, and, until it gets it, we are opposed to its adding any more strings to its bow.

CAPTAIN SEMMES writes to the President that, "when America shall have a history, his (Semmes's) record and that of the gallant Southern people will be engrafted on it," and he begs Mr. Johnson not "to suffer it to be tarnished" by trying him for running away in the *Deerhound*. He adds another paragraph of a lengthy rhetorical character, from which it is evident that he thinks himself a very remarkable man. The fact is, however, that whenever Semmes's "record" comes to be "engrafted," the wonder will be that so much fuss was ever made by so insignificant a person. He won no distinction in the war to which a great many buccaneers could not lay claim. Many of the latter destroyed twice as much property in the Spanish Main as he did all over the world. As a naval officer, the man is hardly worth notice even by the "historian" Pollard. In his one fight with a foe of equal force he was dropped into the water after an hour's cannonading, which ought to condemn him to perpetual silence about his own career. His trial, however, will be a curious affair, as the legal arguments in it are sure to be at least original.

MR. TRUMBULL'S bill for the protection of civil rights has passed the Senate. Should it fare as well in the House it will, as Mr. Morrill observed, mark a new epoch in the history of American legislation, as it will be the first attempt of the national Government to enforce the constitutional provisions for the protection of life, liberty, and property in all parts of the Union.

Two of the ablest lawyers in England, Mr. Edward James, Q. C., and Mr. Fitzjames Stephen, have given a careful opinion upon the legality of Governor Eyre's proceedings in Jamaica. They say the assumption of absolute power by officers of the Government for the suppression of insurrection is lawful, but it must be justified by the necessity of the case, and any exercise of it beyond this is illegal; and what constitutes necessity it is for a judge and jury before whom they may be brought to trial to decide. Was Mr. Gordon's execution necessary? They hold not, inasmuch as Kingston, in which he was tried and put to death, was not even declared to be under martial law—showing that Governor Eyre did not consider that any ground existed for the assumption of extraordinary power in that place. And, finally, they advise that Governor Eyre may be either indicted for murder in Middlesex or impeached in Parliament. There would, we need hardly say, not be the slightest chance of his conviction before the House of Lords, but before a London jury the result might be different.

THE Confederate bondholders have held another meeting in London, the report of which is very amusing reading. They seem to have the lowest possible opinion both of Erlanger and of Schroder, the Confederate agents in London and Paris respectively, and rely mainly on the "great principles of international law" and the honor of the Southern States. By way no doubt of working on the feelings of the federal Government, it was mentioned by Mr. Chamberlayne that "the fact of the loan showed the intense sympathy" (felt in England) "for the South." Why do not these gentlemen send a committee to Washington with instructions to stay there for a month and report faithfully what they hear about themselves and their mission? This would shed more light on their chances of repayment than fifty meetings in London.

IT appears to be not so much a question of suppressing the insurrection in Spain as of running it down. Gen. Prim still held the lead at the latest accounts, and was heading for Portugal.

THE new Italian Ministry have begun their work vigorously. The War Minister has ordered the suspension of the levy already in progress, which embraced all citizens born in 1845. This action is not properly a disarmament, but a return to the law, which in ordinary times (*nei tempi normali*) holds those only liable to recruitment who have completed their twenty-first year in the year when the levy is ordered. The Minister of Finance intends benefiting the schools and universities, and the treasury, by cutting off unnecessary inspectors and professors.

ITALY has lost a many-sided man in the person of Massimo d'Azeglio, author, artist, and statesman, who died at Turin on the 15th of January. He effected much by his writings for the present unity of his countrymen, and sided latterly with the Government party rather than with the Liberals.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 3, 1866.

Two most important measures have this week passed the ordeal of a vote—one in the Senate, and the other in the House of Representatives. The first is the bill reported by Mr. Trumbull, from the Judiciary Committee, conferring upon all persons in the United States equal rights to make and enforce contracts; to sue and give evidence; to inherit, purchase, hold, and convey property; and to the full and equal benefit of all laws for the security of person and property, *any law, regulation, or custom to the contrary notwithstanding*. The bill confers upon the U. S. courts jurisdiction over offences in violation of its provisions, to the exclusion of the State courts, and enters, in much legal detail, into provisions and penalties for securing its full enforcement. There is no doubt that this act supplies the "appropriate legislation" which Congress is authorized in the terms of the late Constitutional Amendment to supply, in order to give effect to the prohibition of slavery. It has been fought with persistent determination by the whole force of Democratic senators, reinforced by the powerful aid of Mr. Cowan, of Pennsylvania, who was elected as a Republican four years ago. Although it may be fairly claimed that the enactment digs the grave of State rights, so far as class distinctions between citizens in respect to life and liberty are concerned, it does not go the length of equalizing the elective franchise. It is difficult to see how any sincere friend of the abolition of slavery can honestly object to it, since it only interposes a bulwark between the late slave and that "unfriendly legislation" which clings with tenacious grip to the superior rights of the master-class. It simply plants the slave on his manhood, as against his late condition of chattelhood, and maintains him there by the strong arm of the general Government, thereby merely keeping the promise held out in the Constitutional Amendment.

The passage by the House, on Wednesday, of the joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to base representation upon such

part of the population as is not denied the elective franchise on account of color, was a most unexpected thing. The way in which it was brought about is too well understood to require amplification; but it may be stated that the strong vote by which it passed was a proof not of unanimity, but of a fixed resolve to rebuke a supposed Executive dictation. That the unfriendly criticisms of the President upon constitutional amendments at this time were officially (though informally) promulgated through the telegraph, was well understood by every member of the House. That the object of that promulgation was to influence the legislation of Congress, although more doubtful, was generally believed. Another consideration which led to unexpected unanimity was the fact that, nothing else being generally agreed upon, the proposition of the Committee was as unobjectionable as any that could be offered, and, as speedy action was desirable for the sake of its moral effect upon the country, individual objections were almost universally surrendered. The only recusants among the strict Republicans were one Rhode Island and two Massachusetts members, who insist upon national negro suffrage, and Messrs. Hale and Raymond, of New York, who alone of the dominant party voted in accordance with the President's known views. Of the Border slave State members, ten voted for the amendment and sixteen against it, which, considering all the circumstances, is a splendid record. That the measure will also pass the Senate by a two-thirds majority is regarded as certain. Of course it is independent of the President's approval, and will go to the States with the sole endorsement of Congress.

Mr. Sumner has given notice of a joint resolution which he will offer as a "counter proposition" to this amendment. It declares the State governments in the States lately in rebellion to have "lapsed," and that all persons in those States shall have the right of suffrage and all other rights, civil and political, anything in the constitution or laws in such States to the contrary notwithstanding. It is surprising that Mr. Sumner should expect any good to be effected from the adoption by Congress of such vague legislation as this, in lieu of a constitutional amendment which would be binding, if adopted, upon all the States, or of statutory enactments like the Civil Rights and Freedmen's Bureau bills, both of which not only guarantee a right, but supply a remedy. Most of Mr. Sumner's bills and joint resolutions (and he has been very fruitful in both at this session) have the air of town-meeting resolves, reciting well-established and indisputable axioms, and re-enacting the phrases of the Constitution and the Declaration of Independence. So accomplished a student of history and jurisprudence should have found out that rights, in order to be maintained, must have a basis of specific law to rest upon, and that the "appropriate legislation" needful to enforce the constitutional abolition of slavery, is not to be supplied by a declaratory resolution of ten lines setting forth nothing but political truisms. It may be well enough to have an "orator of the human race" to deal with our foreign affairs in the Senate, but it is fortunate that a more practical intellect presides over the deliberations of the Judiciary Committee.

DIARY.

Monday, Jan. 29, 1866.—In the Senate, a message was received from the President, declining to communicate, as incompatible with the public interest, the correspondence of Major-General Sheridan, etc., relating to any violation of neutrality by the United States army on the bank of the Rio Grande. Mr. Harris introduced a bill to re-organize the Judiciary of the United States. Referred. Mr. Sherman offered a bill to promote military education, empowering the President to detail army officers to act as heads of established colleges for that purpose. Referred. Mr. Yates offered a bill prohibiting any State from making any distinction between citizens on account of race or color, and declaring that all citizens shall be protected in all rights, including the right of suffrage. Referred. Mr. Wilson offered a bill to increase the number of cadets in the Military Academy by two from each State, to be appointed by the President, and seventy-five additional cadets to be appointed from sons of those who have died in military service; also increasing the requirements for admission. Referred. A bill to restrict the charges for collecting soldiers' claims to $10 was passed. The bill reported by Mr. Trumbull from the Judiciary Committee, to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights, was taken up. Mr. Trumbull explained and vindicated the bill as securing freedom in fact and equality of civil rights to all persons alike, and investing the courts of the United States, to the exclusion of the State courts, with power to enforce them. Mr. Saulsbury attacked the bill as dangerous, oppressive, unjust, unconstitutional, and subversive of State rights.

In the House, a resolution commending the refusal of the President to accept presents, and censuring the practice of Government officials in receiving presents from subordinates, was passed. Mr. Julian offered a resolution favoring the speedy trial of Jefferson Davis for treason, but the House refused to order the previous question upon it. The report of the Commission upon the revenue system was presented from the Secretary of the Treasury. Mr. Raymond spoke three hours upon the constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation, diverging to the general questions in issue, affirming that the Southern States have resumed their functions of self-government in the Union, that they did not change their constitutional relations by making war, and that Congress should admit their representatives by districts, receiving only loyal men as members. Messrs. Julian and Johnson also made speeches.

January 30.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner reported from the Committee on Foreign Relations a bill for payment of claims for French spoliations prior to 1801. The Judiciary Committee reported a resolution that J. P. Stockton is entitled to a seat as Senator from New Jersey. Mr. Brown offered a resolution of enquiry as to expediency of the Post-office Department constructing and opening telegraph lines. Referred. The bill for protecting all persons in their civil rights was debated.

In the House, a motion to admit to the privileges of the floor the representative elect from the State of Arkansas was refused—ayes, 64; nays, 94. The deficiency appropriation bill was reported, and made a special order for February 6. The constitutional amendment regarding the basis of representation was recommitted to the Joint Committee on Reconstruction. The resolution rejecting all claims for damages to property of loyal or disloyal citizens by our army within the rebel States was passed, the House having refused to table it by a vote of 36 to 118. The Senate bill to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau was taken up and discussed by Mr. Eliot in its favor.

January 31.—In the Senate, Mr. Lane offered the petition of 124 women of Kansas praying for a constitutional amendment prohibiting the States from disfranchising women. A joint resolution of thanks to Admiral Farragut was passed. The bill to protect all persons in their civil rights was discussed by Messrs. Davis, Trumbull, Clark, and Johnson.

In the House, a bill was passed authorizing the sale of marine hospitals and revenue cutters. The Committee of Commerce reported a bill providing that no American vessel which sailed under a foreign flag during the rebellion shall be registered as an American vessel, or have rights and privileges as such, without act of Congress. Laid over. Mr. Stevens reported back the constitutional amendment yesterday recommitted to the Reconstruction Committee, with an amendment striking out the words "and direct taxes," so as to fix simply the basis of representation in Congress upon population, excluding those races or colors to which the elective franchise is denied or abridged. Mr. Schenck offered a substitute making "male citizens of the United States over twenty-one years" the basis of representation. Lost—yeas, 29; nays, 130. Mr. Stevens made a speech, severely reflecting upon the President for causing a manifesto of his opinions against constitutional amendments to be published, pending the deliberation of the representatives of the people; also rebuking Mr. Raymond for honoring the rebel dead, and declaring his opposition to Mr. Schenck's amendment, because it inserted the word "male" in the Constitution, excluded from the basis of representation large numbers of foreign-born citizens in the Northern States, and was practically certain to be defeated before the State legislatures. The House then adopted the constitutional amendment as reported by Mr. Stevens—yeas, 120; nays, 46; absent, 16. The Speaker declared the resolution proposing the amendment adopted by the constitutional majority of two-thirds. The Freedmen's Bureau bill was taken up, and opposed in speeches by Messrs. Dawson and Taylor. At the evening session, Mr. Kelley spoke four hours against free trade; Mr. Dennison made a speech against amending the Constitution; and Mr. Paine spoke against hasty reconstruction and for universal suffrage.

February 1.—In the Senate, Mr. Howard's resolution in favor of the trial by military commission of Jefferson Davis and C. C. Clay, on the charge of inciting assassination and violating the usages of war, was taken up. Mr. Howard defended it at length, taking issue with the opinion of the Attorney-General on the subject. The Senate proceeded with the bill to secure the civil rights of all persons. Messrs. Morrill, Davis, Trumbull, Henderson, and others made speeches. The bill was amended to provide that "all persons born in the United States, and not subject to any foreign power, excluding Indians not subject to tribal authority, are hereby declared to be citizens of the United States without distinction of color." Mr. Fessenden gave notice that he should call up the proposed constitutional amendment on February 5.

In the House, Mr. Morrill, from the Committee on Ways and Means, reported a bill for raising revenue for the support of the Government. Made a special order for February 8. The bill to prevent the issue of American registers to vessels which have sailed under foreign flags during the rebellion was passed. The Freedmen's Bureau bill was discussed by Messrs. Donnelly and Garfield in its favor, and by Mr. Kerr against it. Mr. Donnelly proposed an amendment, authorizing the Commissioner of Freedmen to provide common-school education for all. Laid over.

February 2.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner offered a joint resolution as a counter-proposition to the proposed constitutional amendment. It declares that in the late rebel States there shall be no oligarchy, aristocracy, or caste with peculiar privileges, and no denial of rights on account of color, but that all persons shall be equal before the laws, in the courts, or at the ballot-box; and that this statute, made in pursuance of the Constitution, shall be the supreme law of the land. A joint resolution was passed, setting apart a room in the Patent Office for exhibition of gold and silver and other minerals, the product of the United States. The bill from the Post-office Committee, authorizing the sale of stamps on credit in the Southern States to persons not postmasters, who give bonds, was taken up. Mr. Sumner opposed it on the ground that the Postmaster-General was relaxing the test-oath of 1862 in his official appointments. Mr. Wilson favored the bill on the ground that it would accommodate the Southern people and be an advantage to the Government. The bill was passed. The bill to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights was taken up. Mr. Garret Davis spoke three hours against the bill, denouncing it as "unconstitutional, unjust, despotic, oppressive, iniquitous, unwise, impolitic, outrageous, and diabolical, and calculated to keep up for ever a severance of the Union." Mr Trumbull replied that the bill thus characterized, being simply a bill to secure equal rights, must therefore be as bad as all these epithets indicated, in the eyes of the senator from Kentucky. Messrs. Guthrie, Hendricks, Cowan, and Saulsbury opposed the bill, and Messrs. Wilson and Lane advocated it, after which it was passed—yeas, 33; nays, 12. A message was received from the President, communicating a letter from the Chief-Justice of the United States declaring his reluctance to hold a circuit court in the State of Virginia for the trial of treason cases while martial law is extended

over that State and in advance of action by Congress on the whole subject of the rebel States. Also, a message recommending the appointment of a Minister to the Dominican Republic and recognizing its independence. Also, a message transmitting a letter of Major-General Sherman as to the condition and prospects of Arkansas. Adjourned to February 5.

In the House, Mr. Raymond introduced a bill providing for warehouses in New York for reception of goods from vessels subject to quarantine. Referred. Mr. Stevens offered the regular annual civil appropriation bill. Made a special order for February 12. A long debate arose on the contested election case of Dodge *vs.* Brooks, for the Eighth Congressional District in New York. Laid over, for the printing of testimony in the case. The Freedmen's Bureau bill was opposed in a speech by Mr. Kerr. The rest of the day was consumed on private bills.

February 3.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, the Freedmen's Bureau bill was discussed all the day and evening. Speeches in its favor were made by Messrs. Hubbard, of Conn., and Moulton, and against it by Messrs. Marshall, Ritter, Rousseau, Shanklin, and Phelps. Adjourned to February 5.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE report of Gen. Sprague, Assistant Commissioner for Missouri and Arkansas, for the quarter ending Dec. 31, pertains only to the latter State. He has found the system of employing trustworthy civilians as superintendents a success. Of the twenty-five superintendents in Arkansas, sixteen are citizen agents for the Bureau. In the southern and south-western portions of the State, the people still ignore their duties to the Government and the Bureau, and seem largely animated by the old rebel spirit. The Hon. E. W. Gantt, once an uncompromising rebel, but who long ago repented in words and works, has become one of the agents of the Bureau, and, through his fair dealing with the freedmen as well as considerable influence with the whites, has succeeded in initiating a much better state of affairs in Southern Arkansas. As he is a man of great intelligence, and a prominent citizen, his statements are entitled to consideration. He says, in a report to Gen. Sprague:

"I see by the act of Congress organizing the Bureau that its existence is limited to one year after the war. If it should not be extended there is no hope for the freedmen of Arkansas, Texas, and that portion of the South remote from railroads and telegraphs. They will be starved, murdered, or forced into a condition more horrible than the worst stages of slavery. Our people's wrath over defeat would be poured upon the heads of the helpless ones once their slaves. I say this sorrowfully of our people, yet I know it is but too true; their prejudices give way slowly; by extending the existence of the Bureau, what education and thought failed to do might be supplied by an influx of liberal-minded people."

General Sprague declares that the above statements are corroborated by all the testimony that reaches him from other parts of the State, and gives it as his deliberate opinion that if the military are withdrawn, not a school for colored children would be allowed in the borders of the State, and not an outspoken Union man be permitted to remain. Laborers are in great demand in Arkansas, and twenty dollars per month, with board, cabins, fuel, medicines, etc., are readily offered for first-class hands. Five thousand additional freedmen in the State could easily obtain employment.

General Tillson, Assistant Commissioner for Georgia, writes on the 23d ult. to the Commissioner, and complains that the troops have been withdrawn from Georgia to such an extent that the interests of the Bureau and of the freedmen have greatly suffered thereby; that so few troops remain that they are almost all needed to protect public property, and that, for want of a few troops to aid them in the performance of their duties, the efficiency of many of his agents is almost completely paralyzed. He says that nearly all the females and young men are open in their expressions of hatred for Yankees and negroes; that the only public opinion which makes itself felt is as bitter and malignant as ever, and that "unless we keep a firm, just, kind hand upon these people, all our past labor will be thrown away."

Letters from South Carolina show that General R. K. Scott, the new Assistant Commissioner for that State, is meeting with great success in the solution of the problems before him, and that the freed people are beginning to repose in him the same confidence given his predecessor, Gen. Saxton.

Superintendent Eberhart, at Augusta, Georgia, reports that there were in the State in December 57 schools with 67 teachers. The number of pupils was 4,351, of whom 2,117 could read. Of the 67 teachers, 31 are colored and natives of the South. In seven localities the freed people have contributed, since the close of the rebellion, $3,963 to the support of their schools; and, to all the schools established by Northern societies, they invariably contribute enough money to meet all contingent expenses. The societies laboring in this State are the American Missionary Association and the New England Freedmen's Aid Society. The former occupies, exclusivley, the cities of Augusta, Atlanta, and Macon, and, in conjunction with the latter, the city of Savannah. The latter society occupies Columbus, Americus, and Athens. There is persistent opposition on the part of the whites to negro education.

The freedmen of Georgia assembled in convention at Augusta on the 10th of last month. They passed resolutions claiming equal political rights, and formed an association, of which they made Capt. J. E. Bryant president. He accepted the office and endorsed their claims in a very sensible speech. Gen. Tillson also spoke, by invitation, somewhat more at length. He told the convention frankly that he thought neither white nor black should be allowed to vote unless qualified by a certain amount of intelligence.

—A correspondent writes us from Houston that during Gen. Gregory's tour through Texas he had occasion to address the freedmen in the neighborhood of one Judge Elmore, a Methodist slaveholder, who had not yet abandoned whips, chains, and hounds in the management of his plantation. This fact having been divulged by one of the hands who was present, and the judge confessing on the spot, Gen. Gregory at once ordered him to be arrested and taken to Houston. Here he sued out a writ of habeas corpus. The general asked for time, which was granted, and when the case came up responded that where the civil courts had failed in their duty, he claimed jurisdiction under the Bureau and had exercised it. He refused to obey the writ. Judge Caldwell sustained him, his opinion being, in substance, that the Freedmen's Bureau is for a good and legitimate purpose; that its officers have certain rights which both people and courts must respect; that one is the right to protect the freedmen from ill-treatment when the courts neglect to do so; that in this case the civil courts had been guilty of neglect, and Gen. Gregory therefore had concurrent jurisdiction. So the writ was dismissed.

—A correspondent of the New York *Times* writes from Jackson, Mississippi, that high wages prevail on many of the plantations in that vicinity. Very numerous contracts have been made with the freedmen for $15 a month, including lodging, clothing, and food. In the neighborhood of Vicksburg labor is very scarce, and $18 and $20 a month are not uncommon wages. A North Alabama paper says that "first-class hands, without encumbrance, are hiring for $200 per year, with rations, quarters, and wood, the negro to clothe himself and pay his doctor's bills." Another paper in the same State says: "The ruling prices paid first-class plantation hands is $10 per month, the negro furnishing his own clothes and paying his doctor's bills."

Minor Topics.

WHEN Mr. Archibald Peachblossom received his certificate of teacher, he felt a glow of simple, honest pride, and he took in his hard hand the little carpet-sack which his mother had so carefully packed, and came at once to New York to make his fortune. He had heard that, by the assistance of the Preceptors' Mutual Aid and Comfort Society, he should be able at once to find a place as teacher in a public school or tutor in a private family. Having amassed a handsome competence in one or other of these lucrative vocations, he could either retire to his village of Greenfields or go into business and become a millionaire. Riding down in the cars from Greenfields, he was unable to decide which of these things he should do, but he felt that the decision of the question might be safely deferred to another time.

The apartment in which the business of the Preceptors' Mutual Aid and Comfort Society was transacted was not so stately as young Peachblossom had figured in his own mind, and there were no Mutual Aiders and Comforters in council there, as he thought there might happen to be, when the candidate for their association should step in. The manner of the gentleman at the desk, however, was very cordial and reassuring. As soon as Peachblossom stated his wish to become a member of the society, this gentleman assumed towards him a tone in which

the pious father and the indulgent uncle were gracefully blended, and said that he would take a personal interest in finding him a suitable place; that he would advertise his application very carefully, and see that he got something to do immediately. In a word, he might consider the thing done. Mr. Peachblossom paid the fee of initiation—it was not great, but it came out of a fortune as yet but slender—and was bowed from the office, very proud and happy that his interests should be in the keeping of such an institution. He could hardly sleep that night thinking of his good luck.

After this he began to call every morning at the P. M. A. and C. Society office, and was too sensible to be hurt by a dawning abruptness in the address of the hard-worked manager. Even when this became downright coldness he did not much mind it, but he was rather angered when it grew to be a positive neglect, and he could scarcely get any answer from the manager concerning his prospects. Sometimes he met other Aiders and Comforters there on business similar to his own, and he thought them rather forlorn and anxious-looking for Aiders and Comforters. It appeared that places for tutors and teachers were hard to get, even through the society.

Mr. Peachblossom, walking down the street, observed a sign, "Intelligence Office," and glancing in at the window, he saw numbers of Bridgets of all ages and sexes sitting round the room in attitudes of hope or dejection, and looking extremely like the Aiders and Comforters he had just left. What—his heart almost stopped as he asked himself the question—what if the Preceptors' Mutual Aid and Comfort Society were, in spite of its flattering name, only an Intelligence Office, after all? What if the manager were, in fact, the whole concern, and there were little or no aid and comfort in it, except what the manager got?

After a long while answers began to be made to Mr. Peachblossom's advertisement—sometimes he was sent to confer personally with people seeking a teacher or tutor, and, under the auspices of the Mutual Aid and Comfort Society, he felt remarkably like Bridget going with a character from the Intelligence Office.

When he at last found a place, the Mutual Aid and Comfort Society exhibited itself in a new and interesting light. It claimed from him, as a member in good standing, the payment of six per cent. on the whole amount of his salary as tutor, and it exacted the payment for a term of months. Finding this system oppressive, Mr. Peachblossom reflected a little, and it occurred to him that if the members of the society were subjected to this onerous tax, he had better resign. He therefore wrote a letter to the manager, and resigned his membership. The manager answered that he could not resign. His membership, like allegiance to the British crown, could not be thrown off.

Nevertheless, Mr. Peachblossom persisted in his resignation, and utterly refused to pay the tax any more. The manager expostulated in vain, and then resolved to see the gentleman who had employed Mr. Peachblossom, and procure his dismissal. The gentleman, informed of the affair by Mr. P., was pleased to see the manager, and to talk with him; but the manager was somewhat embarrassed in opening the subject. It is possible that he had read "Nicholas Nickleby," and remembered Mr. Squeers. He regretted, however, to tell Mr. Peachblossom's patron that Mr. P. had treated him very ill; had refused to pay his dues as a member of the Mutual Aid and Comfort Society, and had attempted to resign. He advised our friend to dismiss Mr. Peachblossom.

"All this," said our friend, "does not concern me in the least. I find Mr. Peachblossom honest, faithful, and capable. If I dismissed him to-day on your society's account, I should engage him to-morrow on my own."

"Now, I will put it to you in the abstract and as a man of business," said the manager. "Suppose you had a porter whom you found in every way satisfactory, and this porter's former employer came to you and complained that he had been wronged by the porter; what would you do?"

Our friend having the case put to him in the abstract, felt absolved from the obligations of concrete politeness, and replied: he should tell the former employer to go about his business.

On this hint, the manager went, and poor young Peachblossom, secure from the clutch of that wicked despot, remained triumphing.

Dothemasters Institute is an establishment similar to the Preceptors' Mutual Aid and Comfort Society, and when Mr. Peachblossom retired from our friend's service (after having amassed the handsome competence before mentioned) the latter went to the institute and enquired for another tutor. He was supplied immediately, and told that a bill would be sent him for the institute's fee, which was small. In due time the bill came, a formidable broadside, covered on one side with certificates of the institute's probity and efficiency, and on the other with the items of the account specified in print. Among these our friend found a charge for one year's subscription to the "Quarterly Peruvian Pedagogue," a review published by the institute, and looking over the remarks with which the account was prefaced, he learned, for the first time, and to his great surprise, that he had been expected, on making application for a teacher at the institute, to subscribe for the "Quarterly Peruvian Pedagogue." This he considered a much more ingenious method of procuring subscriptions for a periodical than the system of those publishers who offer a Portable Steam Saw-mill, or a White Siamese Elephant, to any person sending them a club of one thousand subscribers; but, though he admired the device, he did not want the review, and he did not care to pay for it. The agent of the institute had evidently foreseen contingencies of this sort, for, on casting his eye at the bottom of the sheet, our friend found a note, requesting him to send the sum of the account, if correct, by next mail; and if *not* correct, to please to have the kindness to send what *was* right, and the agent would promptly return a receipt. This was strictly business-like, and our friend took advantage of the opportunity offered him to strike out the charge for the "Quarterly Peruvian Pedagogue," and then transmitted the balance.

He is a man of business, largely engaged in the artificial oyster and patent clam-soup trade, and he thinks of starting a journal to be called the *Bivalve's Friend*. When people make purchase of a bushel of artificial oysters, or a barrel of patent clam-soup, he will send in a bill for the *Bivalve's Friend*, with the observation that persons trading with him are expected to subscribe for the paper; but he will sagaciously add that if the account is not correct, the purchaser may return what *is* right. Having achieved these triumphs of impudence, he thinks he may yet be capable of making the young men in his service members of a Mutual Aid and Comfort Society, liable to an assessment of six per cent. on their salaries. In this society resignation will be impossible.

We have received the following article, with a request from the author to publish it if it should meet our approval. We think it might safely have been made longer (though we hope our contributors generally will not act upon this admission), but as far as it goes we find it so exhaustive of the subject that we cannot justly withhold it. Like Lessing's monograph on the Laocoon, it leaves nothing to be said, and we should not be surprised if the essayist had exhausted himself as well as his subject in this single effort of the intellect. We know that future productions can add nothing to the reputation which this will establish, and we warn our contributor that we shall feel hereafter obliged, out of a high regard for the interests of literature, as well as his own, to decline his contributions:

MUSIC.

Music is the science of combining sounds in such a manner as shall be agreeable and pleasing to the ear. There are very few people possessing the slightest pretensions to a good refined taste but have spoken of music in the highest terms of praise. The love of music seems to be, indeed, to a certain extent, inherent in our nature. The very rustics feel a sensation of gladness when they hear the simple melodies of the birds. It is also observable of music that all those fine and superior minds who have done honor to human nature by their immortal works, have given abundant evidence of their being powerfully affected by it. Milton seems to have been a perfect musical enthusiast, and Shakespeare makes the love and relish of music indispensable to moral goodness. He says:

"The man that hath not music in his soul,
Is fit for treasons, stratagems, and spoils;
Let no such man be trusted."

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

WENDELL PHILLIPS AS A WHIPPER-IN.

Mr. Wendell Phillips, in a speech made at the late annual meeting of the Anti-Slavery Society in Boston, took occasion, when denouncing the Freedmen's Aid Associations for what he considers their lukewarmness in the cause of the negro, to make the following observations upon The Nation:

"Look at this new journal, The Nation, which undertakes to represent these Freedmen's Associations, and which all the subscribers of anti-slavery papers are advised to take instead of the old anti-slavery journals. How uncertain is its sound! How timid, vacillating, and non-committal is its policy! Where has Mr. Sumner a more heartless and unfair critic? Are you willing such a neutral should represent us? I name Mr. Sumner not from personal friendship or partiality, or in blindness to whatever defects some may fancy to exist in his statesmanship, or anything else; but I say to-day his name is a fair symbol, the accepted symbol, to represent this claim on the part of a portion of the American people, that before one rebel State puts its foot inside the halls of Congress, they shall put the ballot into the hands of the negro."

Mr. Phillips is mistaken. The Nation has never "undertaken to represent the Freedmen's Aid Associations." No such intention has been announced in the columns of this journal, or in any prospectus or other document that has ever issued from this office. If anybody has been induced to subscribe to The Nation under the impression that it was to be either the official successor of the old anti-slavery journals or the organ or representative of any body or association whatever, he has been unquestionably deceived, and he has the remedy in his own hands. The Freedmen's Aid Associations are not in any way responsible for what we say in our columns. We have no connection with the Freedmen's Aid movement, except that connection which all patriotic men ought, in our opinion, to have with it—the connection of sympathy and good wishes. We lend it our hearty and cordial support, and do what we can to diffuse a knowledge of the work it is performing, because we believe it to be a great and Christian work, one in which all men and classes on this continent are equally interested, and on the success of which the future happiness and prosperity of the whole country will largely depend. We consider that work to be the great duty imposed on the Northern people by the war, a duty which they cannot shirk, not only without damning themselves to everlasting shame, but without laying up for their children and their children's children a great store of trouble and misfortune. And as long as it is done, we care not what organization is charged with it.

In so far as we devote ourselves to the consideration of the condition of the negro at the South, and to the discussion of the various means that are from time to time proposed for improving it, it is not as a "negro question," but as a national question vitally affecting the interests of the whole country. The freedmen of the South are to us not simply freedmen. They are a part of the American commonwealth; and we seek their education, elevation, and happiness not simply from pity, but because we believe the continued degradation of any portion of its people to be dangerous to the state and a scandal to free government.

Whether our policy be "timid, vacillating, and non-committal," Mr. Phillips is not competent to judge. One of the penalties of the successful cultivation of his style of oratory is, that the orator comes at last to lose all sense of the exact force of language. An habitual consumer of brandy thinks the finest Johannisberg or Château Lafitte very weak wishy-washy stuff. Mr. Phillips has so long indulged himself in the use of superlatives that he detects moral turpitude in every attempt at exact definition. No one has more respect than we have for the single-minded devotion with which he has served the anti-slavery cause. He has done everything for it that zeal and eloquence and high personal character can do. But then he has, in long and arduous campaignings, contracted certain bad habits, one of which is—we are sorry to have to use the word—unscrupulousness in the use of phrases and a strong love of exaggeration. He and his followers are afflicted, too, with that saddest of all forms of human conceit, which leaves no doubt in the minds of its victims that they have reached, by dint of talking and feeling, the pure truth on every social and political question. They have consequently ceased to discuss. If anybody differs with them, they simply, like the Holy Office, pass sentence upon him, strip him of all claims to consideration, and proceed to light up the fagots of their invective about him. The negro has been for generations robbed, and murdered mentally as well as physically. We have all stepped in to deliver him from the hands of his assailants. He is weak, bewildered, and demoralized. We are debating the question of restoratives. We think some nursing, some education, and, above all, the protection of the police, are amongst the first things he requires. Mr. Phillips wants to send him out in the street again armed with a pistol to protect himself, and accuses everybody who doubts the efficacy of this style of remedy of being in a league with the robbers, maintains that the question of medical treatment is a moral question, and that anybody who says tonics are of any use is a traitor and a blasphemer.

There is in the illustration of The Nation's misconduct cited by Mr. Phillips something both melancholy and amusing. Our criticism of Mr. Sumner, he says, is not only "unfair," but "heartless." Mr. Sumner's "name is a fair symbol, the accepted symbol, to represent this claim on the part of *a portion* of the American people, that before one rebel State puts its foot inside the walls of Congress," etc. What is the inference which Mr. Phillips would have us draw from all this? Is it not that journals like The Nation, laying claim to honesty, independence, and impartiality, must look on in respectful silence while Mr. Sumner gets up in his place in the Senate and accuses the President of the United States of a deliberate attempt to deceive the legislative body by misrepresenting facts of vital importance to the country and the Government, and does this in language of which even honest excitement could hardly excuse the coarseness? If we may not comment on an incident of this sort, when an advocate of negro suffrage happens to be the chief actor in it, on what *may* we comment? What is the use of the press if a man has only to become a "symbol to represent a claim," in order to make himself "legibus solutus," and impose silence even on those whose special business it is to watch the course of public men and speak their mind about it? Our criticisms on Mr. Sumner and everybody else may be ill-founded or ill-judged, but are always honest, and they shall certainly never be withheld; they shall go before our readers, like testimony before the courts, for what they are worth. Sensitive, charitable souls, who shrink from finding fault with anybody, and whose great care it is in all their public utterances to mete out exact justice to everybody, who love to impute the noblest motives even to the vilest sinners, and whose delicacy in the use of epithets is carried to the verge of fastidiousness, may think us sometimes, as in the case of Mr. Sumner, "heartless" and "unfair." But, then, in the rough and noisy world in which we live, we cannot always stop to consult the finer feelings of our nature. Mr. Sumner is a critic himself, and knows the difficulties of the office. What does he suppose Mr. Johnson thinks of his peculiar manner of filling it?

If there be one duty more than another which an upright and independent journal is called upon at the present crisis to discharge zealously, it is the duty of opposing by every means in its power the growing tendency to raise party leaders above the criticism of those who happen to agree with them as to general ends. We are fast getting into the habit of setting up political popes, and letting them compound dogmas and tests of orthodoxy for everybody who wants to serve the same cause with them. We are now called upon nearly every week to swallow some new article of faith, or stake all our hopes on some new expedient devised by this senator or that representative, in order to avoid being denounced as traitors or time-servers. And then, if anybody has the courage or honesty to express difference of opinion, even veteran masters of sarcasm and invective like Mr. Phillips, men who have spent a lifetime in lashing and denouncing what the rest of the world most delighted to honor, begin to whimper over the cruelty and "heartlessness" of the thing.

The Nation does not propose to make a trade of carping or fault-finding, but it ought to be well understood that it is not bound, and never will be, by the rules or regulations of any party. It will never recognize in any man, however eminent or able, the right to compound opinions, or prescribe lines of policy, for his fellow-citizens. All orators, and senators, and statesmen are mortal, and therefore imperfect, and if a fair review were made of their political career would be found to have been fully as often wrong as right, both in their prophecies and reasonings. What they say is to be weighed and considered, not swallowed on our knees. What they do, every man owes it to himself and to the country to judge deliberately, by his own standard of right or wrong or of expediency, and to say exactly what he thinks about it on every opportunity. This course we for our part certainly shall follow. Those who like thick-and-thin laudation of great "standard-bearers" and "symbols" can find plenty of newspapers to supply it. In The Nation they will always look for it in vain.

THE NEW SYSTEM OF TAXATION.

The report of the Revenue Commission is, in many respects, the most remarkable and valuable public document which has appeared in the United States for a long time. In the first place, it is the result of careful enquiry into a very difficult subject by a body of men selected for their peculiar fitness for the task, and not for their political opinions; and, in the next place, it discusses the national resources, and points out the best mode of making them available for the support of the public credit, in a calm, business-like, and argumentative tone, and with perfect freedom from the bombast by which nearly everything that is now written on the subject of finance, strange as it may seem, is more or less defaced. There is not a single allusion to the prospect of "paying the national debt twice over" with Colorado gold, or in fact to the possibility of getting rid of any of our burdens in any way but the ordinary and well-known one of working hard, developing our resources, and saving as much as we can.

The report starts by doing what everybody who knew anything of the Commission, or had ever given any attention to the subject before them, believed they would do—passing a sentence of unmitigated condemnation on the existing system of taxation. Nothing but the confusion and excitement of the period at which the present law was framed and afterwards amended, can possibly excuse its badness. Congress was at first culpably afraid of taxing at all, but when driven into it by the noble eagerness of the people, it taxed with a recklessness, an indifference to the public comfort and capacity, such as has rarely been witnessed. There is hardly a single principle of taxation, deduced either from the experience of other nations or the laws of human nature, which was not violated in it. It hence nearly equalled Colbert's regulations in the elaborateness and multiplicity of the trammels it imposed on manufacturing industry; and although the fluctuations in the value of the currency during the war made trade extraordinarily and almost ruinously uncertain, there was rarely any hesitation evinced in Washington about aggravating this uncertainty by sudden and violent changes in the tariff. One of these changes, at least, has not for suddenness and violence ever been equalled in the legislation of any constitutional country. It is only in the records of Oriental despotism that a parallel could be found for the act of June 30, 1864, which clapped on an extra fifty per cent. of duties at a week's notice.

Nor is it the weight of the taxes only, or even their multiplicity, or the extent to which they hamper manufacturers, that makes the present system objectionable. As an instrument of political and social corruption it has rarely been surpassed. In a country in which frequent elections render it desirable that the Executive should possess the fewest possible means of corrupting public opinion, it fills the land with a swarm of employees, without either training or experience or traditions, badly paid, holding their places at the will of the Government. The defect on which the Commission naturally comments with most reprehension is the enormous number of the taxes, and the number of times which they are levied on the same article by striking at different stages of the manufacture, so that not only is the total amount of the impost which the consumer has to pay on the finished work very heavy, but it is largely increased by the trouble and annoyance and delay occasioned by the indefinite duplication. The case cited in the report in illustration is that of umbrellas, in the construction of which ten or twelve different articles are employed, each of which pays a separate tax before reaching the umbrella manufacturer, and is then taxed in his hands over again.

Another cause of the weight with which the present system bears on the industry of the country is the entire absence of any adjustment of the internal taxation to the tariff on foreign goods. Some articles of domestic manufacture in this way enjoy enormous protection, others not only enjoy none, but are strongly discriminated against by the tariff. Amongst the latter are umbrellas, against which there is actually a discrimination of from fifteen to twenty-five per cent. in favor of the foreign article, so that an industry in which 5,000 persons are employed in Philadelphia and New York alone is threatened with destruction. Again, a pound of paper manufactured into a book is, if imported, taxed 5½ cents; if made here, 7½ cents, which, with other differences in cost makes it possible to sell the book made in England at 26½ cents, while the book made at home costs 59½ cents. One curious result of this state of things is that Webster's Spelling Book is now being printed in large quantities in London for the use of American schools. Nor is there anything too minute or too mean for the present system. Under the tax on wearing apparel, sums of a dollar and a dollar and a half are actually collected from poor milliners and tailors. No wonder the Commission sums up its defects by declaring that "such a system as this violates all the fundamental principles of taxation, inasmuch as the taxes are neither definite in amount, equal in application, nor convenient of collection. While this system prevails," they add, "it seems useless to talk of reducing prices to anything like their former level by reduction or contraction of currency."

Now for the remedy. Against any increase in the tariff the Commission pronounces positively for several reasons, of which one is all we need mention, and that is, that the country would not stand it. The report recommends, therefore, that the principle be adopted of leaving the home industry as free as possible, and raising revenue solely by imposing duties and taxes on the raw material, luxuries, and a few other articles which present unusual facilities for collection. The estimates would then stand as follows:

From Customs		$130,000,000
From Excise, viz.:		
Distilled Spirits	$40,000,000	
Fermented Liquors	5,000,000	
Tobacco and its Manufactures	18,000,000	
Cotton (raw)	40,000,000	
Coal-oil, Refined Petroleum, etc.	3,000,000	
Spirits of Turpentine and Rosin	2,000,000	108,000,000
Licenses	15,000,000	
Incomes	40,000,000	
Salaries	2,000,000	
Banks	15,000,000	
Stamps	20,000,000	
Gross Receipts	9,000,000	
Sales	4,000,000	
Legacies and Successions	3,000,000	108,000,000
Miscellaneous Receipts, 1866-7		21,000,000
Aggregate		$367,000,000

The estimates of the expenditure for the year ending June, 1867, made by the Secretary of the Treasury, including the interest on the public debt, amount to $284,000,000, so that, supposing the estimate of the receipts made by the Commission to be correct (and it is probably much under the mark), there would then remain a surplus of $83,000,000 available for the reduction of the debt.

The duties of which the Commission recommend the total abolition are those on wagons, watches, pianos, plate, yachts, etc.; on repairs of engines, carriages, cars, and ships; on wearing apparel, on pig iron, on coal, and on printed books, magazines, and similar printed publications One can see at a glance what infinite annoyance and vexation would have been attendant on the collection of taxes of this kind if they ever had been faithfully collected; but they never were. Their total yield to the revenue was only $15,000,000, and probably three times this sum was really due. The other reduction which the Commission recommends is one of fifty per cent. on all goods named in section 94 of the amended act of March 3, 1865—such as tobacco, cigars, gas

naphtha, sugar, gunpowder, bill-heads, photographs, hulls of vessels, sails, railroad chairs, boilers, gates, quicksilver, copper, patent leather, wines and liquors, cloth, diamonds, snuff, cider, vinegar, and hoop skirts. In the income tax they recommend that five per cent. be charged on all incomes, all under $1,000 be exempt, and that no allowance be made for house rents.

The Commission is opposed to the application for the present of any portion of the revenue to the reduction of the principal of the national debt, owing to the tremendous strain which the various liabilities, local as well as national, arising out of the war are imposing on the country. The nation must have a little breathing space, and trade and business have time to recover their natural course before we can attempt to do more than pay interest and expenses.

The Commission approach the Reciprocity Treaty in a temper which it is impossible to commend too highly, and which is well worthy of the attention of those orators and journalists who are disposed to use trade regulations as a means of punishing foreign nations for misconduct. In the commercial relations of nations there is no room for the gratification of feelings of like or dislike. The Commissioners, therefore, treat the past shortcomings of the Canadians as matters which have no bearing whatever, and ought not to have any, on the negotiations now pending for a renewal of the treaty, and they recommend that if any arrangement can be made by which the taxation in both countries can be equalized, and the trade thus preserved, and smuggling prevented, it ought to be entered into. In fact, freedom of trade with Canada is a virtual annexation of that province to the Union.

Upon that most important portion of the report which calls attention to the necessity for radical reform in the administrative department of the Government, we must postpone comment till next week. We may add that the able letter on the iron duties, which we publish elsewhere, was in type before the report of the Commission appeared. It will be seen that it takes the same view with regard to internal taxation on this branch of industry which the Commission take with regard to internal taxation on all.

THE CADUCITY OF PREJUDICE.

The genesis of prejudice is not far to seek. We mean prejudice against classes and races of men. It springs from the consciousness of injury inflicted upon them, which necessitates the discovery of a natural or divine occasion for its existence. Tacitus tells us that it is human nature to hate those we have injured: "Proprium humani ingenii est, odisse quem læseris," and Pope has put the same idea into verse:

> "Forgiveness to the injured doth belong,
> He never pardons that hath done the wrong."

It is not an amiable trait of human nature, but its existence cannot be denied. And it is always taken for granted that this is according to the nature of things, and that no one is to blame for it unless it be the common Father of all men. And it is assumed also that, as the prejudice is natural, it must be permanent. Happily the study of the natural history of prejudice shows that it is not immortal, that many such have given up the ghost, and are remembered only as curiosities of past experience. This circumstance gives us ground to hope that those in whose shadow we yet stand may likewise perish from off the earth.

Slavery being the greatest injury that one human being can inflict upon another, the hatred and contempt which it has generated have been proportionately deep and bitter. The most opprobrious terms of contempt and reproach in the ancient and modern tongues have some etymological connection with the condition of slavery. Villain, knave, varlet, were all originally mere names of description relating to certain classes of slaves, and so of many other terms of reproach in all languages. The trail of the serpent slavery is still over much of our daily lives, even where it has had no substantive existence for generations or for centuries. The bad odor which slavery left behind it still hangs around our households in the taint it has left on honest domestic or menial service—all words originating in slavery. Still the prejudice which formerly existed against the servile or menial races in countries where slavery has been long abolished has disappeared, and many a conservative citizen and Democratic politician would be surprised to learn that he is descended from an ancient line of slaves. Yet it is even so. The great house of Smith, the scarcely less celebrated lines of Bakers, Millers, Carpenters, and all which derive their names from trades; the Browns, and Whites, and Blacks, and all bearing the names of colors; the Johnsons, and Jacksons, and Dicksons, and the whole progeny of "sons," and a multitude beside, are all descended from chattels who had no name but such as accidents like those imparted to distinguish them from the herd of slaves. It is even affirmed that the premier peer and duke of England, in whose veins flows "all the blood of all the Howards," owes his illustrious name to the very humble occupation of his remote ancestor, by the omission of a single letter from the word "*hogward*." So that none of us need feel sore as to the condition of our Saxon ancestry, in view of the probability that at the time of the Conquest (only eight hundred years ago, the 14th of next October) the progenitor of the Duke of Norfolk may have been keeping swine along with Gurth in the forests of Hampshire, with a brass collar soldered round his neck. The prejudices arising from servile origin continued to exist long in England, but have died out in that form at least, strong as those of caste and class distinctions, to which they have given way, may still be.

The Jews also furnish an example of the effect of time and civilization in tempering the power of deep-seated prejudice. They were not only despised and evil-treated like our negroes, but they were the objects of a superstitious dread and hatred intense as it was obstinate. Considering the oppressions and massacres to which they were subjected for so many centuries, it is only strange that the whole race was not exterminated. And the fact of their having continued even to this day, and of the vast influence they now exercise in the world of finance and politics and literature and art, may give us hope that the prejudices and persecutions under which the most unfortunate class of our countrymen now suffer will fail to exterminate them, which some fear, or even to prevent their achieving prosperity and distinction in course of time, which few hope. It is a little odd that during the Middle Ages an offensive odor was attributed to the Jews, such as used to be one of the reasons for making slaves of the negroes. Sir Thomas Browne gravely pronounces this opinion "a fraudulent illation," and denies that "an unsavoury odor is gentilitious or national to the Jews." We will not affirm that all prejudice against the children of Israel is yet extinct, although they have made their way to the high places of the world. Even Walter Scott did not dare to marry Ivanhoe to Rebecca, but made him take up with the limp and washed-out Rowena instead. And Miss Edgeworth, in her novel of "Harrington," written expressly to combat this prejudice (at the suggestion, by the way, of a Jewish lady of Philadelphia), destroys the whole moral force of the story by making out the Jewish heroine to have been bred up a Christian from her birth before she ventured to marry her to the hero. Still, since their time, we believe there have been more than one instance of marriages between Christians of high rank in England and daughters of Israel, and that they are not more frequent we apprehend to be owing to scruples on the side of the Jews rather than of the Christians. But the fact that the abhorred race has won for itself political equality and social position is a proof of the mitigation which time works in widespread and deeply-rooted prejudice, and an encouragement to hope that other forms of this cruel mischief may be likewise mortal.

It is not much more than a century ago when England was agitated almost to sedition, and London to mob violence, by a bill passed by Parliament allowing the Jews to be naturalized. The excitement was so great that the Pelham Ministry had to yield and consent to making the condition of the Jews rather worse than it was before. The corporation and citizens of London were especially concerned for the integrity of the Christian religion and most active in urging the repeal of the Jew Bill. What would the orthodox Lord Mayor of that day have said could he have foreseen that his present successor would be an "Ebrew Jew!" For we need not go back to Mayor Fitz Richard, who gave the Jews up to the London mob to be plundered and slain six hundred years ago, for an instance of the activity of this particular prejudice of race. Alderman Phillips is by no means the first of the sons of Jacob that has occupied the civic throne. Alderman Salomans, who did not show the wisdom his name should imply in subscribing to the Confederate Loan, was lord mayor about ten years

ago, and we think there have been one or two other Jewish mayors. These functionaries are brought into curious concatenations occasionally in consequence of the necessity of their paying their respects officially to the Established Church. In the due exercise of civic hospitality, the Lord Mayor entertains the Archbishop of Canterbury and his suffragans at dinner, and sometimes joins eminent Dissenting ministers in the same company. The idea of a Jew proposing the health of the primate of England and the bench of bishops, whose predecessors had so bitterly persecuted his ancestors, is only less incongruous than that of the primate gratefully returning thanks for the compliment. Imagine Hubert or Lanfranc or Thomas à Becket sitting at meat and bandying compliments with Isaac of York! And yet, so gradual and imperceptible has been this change in men's opinions that its extraordinary character is scarcely noticed. It were no more strange, in fact, to see a negro governor ruling over South Carolina and Georgia and hobnobbing with Governor Aiken or Vice-President Stephens. And this very city of London it was, a century ago so fanatically anti-Judaic, that compelled Parliament to open its doors to Jews on equal terms with Christians, preferring to have one of its seats left vacant for years as a testimony against bigotry, until its chosen Hebrew champion, the Baron Lionel de Rothschild, could march triumphantly in and take possession of it. We live many more years in a given space of time than our ancestors did, and even something like these miracles may yet be seen amongst us. But it can only be wrought, as the Jewish marvel has come to pass, through the prudence, energy, and ability of the persecuted race. Fair play and a fair field are all that the black man asks for himself or his friends ask for him. The rest must depend on himself.

WORK AND PLAY.

If we should criticize the plea for repose presented on another page by a correspondent, we should say that, in combating those who seem to regard work as an end rather than a means, he is guilty of a similar error in regard to recreation. The human soul, to our thinking, is content to rest in neither. The real end is that "progress" which, as our correspondent remarks, cannot be "without much work;" and, as incessant work is no more possible than perpetual motion, we may add, without frequent opportunities for recuperation. The prince of the powers of the air, who, according to Goethe, is under an *ex-officio* obligation to keep busy—to maintain, in "T. D.'s" phrase, a "wicked industry"—partakes only of a universal constraint. The stamp of perfectibility which the Creator affixed to man is the great warrant and commission of unrest, not only in this life but, as far as we can see, in that also which is to come. It is not, therefore, a question how to shirk the labor which is the price of our advancement, but how to supplement it with repose in such a way as to make it most remunerative and pleasurable.

Rest may be broadly defined as a change in the direction of one's energies, and hence, comprehending active and even violent exertion. Its conditions vary with the occupation and temperament of individuals, and no man in regard to it can be law unto another. De Tocqueville attributed to our democratic institutions the slight which Americans put upon the "simple, turbulent, or coarse diversions in which the people in aristocratic communities indulge." We prefer, he said, "those more serious and silent amusements which are like business," and which do not drive business wholly out of our minds. Perhaps this characteristic is traceable in some measure to the Puritan influence, which still imparts to us that air of seriousness which foreigners proverbially remark; perhaps to Poor Richard's apothegm that "time is money." However derived, the notion that amusement pure and simple is a waste is gradually losing ground, and we are glad to interpret the eight-hour movement in this sense, and, so far, ready to second it most heartily. We could join in any proper appeal to employers to lessen, if possible, the hours of toil, either from humane or economical considerations, or from both—for we are far from pretending that the *juste milieu* is fixed, the same to-day that it was yesterday, the same to-morrow that it is to-day.

Our correspondent has vindicated the right of professional men to repose, and to amusements commonly regarded as unprofitable. He might have extended his argument to the laboring classes, whose case presents equal if not greater hardships. Dogs, guns, horses for pleasure theatre, and opera, are hardly for them; boat and ball-clubs only to a very limited extent. Leisure is the first requisite, and, after this, cheap and accessible enjoyments which shall also be innocent. Spare time in the shape of holidays seems to be least valuable to a people. Where these are most numerous, as in the Old World, they have been reckoned among the causes of national decay. It is certain that they interfere seriously with the regularity of business, which, in this utilitarian age, is a consideration not to be despised. They are apt to entail quite as much fatigue as they have afforded rest, and to be attended with a good deal of physical and mental dissipation. Much better is the hour or two granted daily from the workshop, or the Wednesday and Saturday afternoons of blessed school-boy memory. If the first consequence of such leisure should be a freer out-of-door life, it would be a decided moral, because a sanitary, gain for the people. The delights of the country, or, in large cities, of the public parks, would compete with the temptations of the bar-room. The short excursion, the idle stroll, the sports of field and river, would powerfully attract the multitude, and strengthen their better natures. Good music, in the open air and under cover, might be mustered into the same honorable service by a little wise municipal liberality. To concerts add gymnasia; to these your free libraries and reading-rooms; to these also free lectures. The lyceum system already extends everywhere, but it affects the small towns and cities far more than the great ones. It has social advantages of which books cannot boast, and we can imagine a tolerably attentive and appreciative audience listening to an *exposé* of "Mill on Hamilton," every one of whom might individually be too tired to keep awake over the works of either philosopher. If to the foregoing recreations we add public galleries of paintings and statuary, we shall by no means have exhausted the list. Enough that we have indicated some of the sources from which the people might obtain "repose," provided they had leisure, and provided, particularly, that they considered amusement in the light of a duty rather than of a sin.

CANOPUS.

Above the palms, the peaks of pearly grey
That hang, like dreams, along the slumbering skies,
An urn of fire that never burns away,
I see Canopus rise.

An urn of light, a golden-hearted torch,
Voluptuous, drowsy-throbbing 'mid the stars,
As, incense-fed, from Aphrodite's porch
Lifted, to beacon Mars.

Was it from songs and stories of the Past,
With names and scenes that make our planet fair,—
From Babylonian splendors, vague and vast,
And flushed Arabian air:

Or fresh from richer longings of the brain
And spices of the blood, this hot desire
To lie beneath that mellow lamp again
And drink its languid fire?

From tales of nights when watching David saw
Its topaz glimmer on Bathsheba's head;
Or Charmian stole, the golden gauze to draw
Round Cleopatra's bed?

Or when white-breasted Paris touched the lone
Laconian isle, where stayed his flying oars,
And Helen breathed the scent of violets, blown
Along the bosky shores?

Or Kalidasa's maiden, wandering through
The moonlit jungles of the Indian lands,
While shamed mimosas from her form withdrew
Their thin and trembling hands?

From each and all, the Spirit of the Star
Gathers his fragrant robes, his melting beams,
And binds ideal yearnings, pure and far,
To sense-begotten dreams.

For Fancy takes from Passion power to build
A brighter fane than bloodless Thought can rear,
And loves to see its painted chambers gild
A tropic atmosphere.

And, past those halls which for itself the mind
Builds, permanent as marble, and as cold,
In warm surprises of the blood we find
The sumptuous dream unfold!

There shines the leaf and bursts the blossom-sheath
On hills deep-mantled in eternal June,
Or swell in whispering silver, underneath
The rainbow-cinctured moon.

About the pillars of the palm-tree bower
The orchids cling, in rose and scarlet spheres;
Shield-broad the lily floats; the aloe-flower
Foredates his hundred years.

The summits of tumultuous verdure crown
Areca shafts, the fern's colossal frond;
The climbers fling their braided blossoms down
To richer dells beyond.

Along the lines of coral, white and warm,
Breaks the white surf; hushed is the glassy air,
And only mellower murmurs tell that storm
Is raging otherwhere.

The mansion gleams with dome and arch Moresque—
Ah, bliss to lie beside the jasper urn
Of founts, and through the open arabesque
To watch Canopus burn!

Or, in aerial couch, by breezes kissed
That drip with spices of the inland glade,
To see the land through hot vermilion mist,
And feel the dewy shade:

To sit at feasts, and fluid odors drain
Of daintiest nectar that from grape is caught,
While faint narcotics cheat the idle brain
With phantom shapes of thought;

Or, listening to the sweet, alluring voice
That finds the blossomed blood the thing divine,
To weigh delight unchallenged, making choice
Of other joy than wine!

Permit the dream: our natures twofold are.
Sense hath its own ideals, which prepare
A rosy background for the whitest star,
And make it doubly fair.

Not crystal runs, dissolved from mountain snow,
The poet's blood; but amber, musk, impart
Their scents, and gems their orbed or shivered glow,
To flood his tropic heart.

While Form and Color undivorced remain
In every planet gilded by the sun,
His Art shall forge the radiant marriage-chain
That makes them purely One!

BAYARD TAYLOR.

ON PAPERING ROOM WALLS.

WHEN a lady with a house of her own—or, in one of the rare cases in which a gentleman is interested in such matters, when a couple with a house of their own—would finish and furnish a room of it, many questions may arise as to the best way of doing so. If the lady interested (to take the more usual case) is content to follow the newest fashion, she consults the upholsterer, carpet dealer, and furniture dealer, who are essentially, and cannot well help being, preachers of new fashions. In that case no question arises. The tradesmen consulted fulfil their destinies, send chapters of the newest fashion to their customer's house, and follow them up with bills. There are no embarrassing doubts in anybody's mind. The newest mode being known, nobody asks if there could be a better mode.

Certainly this is very simple and easy, however open to the charge of undue costliness. Readers who find it also satisfactory and sufficient, had better not proceed with us in our examination, for we shall probably find no way so simple and easy. People who are not troubled by longings for the abstractly fit and beautiful had better not seek with us for those *ignes* commonly supposed to be *fatui*. The matter is not all in one way. It is not even all in two ways—one ours, and the other an opponent's. Partizanship is not possible, for there are no lines to draw. Criticism is not possible, for the very most serious difficulty is that there is nothing as yet to criticize. Strict definition is seldom possible. Nobody is going to agree with anybody else, except accidentally and by way of exception. There are, indeed, principles underlying this matter of decoration, but they had been long forgotten, when a very recent time witnessed a sort of attempt to rediscover them. And of the existence of these principles our people, taught by the upholsterers, have remained so unsuspicious that those who are properly conservative can hardly be expected to sympathize with any attempt to state and apply them.

Such an attempt can hardly be made in a formal and consecutive way. To look at the question from one point of view and then from another, to approach it as closely as possible from each side in succession—in this way only can a satisfactory answer be sought. And, to begin at a point of view from which the question looks simple: Suppose the room small and the money not abundant. Suppose a plain room, thirteen feet wide and eighteen feet long and ten feet high, with chimney-breast projecting eight inches not quite in the middle of one side, with two windows at one end, not symmetrically placed; with two doors in the other end, and two more doors in the side opposite the chimney; with common planked floor; with smooth white plastered walls and ceiling, and without the plaster cornice which more showily meant rooms have. This description is not a portrait of one room, but is a portrait of ten thousand in this city of New York. In considering how to decorate it, it is necessary to notice the mistake involved in the common notion that the carpet ought to be the principal feature with which other things must agree, for instance in color. The mistake is radical; no part of the room decoration ought to be the model, but all parts are to agree with the image of the whole room in the planner's mind. But, even if anything is to go first, if the imagination is not active enough, or if one thing from any reason must first be decided on, that one thing should be the wall decoration and not the carpet. Mr. Edgar Poe thought otherwise, as set forth in his essay on the "Philosophy of Furniture;" but then it appears from that essay that the author had no notion of what was possible or suitable by way of decoration on either walls or floor. Mrs. Stowe thinks the wall-paper should go first, as she says in one of the "House and Home Papers," and is at least as good an authority as Mr. Poe. But, indeed, the principle of the thing ought to be evident to us without the intervention of authority. The carpet is precisely that part of the room which ought to attract the least attention. We must not leave our wall decoration now to consider the floor, but it would be easy, if we should discuss carpets at any time, to show the reasons for their necessary subjection. For the present the walls are declared the principal thing, as, indeed, they actually are, when one enters a properly lighted room and looks about him.

How, then, shall we decorate our walls—white-plastered walls, ten feet high, without cornice? Wall-paper, every reader will say, is the cheapest and most available "finish." True; but the seeker for wall-paper, if he would have a pretty pattern and color, may seek long and yet fail to find. Our resources are limited, be it remembered, for decorating the room we have chosen. The outside limit of cost for paper for such a room ought to be, at the present high prices, two dollars a roll, "put up." Now, fashion so affects the demand and the supply in all such matters, that there is no certainty of finding to-day the pretty pattern that every dealer had last spring; no impossibility of finding to-day something pretty that was nowhere to be found last spring. You may look through a large stock of patterns and find nothing to answer your purpose—whatever that may be, as long as you are particular and "set" about it—you may return in a month and find a new "line" just come in, twenty patterns of papers all within your limit of price, and any one of which will serve you well. These things being so, it is very hard to be uniformly successful in fitting up rooms. One has need to be very obstinate about it, and fully prepared to let his walls wait, unfinished, six months, if necessary, rather than cover them with paper of colors and design other than his choice.

But what ought to be his choice? The variety of patterns among which we can choose at the low price fixed is not large; that is, there are plenty of different designs, but they do not differ widely. Thus, there are no panelled or pictorial or other so-called ornamental papers among them. But there is this difference, that many of the designs consist of or include flowers and fruit in relief, imitation of carved work with cast shadows, even imitation of stone and marble work (though these the dealer would not recom-

mend for a chamber, such not being the fashion), while others will be flat patterns without meaning, or else perfectly formal designs of conventionalized leafage. In most kinds of interior decoration by means of color, that is, of decoration usually so called, works of high artistic merit being excluded, it is a Medo-Persic law that there shall be no deceptive appearance of relief or projection. This applies strictly to our paper-hangings, and with this additional force, that the same paper must go on both sides of the room and the shadows on one side will fall toward the windows.

But there is another law limiting ornament, that it should never try to represent anything that it cannot represent perfectly. Observe the bouquet of flowers or the bunch of grapes on some wall paper; are they pretty? Do flowers or grapes look thus when you see them growing? Are there any of their peculiar beauties or characteristics represented in the pattern before you? So far as we know, there is never any sufficient representation of natural objects on paper commonly for sale in the stores. They pretend to give projection and gradation of color and shade, which from the nature of the case they cannot give. They seldom attempt properly formal suggestion of natural form, which they can fully give. It is a perfectly safe rule, and one which the judicious buyer of cheap papers will never be tempted to neglect: avoid all attempted representation of natural objects; limit your choice to wholly meaningless patterns of flat colors, with or without gold. In the spring of 1865 there were a large variety of such patterns to be bought on good American paper—red, and blue, and grey ground, with a small pattern of black running all over them, and gold stars or gold crosses, or else with gold patterns running over them and the stars and crosses black. This winter they are not to be found, but we have seen one with a good buff ground with quatrefoils of gold filled with green, cheaper than the others. In Boston, last autumn, there was for sale a very good paper—pale French grey was the only color of ground on hand—which was printed with lozenge-shaped outlines of gold, close together, but not touching. One near approach to natural form is allowable, the flower-de-luce, or its fellow, the giglio. Beautiful dark red giglios on light red ground we found once, the flowers almost exactly copied from that sempiternal silver blossom on the reverse of the Florentine "fiorino," pretty coin, driven out now by interloping "franchi."

But the "border." Of course, as there is no cornice in the room, there must be a border. Sydney Smith felt this need so strongly that, when he could not afford a plaster cornice, he put a border at top of his wall and another on the ceiling near the wall, and deceived himself into thinking it looked like a cornice. Now this desire for a cornice is natural, for there should be something to fill the angle. Soften off your right angles into something else, is a good rule for young designers, of general but not of universal application only because design requires occasional exceptions to every rule, and unmodified right angles now and then. The meeting of two lines or surfaces at a right angle is the most unpleasant meeting they could have. Soften off, then, your angle between ceiling and walls. But the usual plaster cornice, eight inches or more high, a foot or more wide on the ceiling, is too large, and is commonly ugly and ought to be painted. It will be better if, rejoicing that our room is without a cornice, we put up a strip of wood about two inches wide and high. Of what section ought it to be? Perhaps an ogee; most people know what that is; at all events we cannot give diagrams, and description of such a thing is hard to make clear in words. Choose, then, that form of those offered you which will best soften the angle. If there is gold in the paper, have the strip of gold; you may get it at the paper-hangers' shops. If there is no gold, perhaps it will be best to get the moulding from the carpenter and have it painted one of the colors in the paper. This is because of another primary law of decoration, the law of echo or repetition. A prominent color occurring once ought to recur in a somewhat different way again. Should you use a gold strip with a paper which has no gold in it, repeat it by another gold strip six inches lower down on the wall.

In preparing to decorate a room more expensively, the choice of paper will be somewhat more easy. That is to say, the buyer who is determined to have what he wants and nothing else, will not have to wait so long or go so far to find it. Flat patterns are numerous and prettily designed, although they are too seldom of one color or two colors on a full colored ground, and too exclusively in gold on a pale tint or on white. These are pretty, but they are akin to a fancy which is too general and too implicitly obeyed, that drawing-rooms ought to be finished in white and gold, or some very pale tint and gold. We have seen a very beautiful pattern of leaves a little too much shaded by means of gold lines, which give them a slight projection, but redeemed by the lively color, pure blue, lighter than ultramarine, just kept by the gold from being too uniform a tint. This was simple, though covered with gilding: but there were two which were rich, though without gilding—specimens of paper made for the Parliament Palace of Westminster, from designs by Pugin. One of them had blue squares set vertically with VR in them, and yellow squares set diagonally, with heraldic red lions in them, and hence not fit for domestic use. But the other, though crowns and fleurs-de-luce appeared in it, was not unfit for any citizen's parlor, and was very splendid, though in three colors only—scarlet, bright green, and buff.

There is a very general timidity about the use of color, shown especially in this matter of decorating and furnishing rooms. People love color; love it, even, on other people's walls if they chance to see it there, but hesitate to apply it to their own. A room is occasionally to be seen which glows with rich though subdued color, the effect of the mingled tints of the walls changing with the direction and force of the light. Pictures look well against brighter colors than they are generally trusted to; and the engravings and photographs which people hang up in rooms not their best are so chilling to the whole air of the room that they should always have some red or yellow glow behind them. It is pleasant to look through a doorway into a room which is a picture in itself, so bright and harmonious the mingled hues of its walls and ceiling. The affectation of white or nearly white chilliness for drawing-rooms sometimes culminates in white watered paper, like watered silk or *moire antique*. Sometimes, also, we have a white figure on a white ground, one being lustrous and the other dead; or, in a better case, we find a bluish-white figure on a yellowish-white ground (to use the popular expression), or the reverse. None of these are ugly, none unendurable; but why should we be denied color in the most expensively and carefully fitted rooms in the house when it is allowed elsewhere? There is a boudoir in Germany, in Frankfort-on-the-Main, entirely lined with chintz, printed with a simple pattern of three daisies in a cluster, flat, no shadows, on a pale purple ground. It is a pattern which might well be reproduced in paper, and is not too dark for the gayest looking parlor. Or, if daisies are too humble, and the whole cast of color too unpronounced and uncertain (pale purple, light green, and dull gold), while the Pugin patterns, on the other hand, are too bright and forcible, take a pattern which seems open to neither objection. This is a very formal sprig of leaves running into another, and this into another, and so on for ever; light-blue on a ground of yellow and orange in fine twisted vermiculations. This was copied from a Venetian brocade of the sixteenth century, and is very effective, though only one of a hundred equally good ones of the same character which could be copied from similar sources if the power of design fails us.

Of flock papers or velvet papers there is little need to speak, because they are generally used where there is especial need for them, as to set off pictures, for which they are well suited; also because they are usually either of a plain color, or else bearing a simple gold figure often repeated. They are very expensive, generally very dark, and therefore unfit for city houses and said to be unhealthy. They will, however, keep their popularity and their place until superseded by some true system of vigorous and meaning decoration.

The imitative papers, imitative of panels, of stone blocks, of Gothic tracery, etc., are but a humble imitation of imitative painting, and as such of no separate importance. The ingenuity with which some of these ignominious shams are contrived is, however, wonderful. In panelling a room in imitation of oak there is a roll of paper of straight grained wood, one of knots and beautifully twisted grain, one showing the "silver grain," one darker than the others, and one of wooden moulding. These are put together very skilfully, and the result is certainly surprisingly effective, and therefore not "beneath contempt," but utterly contemptible.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXVIII.

MONTGOMERY, Ala., January 24, 1866.

IT was four o'clock of a very dark morning when an omnibus came for me at my boarding-house in Columbus, and it was two hours later, after a slow circuitous drive about the city from one house to another, the driver and his companions kicking and shouting and thumping at many doors, that a load of passengers was picked up and carried across the Chattahoochie into Alabama to the Montgomery train. The rain was falling when we reached the station, there was no depot or ticket office, nobody had eaten breakfast or was wholly awake, and General Wilson became the subject of very acrimonious remarks. A great destruction of railroad bridges and buildings at Columbus was caused by his raid. We waited awhile, and when the fires beside the track and the car lanterns began to burn pale as the day was breaking, we got under way towards Opelika. Meantime I

paid attention to the voice of a lady sitting some four or five seats behind me, whom I could not see in the doubtful light, but who apparently had found an old acquaintance among her fellow-travellers, and was giving him an account of her life for the last few years.

It seemed like it was a century since she had seen him, she said, so many changes had taken place. It was befo' the war long enough. And what trials and distress had come upon their country since their last meeting! She was one of those who had shared in the downfall of their cause, for she was now, she reckoned, just as poor a woman as he ever did see. She had very little left but her health and strength, and she did n't feel any older than when he knew her before, but property—law! No, he had not been misinformed; she had married again, married a Mr. W. She lived with him eight years seven months and nineteen days. His death took place in 1864, and was a great loss to her, for he always acted the perfect gentleman, in every sense of the word. "He loved our country," she said, "and was as good a rebel as any man could be." His health never permitted of his going with the army, but the Confederates had his prayers, and he never was the man to speculate or make one dollar out of the war. That was n't his religion, and he was a true Christian if any man could be such. The curse of God, he always used to say,—the curse of God would follow money that was made at the expense of the country. All he raised he let the Government have at the regular prices. Oh, it would certainly have broken his heart if he had lived to see what she had seen, he had such faith in the cause. Indeed that was true, that there was too few like him. He treated her like a perfect gentleman. He gave her a deed of gift of thirty-five nigrahs, and told her them was to be hers and she should have land to put them on. She told him she wished no more than a child's share, but he said he would fix it this way; he would give her $38,000, and she should buy the homestead place. She always wanted the homestead place, so she consented, and it was arranged that way. After his death the South was defeated, the nigrahs was free of cou'se, and the $38,000 was worth nothing at all. Then the administrators fixed up a sale, and pretended to knock down the land to the highest bidder, but in reality they had an understanding with the company that bought it in, and it was sold for $3 an acre! One of the best tracts in the whole State. She said all she could, but that did n't matter to them, and she and the children were cheated out of their property. All her little fortune was already gone, for she had been compelled to make two or three journeys to see the administrators, and each time she had to live at a hotel for a fortnight, till they could be got together to do business, and travelling was so disgracefully expensive, and board four dollars a day—at them licks a person must be made of money to stand it.

At about this stage of the conversation her friend begged leave to drink rom a small flask which he had with him. Her consent was readily given, although, she said, she was in general very much opposed to drinking. She had always been used to seeing a great deal of it round at her own pa's house, and her first husband's, as well as at Mr. W.'s. It was very seldom indeed, however, that Mr. W. ever took anything, except when he was fatigued or unwell, or perhaps before going to church of a very cold day, particularly if he was n't feeling just right. Then he would allow himself. She hardly knew when she herself had tasted anything of the kind. The smell was extremely disagreeable to her. She could remember as well as if it was yesterday the time when she was intoxicated. They had visitors at home, and she was sent to the store-room to fill a decanter with peach brandy. As soon as the spirits began to run from the barrel she inhaled the smell, and it got up into her head directly. She became so giddy! She fell down, and when she got up she fell down again, and could n't walk straight at all. They thought she was in a faint, but her pa said no; she had inhaled the smell of the brandy, and it had been too much for her, and she was really intoxicated by inhaling it. He made her drink half a glassful.

By-and-bye she admitted that perhaps it might be well enough, when one was travelling, and had had no breakfast, to take a very little spirits as a stimulant; and soon afterwards the gentleman procured a tin mug, and we heard the lady say: "Would my friends believe it now if any one was to tell them that they saw Mrs. W. taking a dram of whiskey in a public kyar?"

At half-past nine we had ridden twenty-eight miles, and arrived at Opelika, which the inhabitants call Oppalacca. It is a wretched little village, which owes its consequence, and I should think its existence, to the crossing of the railroads there, and by its appearance recalls forcibly the typical South-western American city which is to be found in the books of English tourists. I saw it first in a cold drenching rain. There was a big pine hotel among the thirty or forty other buildings, a newspaper office, and half a dozen scattered bar-rooms, with mud between them and the wilderness close around. The bad breakfast, hastily devoured, was there too; the rough, lazy-looking men; and the long detention round the fire in the hotel, for the train going West was not due till three o'clock in the afternoon. Soon we learned that an accident had occurred near Montgomery, and that there was little chance of our reaching that city until the next day. A discussion of this probability kept us in intermittent conversation for almost an hour, and provoked much dissatisfaction. It was generally conceded that if a man 'd got to lie over, he could n't find a meaner place to lie over at than this yer Oppalacca.

"This lyin' over," one man said with a laugh, "by gosh, gentlemen, we can 't affo'd it now. Old Jeff paid yo' way befo', but now you must pull out yo' own greenbacks. Mighty hard on us po' Confeds."

"You 're right there," another said. "This is the first time I 've been able to leave Atlanta since we went up, and I could n't do it now but there 's somebody pays my expenses." Saying this he slapped his next neighbor on the knee, and asked him: "Did I ever tell you, Mr. L., what old W. says about us? I was in company with him in the hotel, and I was a-takin' on powerful about the sorry fix we was in. 'W.,' says I, 'we 're nothin' but old, whipped-out rebels,' says I. 'Oh, but a' n't we down?' says I. 'We done lost our niggers; we done lost our money; and the Yanks has whipped us pretty nigh *to* death,' says I. 'I 'll be squeezed to death,' says I, 'if I 'd ever fight again for any flag that ever was no more than I 'd fight for an old dish-rag. I 'm subjugated,' says I. You know old W., what a train of eloquence he can git on to when you git him stirred up. He got up, and says he: 'T., you lie! I know you, and you can 't tell that tale to me. Do you mean to say,' says he, 'that if France and England, or some o' them foreign powers, was to declare war agin the United States, and was to offer us our liberty and all our rights and our independence; was to land a million o' men right yer, and call on us to come out and help 'em lick the Yankees, do you mean to say that you would n't fight?' Well, he pictured it all out so fine, and the old fellow looked so earnest, you know how he can talk, and he spread himself out till he looked as big as a skinned hoss, that it worked on me, and I jumped right out of my chair I was sittin' in. I do n't never swear hardly, but I did that time. I just flung my hands up like this: 'Fight!' says I, 'may I may be d—d if I would n't fight while I had one drap o' blood left in my veins. I 'd fight till the last Yankee was the other side the Potomac.' I let out, and the thing of it was there was a Yankee there all the time. I did n't know it, you know, but there was a captain. He jumped up when I got done, and says he: 'My God! what sentiments,' and walked right out. I was caught. And it was the first time I 'd said anything wrong since the smash. But that warn't all. When the Yankee went out, W. says: 'Come up to my room, I 've got something pretty funny up there.' We went up supposin' he had some whiskey, and when we got into the room W. never looked round, he did n't know he 'd got anybody else there, and says he: 'Did n't I give that blue-bellied Yankee hell?' and squeeze me to death if there warn't another Yankee in bed right in the room! We had it on old W. The Yankee seemed to be a good kind of a fellow too; I met him afterwards, and he seemed a right clever fellow."

When the laughter which followed this story had ceased, a gentleman remarked: "The Yankees would be great fools to go into a foreign war, that 's certain."

"Why, sir," said another, "you do n't think they have any fears of us? They know that we 're whipped. They despise us more than we ever despised them. They consider us the most ignorant, low-down people on the face of this earth. They allow that a nigger is on the same equality with the most of us, and some of 'em will just about tell you so to your face."

"Yes, I have seen some that appeared to think so, but I think they very soon give up that idea. In my part of the country I believe they have less use for a nigger than we have."

This assertion called forth from different members of the company many corroborative stories, which were mostly related of negroes who had been beaten for impudence or knocked down by drunken soldiers merely on account of their color. One man even professed to know of six negroes that had been shot by soldiers during Christmas week.

"Well," said an old gentleman, "I am like you, sir; I feel that we have no flag and no country. How can we love the United States? We all know it to be an impossibility. When they ask me to be loyal, I ask, 'What for?' We live in troubled times, gentlemen, and I never expect to see peace again. It seems, sir, as if our times were the latter days which we are taught to expect, when there shall be wars and rumors of wars. I believe that we shall see the Jewish people led up to Jerusalem and gathered in from all the corners of the earth, according to the promise, and all

the other promises made to the chosen people will be fulfilled. But there will be no more peace for the rest of the nations. That 's the way it looks to me. I may be mistaken."

No one seemed prepared for this view of affairs, and a reply was not attempted. When the old man rose soon afterwards and went out, it was remarked that "he felt the thing powerful: broke him up, like."

Cotton-planting was of course discussed—two of the men around the fire asserting that without slavery there can be no cotton: on a well-regulated plantation, in old times, of course the niggers was made to work a heap harder than any man ought to work; well, a heap closer, anyhow; as for workin' harder, a nigger won't be drove to work more 'n so much, like a mule in that respect. Now a free nigger a' n't goin' to work from before daylight, from the time he can see a cotton-stalk, till nine o'clock at night, and a white man can 't stand it, and of course it stands to reason that cotton-raisin 's gone up.

Four or five other men maintained the other side of the question: Take a plantation where the hands get out just before sun-up and work till sundown, and you make a better crop than another plantation where you kill up your niggers with long hours and cuttin' and lashin'. Do with the freedmen as you did with 'em when we had slavery, and they 'll work just the same; you always had to have somebody with 'em before all the time they was in the field.

Yes, it was answered, no doubt a man could make a livin' that way; and the niggers used to be better off, so far as that went, on one o' them plantations spoken of, and lasted longer. But, dog-gone it, that warn't farmin'; that warn't makin' what you call a crop, not what 's called a crop in Alabama.

This provoked a Georgian to say that on a plantation where nobody worked before nor after daylight he could raise more bales of cotton than on a plantation where the other plan was followed. And as to white men not being able to work in the field, that was all a mistake. They could work; he 'd seen white men working cotton in Texas, and was mighty nigh being run out of his own town for saying so, and for telling 'em that the doom of slavery was written by them Germans. It would n't be long before you 'd see white men raisin' cotton in every State in the Confederacy.

Not our white men a' n't goin' to work, said the former speaker. But if you mean that there won't be any niggers very soon to do it, I believe you. Why, it 's estimated that in the last year or two more 'n a million has perished; and you 'll see in twenty years there won't be five hundred thousand, all told. They 're a-goin' faster 'n the Injins.

Upon this ground the disputants came together again, but I doubted if more than one of the party really had faith in the theory to which all, as a matter of course, publicly assented. One of them, a young planter from Western Alabama, shared my room, and freely communicated his agricultural plans and expectations.

He had been a soldier in the Confederate army, and when the war closed found himself in Georgia, wounded and without money. He had a horse, however, which he sold at a good price, and the money thus obtained enabled him to go to his relations in Alabama. His uncle knew he had been in the service, and was therefore disposed to help him as much as possible, and, though there was really nothing to do, gave him sixty dollars a month till Christmas for overseeing the place. He got into a little cotton transaction, too, and cleared about four hundred dollars by that. Then his uncle let him set up a store in the yard. It seemed mighty curious, but every nigger round there had some silver, and it did n't take long to clean out all the goods, and at a profit of about a hundred per cent., too. Then the niggers did n't know the difference between gold and greenbacks; in fact, they liked the "Yankee money" the best, and he made a pretty good pile selling the silver. Come Christmas, his uncle made him a first-class offer. He went to bed, and laughed; could n't help it, as soon as he 'd closed the bargain. He agreed to oversee the niggers and manage the place for one-half the crop. His uncle was to find corn and mules, and pay all the expenses. He intended to plant 800 acres in cotton, for there was corn enough there now to keep all the hands and stock at least two years. He had fifty-four niggers that belonged to his uncle, and was going to hire about twenty-one more. Three hundred acres were all ready for seed now, and he had more than thirty ploughs running, and plenty of seed on the place, so that he should get a very fair start. The niggers had promised to take up twenty acres a-piece, and he reckoned they would, for they were working as well now as they ever did, and they always used to work that much. The Alabama niggers were not like the Georgia niggers; they 're just as ready to wait on you now as they ever were, and there 's none of this impudence and independence. Then the planters in Georgia were letting niggers have land and giving them their own way, and perfectly spoiling them. There was none of that in this country.

I asked what wages he paid.

At first he had had some trouble, for they would n't contract; but an old nigger fellow, a driver, came to him and told him to leave it all in his hands; only let him promise each worker half a dollar a day, and he 'd agree to bring them all round before New Year's. The driver was to have six bits a day if he could do it. By Christmas they found that they were not going to get any land, and sure enough every nigger signed a contract on New Year's morning for half a dollar a day and rations. Every morning he gave the old driver about three gallons of whiskey, and he served out a drink all round before they went into the field.

I said I supposed he had to take his contract to the Freedmen's Bureau for approval.

Oh, yes; but they approved it very willingly. The Bureau in his part of the country let you do pretty much as you liked. They had a mighty good man there—let you whip a nigger if you liked. He would give me an instance. One of his uncle's niggers was in the loom-house, a nigger woman it was, weaving, and she kept breaking the thread. His aunt reproved her for it several times, but she kept on breaking, so careless, you know, and would n't take pains, and his aunt went up to her to strike her; but the woman made as if she 'd strike his aunt, who was obliged to find his uncle and report the facts to him. His uncle went to the loom-house, but the woman had left. He was in the store when he first heard of it, but he knew very well which way she would be likely to head, so he got his horse and followed after her. Sure enough, there she was going to town to complain to the Yankees. She did n't hide nor anything, and when he asked where she was off to, she spoke up as bold as brass, and said she was going to tell the Yankees how she was used. He showed her his pistol, and told her to march back, which she did, of course, and when his uncle got her he gave her the worst whipping she ever got. But she left in the night—she might as well have gone in the day-time, for nobody wanted her on the place; she was n't good for anything—and told what he and his uncle had done to her, and back she came with a note from the colonel. He supposed she thought something dreadful would be done to them, but when he read the note it just said: "I send back this woman, and advise you not to turn her away from the plantation. Make her behave herself and do her work, and if she needs correcting, correct her." That was all it said. The nigger left the place, for she said she would n't stay unless his uncle would agree not to whip her again. He did n't intend to whip her, for she got enough at first, but he told her "he 'd see about it," and she got scared and left, for she thought he 'd kill her sure.

The young man told me, furthermore, that he should still keep his store open, and expected to find it very profitable. Neither his uncle nor any of the neighbors intended to pay out much money to the hands till the crop was gathered, but he could arrange a system of certificates, he thought, and would be able to sell goods to the negroes upon credit and not lose anything by it. I congratulated him on the probability of his making quite a fortune from his store and the sale of his cotton, and enquired if he knew anything about another speculation which I had recently heard mentioned—the shipment of negroes to Cuba and selling them to Spanish planters? Yes, he said, he had been told about that, and if he had good luck he intended to get into it, for it was the biggest thing yet.

Half an hour after midnight our train was ready to start. In the darkness I missed the passenger carriage, and rode in a freight car, fitted up with benches for the conveyance of colored people. The weather had changed to cold and windy, and the box-stove full of pine wood failed to keep us warm. I could only see my fellow-passengers when at rare intervals the stove-pipe became red-hot. Then an old negro in front of it, nodding over a staff, would rouse himself, and poke the door till it opened and threw a flickering glare over the huddled figures, lying in every attitude of sleep and weariness. They looked like field-hands, and seemed to be all from one plantation, to which they were then returning. They seldom spoke, except now and then some impatient youngster set to "min' chil' " when he wished to sleep, or a woman hushing her baby. When the conductor appeared, however, he was assailed with complaints because colored folks were compelled to pay full fare now, though the accommodations were poorer than when only half price was charged. To this he replied: "You 're free now, ain't you? You 're as good as white folks, ain't you?" At half-past four I reached my journey's end, having consumed twenty-four hours in travelling about eighty five miles.

The city of Montgomery is the most beautiful that I have yet seen. The country around is undulating, and the city itself is built on several gentle hills, whose tops are now green with new grass. Standing behind the city and looking south and west to the horizon, a vast basin of wooded land can be seen, green near at hand and bluish in the distance, with the Alabama

flowing through it towards the Gulf. Its many trees and broad streets are beauties common to Montgomery and other Southern towns, but here the streets are clean and hard, and the elegance of the private residences is equalled by the handsome and substantial appearance of the business quarter.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, January 13, 1866.

THE other day some American friends of mine, who are visiting England for the first time, complained that it was never cold here. By to-day I should hope they are undeceived. Anything bleaker or more miserable than the weather of the last week it has never been my misfortune to remember. London is covered with a deep layer of dirty-brown sludge during the day, which reason tells one is snow, but which to ordinary vision appears utterly incompatible with the idea of whiteness. At nights it freezes hard, and during the morning hours the pavement is so slippery one can hardly walk. The streets are almost impassable, the railway trains are delayed for hours, the telegraph wires are broken by the weight of snow resting upon them, cabmen refuse to ply except for "sensation" fares, and everybody who has a roof to cover him stops at home and tries unsuccessfully to keep out the chill, deadly cold by enormous fires. I do not give you this account of our social discomforts to excite your compassion. If the winter during which I visited New York was at all an average one, we have no cause to envy you for exemption from our discomforts. I only dwell upon the weather to make you understand the full bearing of the fact that, during this very week, the police have found it necessary to make a sort of raid against the wretched women who sleep at night in the parks. Yesterday a whole batch were taken before the magistrates charged with the offence of "not having any visible means of subsistence, and not giving a satisfactory account of themselves." Of late the parks have been infested at night with these miserable outcasts; and, at last, the nuisance to "respectable people" has become so great that the police have received orders to put down sleeping in the open air with the thermometer below freezing and the ground covered with trodden snow. The culprits guilty of this breach of good manners were first taken to the workhouse, but the overseers refused to receive them, because they had been inmates there not long ago, and had discharged themselves; so they were removed to the police court, and were there, no doubt greatly to their delight, committed to prison for one month as vagrants.

About the moral fate of these unhappy creatures there is no particular cause for sentimentalism. They were no more seduced governesses or fallen milliners than they were angels of purity. They were simply the most degraded of common street-walkers, the lowest refuse of the criminal classes. But still, their abject, hopeless misery is, as it were, the index of the sufferings of a class but little removed above them. It is not only thieves and prostitutes who may be found in the parks at night, without home or food or shelter. What is to be done, I cannot tell clearly; but this much, I think, is certain, that there must be something radically wrong in a state of society where such things can be. To Londoners the sight of beggars and outcasts about our streets is so common that they hardly appreciate its significance; but those who like myself have lived much in countries where these sights are unknown, can hardly, I think, avoid a painful jar upon our sense of right that we are thus compelled to recognize the contrast between the misery and luxury of this overgrown metropolis. And it is not odd that a large and increasing section of sincere Liberals have grown to be almost indifferent to political reform in the presence of the social evils amongst us crying for redress. Questions about the franchise or the ballot or redistribution of seats vanish into insignificance compared with the consideration of the problems of labor; and I attribute no small share of the apparent indifference about electoral reform to a sincere, though I believe a mistaken, scepticism as to the power of any political agitation to remedy the real evils which beset the English laboring classes. Talking of pauperism, I am afraid that the trustees of the munificent Peabody donation, whose report has just been issued, have failed to carry out the wishes of the donor. As I have understood from persons acquainted with him, the desire of the great Anglo-American millionaire was to do something for the poor of London—for that especial class of the poor which abounds in the country of his adoption, and is scarcely to be found in the country of his birth—the class which has neither roof to shelter them, nor food to eat, nor work to do. The trustees have employed his bequest in building a number of model lodging-houses, which will afford excellent abodes for well-to-do mechanics at moderate rents. The Peabody Fund will thus serve a very excellent purpose, but not that for which it was designed. Moreover, the donor ought to have lived long enough in England to know what would be the fate of moneys bequeathed in trust. It is not in English nature to resist the temptation of having some tangible object in the way of bricks and mortar, secretaries and managers, to show for your money. If you want to do good here, give as freely as you like, but never leave money in trust for charitable purposes.

Meanwhile, the lull in politics still continues. Indeed, the one event of the week has been the appointment of Mr. Goschen to the vacant seat in the cabinet. I wrote to you some weeks ago about this gentleman's career. The Chancellorship of the Duchy of Lancaster, to which he has been raised from the comparatively insignificant office of Under-Secretary for the Board of Trade, to which he was appointed a few weeks ago, is a complete sinecure. It is an office which does not involve a seat in the cabinet, but to which a seat is generally attached, as it has been in the present instance. On the whole, the selection has given general satisfaction. Strange to say, it has done so not so much from Mr. Goschen's personal merits as from one quality of his—for which he can claim no especial gratitude—I mean his youth. We have had of late a perfect plethora of old ministers. Within my own recollection, I can recall no previous instance where a man under five-and-thirty, not the scion of a noble house, or favored with family interests, ever had a seat in the cabinet. We have no objection to old statesmen, as was testified by the popularity of Lord Palmerston, and perhaps still more by the public esteem for Earl Russell, but it is possible to have too much even of old men; and the country had long grown weary of the series of elderly baronets and grey-haired country magnates who of late years have been deemed the only available candidates for office under a Liberal administration. Mr. Goschen is in the very prime of life, has been trained out of the stereotyped official school, and will bring new blood into the Ministry. He represents, however, no very distinct party, and has no personal following; and I should doubt his adding much political strength to the Ministry. His accession will certainly not counterbalance the injury inflicted on the administration by the discovery that Mr. Cardwell, the Colonial Secretary, wrote a despatch congratulating Governor Eyre on his vigorous suppression of the Jamaica rising. This despatch was written before the full news of the bloodthirsty measures of reprisal taken by the whites had been received in England; and some excuse must be made for its being composed on insufficient data. But the awkward fact remains, that the colonial minister has more or less officially pledged himself to the approval of the very proceedings whose apparent enormity created the public demand for rigid enquiry. Mr. Cardwell would have stood much better with the world if he had frankly acknowledged his having already expressed an opinion on the matter when first he resolved to give way to the outcry for a commission. As it is, he is in a false position, and has offended Eyre's supporters by suspending him from his governorship, while he has alienated the opponents of the planter interest by identifying himself with the impugned officials. The fact that such a despatch existed explains a good deal of the apparent irresolution of the Ministry, because, unless they were prepared to throw Mr. Cardwell overboard, they are all more or less responsible for this expression of opinion. Whatever else happens, it is pretty certain that there must be a change in the colonial secretaryship. Mr. Cardwell is one of those men who are found in power under every representative government, who are in office simply because they have been there before. A man of singularly little ability—at least as far as the public knows—he has existed on the sort of collective reputation enjoyed by the Peelite party, to which he formerly belonged. There is nothing to be said against him, and as little for him; so that as long as he made no conspicuous blunder, there was no reason why he should not remain a minister; and with us the sense of any politician's "vested interest" in office is extremely powerful. But now that he has committed a gross error of policy, not to mention principle, his insignificance will fail to protect him.

Commercially, there is a sort of panic going on this week. The Bank has raised its rate of discount to eight per cent.; and there is an impression that the rates will go much higher. As far as an outsider can understand the mysteries of finance, it seems that the object of this commercial *coup d'état* is to stop the drain of gold from the country. Why the Bank of England should consider itself bound to regulate the course of trade, is one not only, as Lord Dundreary says, "no fellow can be expected to comprehend," but which, to my humble apprehension, no fellow does comprehend. However, it is a tradition in the City that some unknown calamity would occur if there was less than a certain reserve of bullion in the Bank cellars; and we worship our traditional maxims with the same unreasoning faith as the African does his "fetish." The *Times* took advantage of this rise in the Bank rates to deliver a tremendous protest against the dangers of our own trade with America, and the probability that our vast exports since the war would never be paid for in full. The article, granted the premises, was sound

enough. Unfortunately, it appeared on investigation that since the resumption of the cotton trade our imports from the United States greatly exceed our exports, and that, therefore, our solvency is more important to American merchants than theirs is to our own. Since the discovery of this fact the *Times* has been making various ineffectual efforts to explain that it only meant to counsel the public generally against the dangers of over-trading. Since I wrote to you, a week or two ago, about the rumored dissensions between the proprietors and managers of the "leading journal," the existence of any such dissension has been denied by one or two newspapers which profess to have private intelligence on the subject. For my own part, I can only repeat to you the current talk of the clubs and the newspaper world. On questions of this kind it is, as I told you at the time, impossible to arrive at positive truth.

Last Sunday a new movement of a somewhat remarkable kind was set on foot in London. At St. Martin's Hall there was given the first of a series of "Sunday services for the people." Professor Huxley delivered a lecture on "the desirableness of improving natural knowledge," and the lecture was followed by an oratorio, performed by professional paid singers. On the following Sundays discourses will be delivered by Sir John Bowring, Mr. Carpenter, Mr. Heywood, and others, all belonging to the advanced school of social and scientific reformers. The entertainment is not perhaps a very lively one, but the hall was literally crowded on the first night. Some years ago there would have been a furious outcry throughout the religious world against the desecration of the Sabbath contained in a series of secular lectures and concerts given at the very hour of evening service. But in religious matters we are far more tolerant than we used to be.

Talking of lectures, a Miss Emma Hardinge has just announced a course of orations in London, on America. I do not know whether, as is reported, she had any celebrity in the States. Some years ago she was an actress, and not a very successful one, at the Adelphi Theatre. I presume, from the number of Spiritualists I saw at her inaugural lecture, that she has a Spiritualistic connection. Women lecturers are not popular in England, and Miss Hardinge will scarcely, I think, create a sensation here.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, Jan. 12, 1866.

So long a succession of violent gales as that which has been afflicting the Atlantic and its shores for nearly a week, has rarely been known; and so numerous are the wrecks already reported that great fears are entertained for the safety of the ships of which no tidings have yet reached us. The violence of the wind has not been confined to the sea. Trees and chimneys have suffered severely in Paris, the wind being often almost more than a strong man could withstand; roofs have been lifted bodily off some of the houses in London, one which fell, entire, into the middle of the road in crowded Fleet Street doing no harm, strange to say, to man or beast in its formidable descent; in Antwerp, people have been lifted off the ground and carried for several yards through the air; and similar experiences are reported from other quarters. The prevalence of rainy weather has been a great disappointment to the lovers of skating, an amusement which has lately been brought into fashion here by the numerous Russian colony, aided also by the American residents, many of whom are as accomplished in the skater's art as the Russians themselves. The example of the Emperor, who is an accomplished skater, and always "goes on the ice" with the Empress and the court when there is any ice to go upon, has tended still further to make skating a "rage" here; so that one might almost suppose, on seeing the eagerness with which the fashionable world is looking out for a fall of the thermometer, that the rigors of a Northern winter were the most enviable of all possible windfalls. To satisfy this new passion, a group of the leaders of the gay world of Paris, with Prince Joachim Murat, Prince d'Hénin, and Marquis de Morny at their head, have founded "The Skaters' Club," an organization commenced last winter, but only now fully completed. The club has rented, from the municipality, the lake of the Bois de Boulogne, 750 metres long by 150 wide, with a broad walk round it, an elegant *chalet*, where dinners, suppers, and refreshments are to be provided by a high priest of the culinary art, and warm parlors kept ready for the use of the members; the whole encircled by a low wall, surmounted by a handsome railing, and entered by a lofty gate, surmounted by gilded candelabra. Here the members, who are only received under stringent conditions, will have the right to skate whenever the club committee declares the ice to be in good order, membership being withdrawn from any who should persist in going on the ice when the latter has not been proclaimed to be "in order." The club proposes to give several brilliant night-fêtes this winter, including balls, at which the guests will skate through cotillions and waltzes; the scene to be made gorgeous with electric lights and Bengal fires, and the buffets to be lavishly supplied with spiced wines and other defrigerating beverages. But, though the first snow of the season is coming down as I write, there are no indications of its being probable that the club will have any immediate opportunity of putting its programme into execution.

There being a great fancy just now for clubs, the wags are declaring that a number of the lady-leaders of the gay world, having determined to revenge themselves on the gentlemen for their exclusion from the favorite "circles" of the day, have held various meetings with a view to the formation of a female club, from which all males should be rigidly excluded; but that, owing to the preliminary adoption of a resolution declaring that the office of president should be held by the oldest member, and that of secretary by the youngest, the project has at last been abandoned, it having been found impossible to obtain a president, and every one of the members claiming the right to be the secretary.

As for the lectures which, under the name of "conferences," are just now so popular here, some little disappointment has been caused by the "oozing out," at the last moment, of George Sand's courage; the renowned novelist, who had engaged to be one of the lecturers, having just published "a card" ignominiously assuring the public that, "in her own opinion and that of the friends who know her best, it will be absolutely impossible for her to muster up the necessary nerve for facing an audience," but adding, to console the public for her defection, that "she will gladly do whatever the conference committee shall suggest to further the charitable aims of the society." The brilliant authoress is, in fact, like the rest of her contemporaries, obeying the fatal law which leaves us no alternative but to die or to grow old; and those who may have happened to see the recent photographs of her, of Lamartine, Thiers, Guizot, Hugo, and the rest of the writers of the same period, with whose names and whose younger faces the world is so familiar, and who have been struck by the unmistakable evidences of decay in their sharp and wizened features, will not wonder that the great novelist has shrunk from the trial which she had thought herself strong enough to undergo. A certain Miss Emma Hardinge, said to have been lecturing with great brilliancy and success on all possible topics in the United States, "from which she has just returned," is coming to this city, it appears, after giving the series of lectures which are being advertised in London. The lady's biography being unknown to the public of the modern Babel, and a very pretty and clever actress of that name, reputed to possess considerable literary talent, having vanished a few years since from the boards of the Adelphi, it is surmised that the lecturess may possibly be the ex-actress coming out in a new character and on a new stage.

Twelfth Night, "Old Christmas Day," "the Fête of the Kings," as it is called here, has been honored with the usual observance; the Russians lighting up Christmas-trees in great abundance, the French putting a bean in the Twelfth Night cake, and Anglo-Saxons keeping to the old tradition of "the ring," and all celebrating the occasion with family dinners or evening parties. At the Twelfth Night dinner given at the Tuileries the cake was cut by the Empress, as usual, the pieces being carried round to the guests on a tray. The bean fell to the lot of Princess Hohenzollern; she gave it to the Prince Imperial, who thus became king for the rest of the evening, and exercised his power by imposing his sovereign commands on all the guests. His little highness, moreover, presented to the Princess a diamond bracelet, which he begged her to accept as a *souvenir* of the royalty he owed to her.

One of the prettiest actresses of Paris, Mlle. Colombier, celebrated the evening by giving an entertainment so gay and so splendid that those of her acquaintances who were *not* invited to it have been made furiously angry at the exclusion, one or two of them going so far as to write vituperative letters, expressive of their views in regard to hostess and party, to the *Figaro* and other scandal-mongering papers of the capital. To these complaints Mlle. Colombier, who makes a large income ostensibly by playing the part of innocent girls in the anything but innocent plays so greatly in favor in Parisian theatres, writes back to say that "although certain pieces (naming those in which the complainants appear) may be very popular with the public, they may well alarm the mistress of a house who lives in a very limited circle; besides which," adds the lady, with the scratch of a genuine set of French nails, "I made it a point to have only young people at my party."

The public of Vienna have greatly enjoyed the joke that was played off, on the evening in question, on one of the highest dignitaries of the Austrian Government, who, in the midst of the brilliant entertainment he was giving on the occasion, was informed that Alexander Dumas had presented himself, asking admission to the soirée, and volunteering to deliver a portion of his famous "lecture" for the amusement of his excellency's guests. His excellency, so goes the story, delighted to receive so distinguished an illustra-

tion, promptly accepted the offer, and the brilliant author of "Monte Christo" —who is said to have gone to Vienna for the purpose of repeating the "lecture" that was so much admired in this city—was ushered into the drawing-room, where he made himself extremely agreeable, and recited fragments of his "lecture" amidst the enthusiastic applause of all present. It was not until the following day that the minister became aware that the brilliant guest of the preceding evening was a false Dumas, got up with wonderful skill, and equal success, and that the whole affair was a merry hoax, the result of a wager, contrived for the purpose of mystifying the minister and his guests. The supposititious Dumas, to atone for his audacity in "taking in" so exalted a personage as a minister, has made over the proceeds of his wager to the poor of the capital.

The Pope has celebrated the festival by the usual benediction of a hat and sword, which objects are afterwards sent to some one of the sovereigns of Europe in recognition of the recipient's services as a "defender of the faith." But as, just now, no one among the forty-three reigning sovereigns of Europe (counting the German rulers and the Prince of Monaco) has any claim to such a distinction, the objects in question, after receiving the Papal benediction, were carefully put away to await the return of happier times.

The Prince of Monaco, who rules as an independent sovereign, theoretically as much a monarch as the Emperor of the French, a tiny dominion of a few square miles, whose income is derived from the profits of one of the worst gambling-houses of Europe, has long been set down as the most infinitesimal of sovereigns. But it appears that there is one representative of royalty still more infinitesimal than that of Monaco, viz., the traditional "Roi d'Yvetot," immortalized by Béranger, and still extant in the person of his lineal descendant, the present Marquis d'Albou. The Kings of Yvetot are by no means the mythical personages they have generally been supposed to be. King Clothaire having, about the year A.D. 520, assassinated his vassal, Gaulthier of Yvetot, in the church of Soissons, was threatened by Pope Agapet with excommunication if he did not make some reparation for his crime. The King submitted to the Pope's orders and raised the estate of Yvetot into a sovereignty exempt from all vassalage. The descendants of the victim thus became kings, like his murderer. This state of things continued until 1681, when the parliament deprived the territory of a part of its privileges, but still left the inhabitants exempt from the payment of taxes. The Revolution at length swept away all distinctions; but there are dukes without duchies, and the Kings of Yvetot survived the loss of their kingdom. The present monarch has no children and only one brother, the Count d'Albou, a bachelor; and as the Salic law prevails in Yvetot, and the marquis's daughters could not inherit the king's title, the kingdom was in danger of becoming extinct. That difficulty, however, was got over by the count's doing, as so many uncles do in France, marrying one of his nieces, who, a week ago, gave birth to "a prince," presumptive heir to the royalty of Yvetot.

STELLA.

Correspondence.

HOW TO SECURE INDUSTRIAL SUPREMACY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

A motion was lately made in Congress to enquire whether additional legislation was not needed for the protection of some native manufactures. As this motion happened to be made by a senator largely interested in cotton spinning, the *Evening Post*, as the leading organ of the free-traders of this country, not unnaturally took advantage of the opportunity to point to the large dividends lately declared by several cotton manufacturing companies. But the inference drawn was anything but a fair one. It would not be possible to find amongst the factory owners, whatever some individuals may say or think, any large number in favor of increase in the present rate of duties or who would oppose any such reduction of them as would promise an increase of revenue to the Government, provided the tariff were so adjusted as to maintain that equality between the import duties and the internal taxes which economists of every school acknowledge to be both just and necessary. This done, they would certainly be content with such incidental protection as a well-adjusted tariff would give them, whether their special interests were kept in sight in forming it or not.

The cause of free trade cannot possibly be served by misrepresenting the state of opinion amongst the manufacturers. At the present moment, most of them are in favor of further enquiry as to the bearings of the present tariff upon their interests, for the simple reason that many branches of industry are really now only saved from absolute destruction by the premium on gold, the internal revenue taxes levied on them being so great as to exceed the duty on foreign imports of the same class if currency were at par. With currency constantly tending to par, the anxiety of those engaged in them is natural enough. I should like to know what commercial authority, native or foreign, has ever maintained that it is sound policy to extinguish branches of native industry by taxation from which foreign products are exempt.

One of the commonest of the arguments for protection is based on the alleged necessity of protecting our workmen from the competition of the "pauper labor" of England. Now the fact is that there is no such thing as "pauper labor" in any leading branch of manufacturing industry in England. There is pauper labor, or the next thing to it, in the agricultural districts. But if we place before the public a comparative statement of the wages of factory operatives and mechanics in England and in this country, and reduce our own wages to gold, it will be found that there is but little difference between them, and that in many branches of industry—metal-working, for example—the English artisan receives higher pay than the American. And even if it were not true that the wages in money are much more nearly equal than is commonly supposed, it certainly is true that the wages of English workmen will purchase more of the necessaries of life than those of the American workman—and this is after all the real test of the rate of wages.

But there is perhaps no branch of foreign industry which suggests so much food for reflection to any candid American, whether protectionist or free-trader, as the state of the English iron trade. The *London Economist* of January 6—the great English authority on this class of subjects—has a most significant and interesting article on the approaching exhaustion of the English coal mines. The great power of England as an industrial competitor of other countries has always lain, not, as is popularly supposed, in her cheap labor, but in her cheap machinery, and her machinery has been cheap because her beds of coal and beds of iron lay side by side and were easily worked. This advantage is now passing away, and the importance of this fact is really tremendous. It opens up a vista of changes, both social and political, so startling that I can here only allude to them. English writers admit the superiority of American iron and the cheapness of American coal, and do not shrink from glancing at the possible consequences of these two facts.

The article in the *Economist* of which I have just spoken says:

"Of 136,000,000 tons of iron now raised throughout the world, Great Britain produces eighty million, and the United States only twenty. But this is only because we have had the first start, and because our population is far denser, and because our iron and our coal lie conveniently for each other, and conveniently for carriage. *As soon as America is densely peopled, to America must both our iron and our coal supremacy—and all involved therein—be transferred*, for the United States are in these respects immeasurably richer than even Great Britain. Their coal fields are estimated at 196,000 square miles in extent, while ours are only 5,400. But this is not all: their coal is often better in quality and incomparably more accessible than ours, especially in the Ohio Valley. In some places the cost at the pits' mouth even now is two shillings per ton in America, against six shillings in England."

The *Economist*, while admitting our superiority, however, postpones the transfer of power until we have a dense population. But we should have to wait a century for this most undesirable consummation in the ordinary course of things. Let us rather transfer the supremacy of England in coal and iron, and all involved in it, by diminishing the density of her mining population and by raising the standard of wages in England to an entire equality with our own; then, with our higher standard of education for the mass of our people, we can compete with her in all the markets of the world.

We must bear in mind that we transfer supremacy in every branch of manufacture or commerce when we transfer supremacy in iron. On machinery built from cheap iron, England manufactures raw material drawn from every quarter of the globe, and in cheap iron vessels, propelled by cheap iron engines, she sends out her finished product. The place to attack her, therefore, is her mines. The discussions of the war have diffused knowledge of this country among her people; give them the means and organize emigration by spreading information among her miners, and they will flock to our shores. But how shall we give them the means? Reduce the multiplied taxes upon iron in this country, simplify our revenue system upon that, if upon nothing else, and then reduce the tariff upon iron.

Let our revenue be raised, either by tax or tariff, upon anything rather than coal or iron. Let us have cheap railroads, mills, machines, and implements. Tax the product, but not the iron tools. By thus cheapening iron you create a new demand upon England for more product, and certain results must follow. Her metal-workers are now paid higher wages than in this country, *but her miners are not.* Raise the wages of her miners by a

large and sudden demand for the coarser forms of iron, pig-iron bars, rails, etc., now so much needed for the extension of our railroads, then spread information among them by which they will be induced to use the means thus acquired to transfer themselves from the deep, unhealthy, and hardly-worked mines of England to the easily-worked surface-mines of this country. And when you have thus transferred a portion of the mining population, the metal-workers must follow. The mining industry of England is now pressed to its utmost; a very slight additional demand would raise wages even to an extravagant point, as the sudden demand upon Lancashire has raised the wages of the operatives in the cotton factories, and, with the means thus acquired, there cannot be a doubt that such emigration of miners might be induced as for ever to equalize the cost of iron in England and the United States. Remove ten per cent. of her mining population, and fifty years would not suffice for her to repair the loss.

A skilled miner cannot be made in a day. The ignorant, under-fed clod-hopper, who now tills the English farm, even though he may wish to do so, cannot become a miner. The miner of England is in some senses the product of the mine; his ability to bear the underground life and to perform the specific labor is the growth of generations. The children of English miners must be bred among the mines, they cannot be bred elsewhere. Remove the adults and we not only affect the present cost of English iron, but we affect it for all time, for we remove from a life which, in consequence of the depth of the English mines, has become almost unbearable those who would never have borne such a life had they not been born and bred to it, and to which, as it becomes worse and worse with increasing depth, no new class can ever be trained.

The course proposed here would be no injury to our iron-masters, but a positive benefit to them. They too are now struggling against an ill-adjusted tax and tariff bill; let them, instead of asking more protection, ask for less taxes. It has become evident that when the arrearages of the war are paid up, and the tax on spirits, tobacco, and cotton systematized, the industry of the country may be partly relieved; and the slightest investigation would bring every manufacturer or merchant to the aid of the iron-master if he would ask that the first relief may be extended to him. A tax upon iron is a tax upon every form of industry of the most injurious nature.

A Manufacturer.

January 28.

REPOSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

All the influences of our climate, of our political institutions, of our social habits, tend to energetic action and immediate practical results. We have accepted the old saying, *Laborare est orare*, in its most literal sense, and made work a part of our religion. Naturally enough; for without much work there can be no progress, and the American is bound to "go ahead." And thus the railroad, symbol of progress, bids fair to supplant the eagle as our national emblem, if not on our coins at least in the mouths of our orators and lecturers. Some of these, indeed, take it for the type and representative of everything that seems to them good. Now it is man in general who is compared to the railway, now the American man particularly; at one time the age, at another Christianity itself. I assure your readers that I am not joking or exaggerating, and if there is any irreverence in the last comparison the fault is not mine, but that of the man who made it, the popular author, Dr. Timothy Titcomb Holland.

As yet, however, there have been an exception and a qualification, both pretty generally admitted. First, a tolerably wide exemption from the prevalent necessity was accorded to all women whose husbands or fathers occupied any position above that of the day-laborer; secondly, professional men were supposed to be absolved from any participation in the manual industry of the country: they were not expected to work with their hands because they worked with their heads.

Against the continuance of this exception and this qualification no less a writer than Mrs. Stowe declaims in a recent number of the "Atlantic Monthly." In the article above mentioned she distinctly recommends that ladies should be their own servants and gentlemen their own mechanics, not altogether, indeed (for that would set us back to Robinson Crusoe's island at once), but partially and on principle. Nothing better illustrates the difficulty of the "servant gal" problem than that a writer of Mrs. Stowe's ability, in attempting to solve it, should be led to revive Rousseauism in a slightly modified form, and recommend a retrograde movement toward the first elements of civilization.

Recreation, according to Mrs. Stowe, is an aristocratic device. It was adopted as a class distinction. The spirit of caste required that physical labor should be dishonorable; therefore when rich men had to perform some physical labor for the sake of their health, it must be useless (or unproductive, as a political economist would say), riding, shooting, and the like. According to democratic principles, manual labor is not dishonorable; but we shall never be complete democrats in practice till we prove our faith by all taking a share in it. Hand-work is just as good as head-work, and should be the only relief to head-work. The lawyer, for instance, we suppose, should cobble his own roof and shovel his own coal, instead of taking a "constitutional" in the park or a shooting excursion to the Adirondacks.

Of the many objections to this theory, each grave enough to be in itself fatal, I shall present but two, which seem to me so simple and obvious that were it not for the fact that we find them wholly overlooked by those who write most on the subject, and for the largest audiences, I should think it hardly respectful to your readers to engage in its discussion. The first is its inhumanity. To use a popular phrase, it is cruelty to animals. Children require some sort of play; that is pretty generally admitted. But men require play also, though they dignify it by the names of relaxation, diversion, recreation. And the more thoroughly serious the work, the more thoroughly recreative should the recreation be. It must be play, not the substitution of one sort of work for another. So much so, that when any species of manual labor is fancied as an amusement, the natural tendency is to expend it on objects not of immediate utility. Thus, a lad with a tool-chest will try to cut out a boat or build a sleigh; he rarely attempts to mend the front door—fortunately for all parties concerned, the door included. The result of all educational experiments goes to show that whenever not manual labor merely, but even a strict military or gymnastic drill, is substituted for amusement, one of two things happens, either the regular studies suffer, or the double work breaks down all the students except the picked specimens. West Point weeds out more than sixty per cent. of its cadets.

It is a poor rule that will not work both ways. Would Mrs. Stowe expect a mechanic after eight or ten hours' work to sit down contentedly to "Mill on Hamilton," or "Wheaton on International Law?" Yet she seems to expect the merchant, after his work, to solace himself with mending the kitchen wall where the Croton pipe has burst.

Such is the primary use of those recreations which Mrs. Stowe, in her mistaken zeal against everything that can be tortured into a connection with aristocracy, stigmatizes as useless. She might as well grudge the time spent in sleep, and call it wasted.

The second objection which I shall make to the theory that in an ideal state of society every man will hew his own wood and draw his own water, is that an advance in that direction can only be accomplished by forcing a retreat of civilization. In a primitive state each individual is his own factotum, except so far as his family can divide labor with him. The settlers at a new "diggings" realize the Irish advertisement, "Every man his own washerwoman." One of the first impulses of a forming and crystallizing society is to get rid of this state of things at whatever price, whence one cause of slavery as a rudimentary stage of civilization. The obvious economical motive is that we do work sooner, better, and more cheaply by distributing it into specialties.

It is a fundamental error of many of our popular lecturers and essayists to suppose work to be an end instead of a means, or, in other words, to be absolutely and invariably good in itself. Here we may turn against them their own pet illustration of the railroad, a most excellent and necessary thing when properly managed, but sometimes, as recent experience shows, fearfully abused. And the analogy holds good more ways than one, for the cause of our railroad mishaps is the tacit assumption that the road was made for itself—that is, for the directors and stockholders to put fat dividends into their pockets—and not for the public; in short, that it was an end, not a means. The error is parallel in the two cases. Or we may compare the working virtues with courage—an admirable and valuable property—the known absence of which renders man or nation contemptible, without which neither man nor nation is ever quite safe; yet we know that it is possessed by very noxious brutes and by men little above brutes. Energy, diligence, perseverance, these are very praiseworthy qualities, no doubt, in most of their combinations; yet, after all, these are qualities of the worst sensation editor, of many a conspirator and traitor and despot, of the prince of the powers of the air himself, so far as we know anything about him. There is no contradiction or solecism in the phrase *wicked industry*.

Besides, when work is expended on objects unobjectionable in themselves, the mere element of prematureness may render it an evil instead of a good. If a road or a street is opened before it is wanted, if a hotel is built in the fields (as we have often seen them) waiting for a town to come along and ook it up, all the intervening interest is a dead loss, and often the loss is

not confined to the interest. Premature work frequently becomes a fruitful cause of mischief by making itself accessory to the wildest speculations.

Again, there is a great error in making those work who are not fit to work. When a man cannot do any particular good, the next best thing is to keep him from doing any great harm. The popular prejudice is that this end will be secured by keeping him at work, *i. e.*, pushing him into some business, which very often is about as reasonable as it would be to put an idiot in charge of a powder magazine for fear he might run after the chickens. Our journalists often hold up for admiration and imitation the successful men of business; but who ever thinks of recording the unsuccessful? Year after year hundreds of young men with some patrimony of their own embark in commerce, seem to prosper for a time, and then there is a crash, and they drag to ruin with them friends, relatives, and business connections. Better, far better, for society had they been the nominal occupants of empty offices, like the briefless barristers of London; mere club and drawing-room loungers, professed drones. This is an everyday case; there is one somewhat less common and infinitely sadder, where a man of literary or artistic tastes is urged by his family or persuaded by his friends into the money-making mill, where he spends his best years only to come to financial grief at last.

And yet our popular moralists are for ever crying out to young and old, rich and poor, "Work, work, work! Idleness is the greatest of sins. Recreation is vice. All those who administer to the amusement of others are corrupt and profligate (*vide* Timothy Titcomb *passim;* he has certainly never made himself amenable to the charge). Go to the railroad, thou sluggard; consider its ways and be wise."

I have often thought of the consequences if these good people could have their way to the uttermost. I have often tried to image to myself what this great country would be with a total suppression of public amusements and popular recreations—no dogs, guns, or horses kept for pleasure, no boat or ball clubs, no theatres or opera, and, to make the reform complete, no fictitious writings without a moral, except the newspapers. Nor is this picture so visionary; we must remember that many conscientious and well-meaning persons object to all these things as desperately wicked, while many others, though not so convinced of their enormity, are inclined to regard them as wasteful and superfluous. And the result is not very difficult to guess at. Among the majority of our population, a huge increase of all manner of in-door vice; among men of property, an increased tendency to live abroad. Why is that tendency already so marked? We are never weary of asserting our superiority over Europe, and most of us really believe it. Yet there are few who have been there that do not long to return. A great many reasons are given for this, most of them partially true; but there is one of universal application, often familiarly expressed by saying that "you get more for your money abroad." There are more provisions for amusement and more opportunities for repose. Americans seek in Europe that relaxation and refreshment which they cannot easily obtain in their own country, but which come to them there without effort. That this is the principal reason one fact will show. There is a great European nation which, in its serious energy and absorbing devotion to business, nearly equals ours. True, it has an abundance of very decided national sports, but they are so strictly national and require so much special experience as to be inaccessible to the majority of strangers. And to that country not one of a hundred travelling Americans ever goes with any anticipation of pleasure, or willingly protracts his stay in it for a longer period than is necessary to gratify a traveller's curiosity.

There was a certain spice of truth in the irreverent New England jest about the final destination of good Bostonians. We cannot imagine Elysium as a place where the active virtues will be much in requisition. The necessity of work was a part of the primal curse, and though divine goodness has converted it into a blessing, still the blessing is not unmixed. *Labor vincit omnia*, but *labor* is sometimes *improbus*. T. D.

THE METAPHYSIC OF JOKING.

To the Editor of The Nation:

In a late number of your paper the questions of wit and humor have been discussed very sensibly, by example. Perhaps a metaphysical suggestion or two may not be undeserving of consideration.

Without referring to the Buddhistic dogma of emanation, or the Parmenidean unity, most people will admit that all things and facts take their source from one great first cause—be that cause law or person—and that, accordingly, all things are linked together by a certain rational bond, nay, have a certain identity and solidarity. Again, to us, at least, all things have a certain difference and separation. How these matters seem to an infinite mind, or even to an intellect correlative and equal with the whole creation, is the point where Platonists and Aristotelians differ; the common mind accepts the facts of two things being both alike and different.

Now, the human understanding, in dealing with the surrounding universe, finds it necessary, much for the sake of thought, and almost altogether for speech and action,—finds it necessary, I say, to work by means of classification, to rank things in order as well as it may by distributing them in class, order, species, and family. Indeed, all logical and scientific apprehension bases itself on this, and is a more or less sagacious arrangement into class. But, on the one hand our most imperfect apprehension of the nature of things, on the other the necessity of action and the necessity of classification accordingly, cause many, perhaps most, of our classifications to be in conflict with the deeper reason and nature of things, and all of them to be more or less imperfect.

Now, the human mind is now higher than its circumstances, and looks forward to still higher advance, and accordingly it, at least in favored instances, amuses itself by passing criticism and condemnation on even its own workings. One way is to detect similarities between things which it accepts as different, the other to notice difference in those things considered alike. The first of these qualities metaphysicians name wit, the second they entitle humor. A good illustration of the one is that treasure-house of brilliant and intense wit, "Hudibras," where, though there be much droll narrative and humorous conception, the great intellectual feat is its mass of *simile;* its richness in instances of discovery of similarity in things different. The lines,

> "When, like a lobster boiled, the morn
> From black to red began to turn,"

are a familiar and often-quoted example. On the other hand, when we consider the pre-eminent creations of humor, when we notice Falstaff, Don Quixote, Parson Adams, Lismahago, Trunnion, Bumble, Mrs. Glegg, we observe that all these persons are perfectly commonplace, and like other men, except in certain points, and the humorous power consists in the brilliant exposition of those characteristics whereby they are peculiar and different from those whom we class them with; they are, in short, cases of difference in things similar. Caliban and Ariel, on the other hand, have human characteristics, but are not human, and are creations of the opposite faculty. When we consider that master-work of humor, the "Adventures of Gulliver," it is observable that the humor lies in the insisting on the subordinate circumstance of differing bulk in creatures in all other points absolutely like Gulliver and each other, not merely in physique and intellect, but even in political, social, and generally material civilization. As for the much inferior third part, it is merely a description of a set of diseased minds, and only gratifies the lower portion of the intellect.

Meantime, it is observable that *jest* is something beyond these. People do not laugh much at Hudibras, and Gulliver might be mistaken for a grave and serious history. As Whately remarks, all jests are *fallacies;* the ludicrousness consists in the sophistical ingenuity. The point of likeness between the morning and a lobster is real and rational as far as it goes; but had it been fallacious it would have been jocose. In the question addressed to a man carrying a hare, "Is that your own hare or a wig?" there are three separate sophistications of sense, based on the varying meanings of a spoken sound. And in the saying of Pitcairn, who, on seeing a pious old bricklayer buried in the ruins of the chimney which he was building, and which had fallen with him, quoted the text: "Blessed (quere, blessés?) are the dead who die in the Lord, for they rest in their labors, and their works follow them"—in this *bon-mot* the intensity of the jest lies in the immensity of the fallacy obtruded upon us. So when Diogenes turned the stripped bird loose in the school, as an example of Plato's man (a "two-legged, unfeathered creature"), the jest lay in the assumption that a circumstance produced by art was equivalent to a characteristic of nature.

If we suppose, then, that what we laugh at in a repartee is its droll sophistry, it remains to consider what may be the equivalent in matters of humor. And here comes in Coleridge's remark, that humor consists in the ignoring the difference between the great and the little by comparing both with the infinite. Thus, the King of Lilliput's superior half-inch of stature *was* enough to strike awe into beholders, although we do not consider it as such; and Gulliver was not an infant, although the queen's women treated him as such. So great humorists bring out the peculiarities of their creations by contrasting them with something noble and normal therewith connected. Falstaff's intellect and Quixote's nobleness and generosity serve thus to show off their peculiarities; and Hawser Trunnion, with his love for Peregrine, his gratitude to Gauntlet's children, his anxiety for Emilia's happiness and honor, and his simple piety, showing the handiwork of a great humorist as opposed to Ben Foresight, who is in exterior as uncouth and droll as he.

If these ideas be correct, then—as finite minds dealing with an illimitable universe—we shall hereafter be still obliged to classify, and our classifications will be still imperfect, so that wit and humor will exist for us in another stage of being. Will fallacy and sophistication exist there? Probably, if moral evil does; so that it seems probable that jest exists hereafter. And we may make even deeper reflections. Pity and sympathy are evidently compulsions laid on us, and a just and benevolent nature would not need them, so that we may suppose that in a higher state of existence they disappear; perhaps the passionate hate of guilt may be lessened, too, in those no longer subject to temptation. In tragedy and comedy in this present life the consciousness of unreality lessens these emotions, and places us in a position akin to that which, perhaps, may be ours hereafter; and under such circumstances we view wickedness and misery, folly and vexation, with pleasure both serious and jocose. Shall it be so hereafter? Shall the vision of the evil world give us the sensation of a grand and interesting tragic show, not without comic scenes? And, as to an advancing moral insight crime must seem more and more the height of absurdity and abnormality, shall that vision steadily change more and more into an intense and tremendous farce? S. T.

SCIENCE AND AGRICULTURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Your remarks concerning the lessons taught us by the results accomplished by the agricultural schools of Germany, in your issue of the 18th ult., are timely. Plainly, there is a demand for a specific education in the sciences relating to agriculture; and this instruction should be demonstrative as far as practicable, just as the sciences relating to the treatment of the human system are taught by demonstration. But the popular notion that these schools should embrace practical farm labor and management, the actual manipulation of soils, is likely greatly to retard their usefulness and success. It is feared that too much will be attempted and too little accomplished. The attention of your readers is called to the following considerations, which are offered in no dogmatic spirit:

1. These agricultural schools should not attempt to teach the pupil what may be learned in our common schools and seminaries. A good English education should be required in the pupil before he is admitted to pursue the agricultural course of study. He should be familiar with the elementary principles of the sciences also. His knowledge of Latin should be such as to qualify him to understand scientific terms and names. To this primary education the agricultural schools should only aim to add a professional one. The physical sciences, in their especial relation to agriculture in its different departments, embrace the field of education now most needed and most neglected. Geology and chemistry as applied to the composition of soils; botany, analytic and descriptive, and the chemical physiology of plants; the anatomy and physiology of animals, embracing veterinary science; entomology, embracing especially the natural history of noxious insects and their enemies; ornithology and the natural history of our own birds; land surveying and the laws of business; these may be enumerated as constituting the proper work of an agricultural school designed to aid the American agriculturist.

2. These sciences should not be taught abstractly. In medical schools they are applied so far as to make them demonstrative. They should be so applied in the agricultural school. The adaptation of soils to the growth of the different roots, cereals, and grasses; the effect of the products of specific soils upon the physiology of animals; the geography, propagation, and hybridization of plants; the laws to be observed in the breeding of the various domestic animals; the effects of drainage upon the temperature of both soils and climate; the influence of forests upon the atmosphere and the productive capacity of a neighborhood—all these and more are topics which are suggested as growing out of the investigation of the natural sciences related to agriculture. The field is boundless, and as interesting as it is unlimited.

3. But the agricultural schools of America should not bestow their benefits exclusively upon pupils who are prepared to enter upon and steadily pursue the course of study prescribed. A large class of farmers' sons and young farmers would avail themselves of a winter course of demonstrative lectures who could not otherwise hope to receive any benefit from such schools. These should be provided and be made as practicable as possible. The scientific lecturer should be aided by the experience of practical men in each specialty. His theories should be submitted to the test of practical criticism. These schools must at first be adapted to the present wants and present acquirements of the agriculturists of this country. They must be placed within the reach of men greedy after knowledge, but whose education is that acquired by observation and experience, rather than in the schools. A scientific fact, a single law, practically demonstrated to their minds, will set in motion a spirit of enquiry which cannot fail to affect their professional character and ability most favorably.

The agricultural press of the country has done very much for American agriculture; but its chief work has been to illustrate the need there is of a more general diffusion of specific agricultural knowledge. The Congressional land grant is one of the results of this effort. There are few more important topics for discussion in your columns than the right use of that endowment—no educational question just now causing practical men so much thought and anxiety. C. D. B.

THE ORIGINAL MOTHER GOOSE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

My attention has been called to a paragraph in your journal of last week which may, perhaps, be construed as intimating a doubt of the trustworthiness of my account of the "Mother Goose" of nursery celebrity. I do not wonder that the statement should be received with some incredulity, but I am satisfied that it is correct. There is not only positive but strong negative evidence to show that this renowned lady was of New England origin. The article in my "Dictionary" was abridged from a communication to the Boston *Evening Transcript* for January 14, 1860, written in all good faith by a gentleman of undoubted veracity, residing in this vicinity. According to this authority—for he may surely be called so—"Mother Goose was not only a veritable personage, but was born and resided many years in Boston, where many of her descendants may now be found. The last that bore the ancient paternal cognomen died about the year 1807, and was buried in the Old Granary Burying-Ground, where probably lie the remains of the whole brood, if we may judge from the numerous gravestones which mark their resting-place. The family originated in England, but at what time they came to this country is unknown, but probably about the year 1656. This was the '*wealthy family of Goose*' (written also *Vergoose* and *Vertigoose*), which is immortalized by Mr. Bowditch in his book of 'Suffolk Names.' They were landholders in Boston so early as 1660. Nearly half the space between West and Winter Streets, on Washington Street, and extending westerly towards Tremont Street two hundred and seventy-five feet, belonged to this family, as did also a large tract of land on Essex, Rowe, and Bedford Streets, upon which now stand two churches and a large number of dwelling-houses. *So much for Mother Goose.* Now for her melodies. It is well known to antiquarians that more than two hundred years ago there was a small book in circulation in London, bearing the name of 'Rhymes for the Nursery; or, Lulla-Byes for Children,' which contained *many of the identical pieces* which have been handed down to us, and now form part of the 'Mother Goose's Melodies' of the present day. It contained also other pieces much more silly, if possible, and some that the *American* types of the present day would refuse to give off an impression [of]. The 'cuts' or illustrations thereof were of the coarsest description. The first book of the kind known to be printed in this country bears the title of 'Songs for the Nursery; or, Mother Goose's Melodies for Children.' Something probably intended to represent a goose, with a very long neck and mouth wide open, covered a large part of the title-page, at the bottom of which [was] 'Printed by T. Fleet, at his printing-house, Pudding Lane, 1719. Price two coppers.' Several pages were missing, so that the whole number could not be ascertained. This T. Fleet, according to Isaiah Thomas, was a man of considerable talent, and of great wit and humor. He was born in England, and was brought up in a printing-office in the city of Bristol, where he afterwards worked as a journeyman. . . . [Becoming implicated] in the riotous proceedings connected with the trial of Dr. Sacheverell, in Queen Anne's time, . . . [he] thought it prudent to put the ocean between himself and danger. He made his way to this country, and arrived in Boston, 1712. . . . It was not long before he became acquainted with the 'wealthy family of Goose,' a branch of which he had before known in Bristol, and was shortly married to the eldest daughter. By the record of marriages in the City Registrar's office, it appears that in '1715, June 8 was married, by *Rev. Cotton Mather*, *Thomas Fleet* to *Elizabeth Goose*.' The happy couple took up their residence in the same house with the printing-office in Pudding Lane," etc.

Another correspondent of the *Transcript*, writing under date of June 17, 1864, says: "That celebrated work, 'Mother Goose's Melodies,' . . . was printed by Thomas Fleet, under the title of 'Songs for the Nursery; or, Mother Goose's Melodies for Children,' and was partly a reprint of an English collection of songs. The new title was doubtless a compliment by the printer to his mother-in-law Goose, for her valuable contributions to this

immortal work; and as she was the mother and stepmother of sixteen children, we may easily trace the origin of the famous song of the

"——Old woman who lived in a shoe,
She had so many children she did n't know what to do!"

Our Mother Goose does not appear to be known in England. Halliwell has nothing whatever to say about her in his learned and well-known work on the "Nursery Rhymes of England," and I find that a correspondent of "Notes and Queries," who asked (March 26, 1864) for information as to her origin and history, obtained none that could be regarded as in any wise satisfactory. It seems, from one of the replies to his query, that there was an old flower-woman living in Oxford as late as 1818, who was popularly called Mother Goose; but she cannot, of course, have been the original Mother Goose. In 1806, a pantomime by T. Dibdin, called "Mother Goose, or the Golden Egg," was brought out at Covent Garden, and had a run of ninety-two nights, acquiring, as Dickens says ("Life of Grimaldi," ch. xii.), "a degree of popularity quite unprecedented in the history of pantomime." Our English cousins appear to have no acquaintance with any other Mother Goose than these and Perrault's. No English bibliographical work which I have consulted contains the name: it is not mentioned in any catalogue of chap-books, garlands, and popular histories, or of old or rare books, or the like.

The coincidence between the name of the imaginary relater of Perrault's fairy tales and that of the old lady whose verses charmed our infancy, though very curious, seems to have been merely accidental. But why did Perrault call his *eidolon* Mother Goose? This is a question which will, probably, occur to most who consult the "Dictionary of Fiction," and I ought to have answered it there rather than here; but, not having done so, I will repair the fault so far as I can by briefly stating Collin de Plancy's explanation, which is very plausible, and may be accepted as the true one: King Robert II. of France took to wife his relative Bertha, but was commanded by Pope Gregory V. to relinquish her, and to perform a seven-years penance for marrying within the forbidden degrees of consanguinity. Being excommunicated for disobeying the command and his kingdom laid under an interdict, everybody forsook him except two servants. Not long after, his wife having been confined, a *lusus naturæ*, somewhat resembling a deformed duck, or, as some say, a goose, was shown him, and declared to be the offspring to which she had given birth. The king, struck with horror, repudiated Bertha, and subsequently married Constance. It was further asserted that Bertha had one foot shaped like that of a goose, and the credulous populace, remembering how the wife of Pepin the Short was named "Bertha with the great foot," because one foot was larger than the other, called the divorced wife of their unhappy king "Goose-footed Bertha" and "Queen Goose." The French have a proverbial saying that any incredible tale belongs to "the time when Queen Bertha spun," and they call such a tale "one of Queen Goose's, or Mother Goose's, stories." Now, in all the vignettes which accompany the old editions of Perrault's "Contes de ma Mère l'Oye," "Mother Goose" is represented as using a distaff, and as surrounded with a group of children, whom she holds entranced by her wondrous tales.

I must add that *oie* means literally *bird*, the goose being considered as THE bird *par excellence* among domestic fowls. The word comes from the Latin *avis*, a diminutive form of which, in the barbarous Latinity of the Middle Ages, was *avica* or *auca*; in Spanish, Portuguese, and Italian, *oca*. This form is feminine, and the Romanic languages have no cognate word that properly designates a gander. Hence, to mark the sex, when the female is intended, the French say *La Mère Oie*, Mother Goose. Similarly we speak of a *hen-sparrow*, of *cock-robin*, of *Jenny Wren*, etc.

I remain, sir,

Very respectfully yours,

WILLIAM A. WHEELER.

ROXBURY, Mass., Jan. 31, 1866.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

THE report of the Special Commission appointed to consider the subject of internal revenue in all its branches touches, as might be expected, on the burdens inflicted by the present system on the manufacture of books in this country. It is asserted, and no doubt with truth, that, including licenses and income tax, the printed book and its constituent materials pay from twelve to fifteen distinct taxes before it reaches the reader. Every separate item that enters into the book—paper, cloth, boards, glue, thread, gold leaf, leather, and type material—pays from three to six per cent. in the first instance and then five per cent. on the whole combined, and this not on the cost of the manufactured article, but upon the price at which it is sold—a tax upon knowledge which, in the language of the report, "can only be justified on the grounds of imperative necessity." The sum, after all, received from the internal taxation on "books, magazines, etc.," is so insignificant that no financial considerations can be urged for a moment to justify its continuance. The total amount is only $354,528 (one-third less than what is procured from the article "confectionery"), so that there is every prospect of the release of the trade from a vexatious and burdensome impost.

—The reprint of Cadwallader Colden's "History of the Five Indian Nations depending on the Province of New York," a fac-simile of William Bradford's New York edition of 1727, announced by Mr. T. H. Morell, of 134 Fulton Street, has just appeared, and does honor to the taste and enterprise of the publisher. It is undoubtedly the most valuable book that the present rage for privately printed and limited editions of rare books has produced. The scarcity of the original is so great that it was never seen by Mr. O. Rich, the American bibliographer, who passed a long life in searching out and recording the materials for American history. Of late years a copy, long considered unique, was in the library of Hon. H. C. Murphy, of Brooklyn; and more recently three others have rewarded the diligent search of collectors, from one of which the present reprint is made. The value of the original cannot be considered as less than one hundred and fifty dollars, and from that to as much more as the condition of the copy and the competition of buyers might carry it to. The reprint is confined to one hundred and twenty-five copies in octavo, and thirty on large paper in imperial octavo. It is accompanied with a fine portrait of Governor Colden, and an introduction and notes by John Gilmary Shea, including a memoir of the author and the curious literary history of the work. The circumstances of its publication in America and England give an ample justification, if any were needed, for the collecting of first editions, for reasons independent of mere considerations of scarcity. The editor shows that it is only since the discovery of this original impression that we are acquainted with the real production of Governor Colden, the unauthorized suppressions and alterations of the later editions, now for the first time evident, depriving them of all claim to authority. We understand the price of the few remaining copies of this book will be raised in a very short time, and would recommend all New Yorkers curious in the history of their native State to lose no time in securing one.

—Proposals have been issued for a new photo-lithographic impression of the first English book of emblems, a rare and curious work written by Geffrey Whitney, a native of Cheshire, and printed by Christopher Plantin, at Leyden, in 1586. It is entitled "A Choice of Emblems and other Devices," and contains two hundred and forty-seven emblematic engravings and devices on wood accompanied by quaint old verses. The edition is undertaken by the Rev. Henry Green, of Knutsford, Cheshire, who says, in a note to a friend in America, referring to the work: "The author, Geffrey Whitney, has, I understand, several of his name and some descendants from his family in the United States, and I am desirous, if I could, of being placed in communication with them, so as to secure their co-operation in the work." Should any of our numerous Whitneys respond to Mr. Green's wish, Messrs. Scribner & Co., of 124 Grand Street, New York, will take charge of anything intended for him. The reprint is undertaken on a very liberal and satisfactory scale. The number of copies printed, on tinted paper, the exact size of the original edition, is four hundred and fifty, at twenty-five shillings each, the price of which will be raised after publication to £2 2s., and fifty copies of a larger size in demi-quarto; all of these latter have been subscribed for. A general history of emblem books and the literature of the subject will be given, including a bibliography of all the English works of the kind, essays by the editor on their relations to our early literature, "Shakespeare's references to emblem books," etc., etc., illustrated with plates from the various earlier emblems, and every information requisite to form a complete work on an important and curious branch of artistic and ethical enquiry.

—A new spirited publishing firm, Messrs. Leypoldt & Holt, have established themselves at 646 Broadway, and boldly assert their intention to "devote themselves to the dissemination of what is best in literature, and to that alone." A business commenced on such a principle deserves to command success. Mr. Leypoldt's antecedents as a publisher give a pledge for his taste and enterprise on a wider field of action. Among other announcements of the firm is a series of poems representative of the literature of various remote nations, each one accompanied by an introduction to the literature of the country by competent and well-known scholars. Those already

determined on are, the Sanscrit "Sakuntala, or the Fatal Ring," by Calidasa, first made known to Europe by Sir William Jones; the Swedish "Frithiof's Saga," by Tegner; the Danish "King Renè's Daughter;" and the German "Nathan the Wise," by Lessing. Messrs. Leypoldt & Holt also propose to issue a translation of Dr. Carl Friedrich Neumann's "History of the United States of America," a work that has lately attracted the attention of the press among us, and has done more for the diffusion of correct views of American institutions in Europe than any book since that of De Tocqueville. It is undertaken by an American scholar of well-known acquirements, and will form three volumes octavo.

—Professor Masson has signalized the commencement of his Edinburgh academical career by a lecture on "Milton." It may be taken as a sign that he is still occupied with the subject of his great unfinished work on the life, times, and writings of that poet, the first volume of which appeared some eight or ten years since, without any subsequent hints of further progress. Among other facts he mentioned that Milton had carefully studied the Scriptures and the early British history with the object of discovering what subject afforded the greatest capabilities for a poem, and had selected no fewer than one hundred subjects from which to choose one for his great work, and amongst those taken from Scottish history was Macbeth, which he thought a possible subject to be treated even after Shakespeare. Prof. Masson's theory of the composition of "Paradise Lost" is that it was dictated bit by bit—a few lines a day—to any person who might call upon Milton. He entirely repudiates the charming domestic fictions of "Mary Powell" and "Deborah's Diary," which, thanks to Miss Manning's Defoe-like talent for giving an appearance of reality to fiction, bid fair to be mistaken for real history. On the contrary, the picture of "Milton dictating to his Daughters," who sit "rapt and reverential," he considers pure fantasy, and asserts that they pawned his books, wished him dead, and conducted themselves generally in the most uncomfortable manner possible. As Prof. Masson has carefully studied every existing particle of evidence relating to Milton, his opinion is no doubt worthy of confidence.

—The recent death of Miss Frederika Bremer will recall strongly to readers of twenty-two years' standing the lively sensation that was excited when her works first made people realize that the frozen North sheltered in its icy bosom men and women of flesh and blood akin to ourselves—actuated by the same little round of loves, jealousies, rivalries, affectations, and pretensions as our own. The combination of the great truths common to human nature with scenes and manners strange and unfamiliar gave a piquancy to her writings that was enhanced by the quick feminine eye for character, quiet humor, and capacity for the expression of deep feeling that gave Miss Bremer a high place among contemporary female writers. She was fortunate in owing her introduction to the English reading public to Mary Howitt, by whom her novels were translated from the German versions. They are still read, and retain their place among the world's standard works of fiction. Miss Bremer was born in 1802. After the immediate success of her novels, the latter portion of her life seems to have been as rambling and unsettled as its first half was retired and sedentary. She wrote and published books of travel in Germany, England, America, Greece, and Italy, scarcely to the increase of the reputation she had already obtained. To a stranger, few traces of the celebrated authoress were discernible in the outward appearance of the quiet, homely, and "dowdy" little lady who will be remembered as a visitor to the United States some fifteen years since, and who left a genial impression among all who penetrated beneath the exterior so as to become really acquainted with her.

—The new and greatly enlarged edition of Mr. Ferguson's "History of Architecture in all Countries" shows the progress recently made by the rising study of ethnology—in his words, "though the youngest, neither the least beautiful nor the least attractive of that fair sisterhood of sciences whose birth has rewarded the patient industry and inflexible love of truth which characterizes the philosophy of the present day." The work is preceded by and based upon a view of "Ethnography as applied to Architectural Art." This affords an excellent and powerfully written synopsis of the results of the science as respects the inherent differences in the religion, government, morals, literature, arts, and sciences of each existing race in the world's history. Mr. Ferguson varies slightly from the most generally received authorities by reckoning among the great primary stems of mankind—the Turanian, Semitic, and Aryan—the Celts, as a people distinguished by peculiarities so strongly marked, particularly in art and literature, as to constitute them a separate and distinct family. In its improved shape "The History of Architecture" will be more than double the dimensions of Mr. Ferguson's former book, for some time out of print, "The Hand-Book of Architecture," and is the most general and complete view of the science in our language. The indefatigable author gives a sketch of the remaining books that would be necessary to constitute the full and exhaustive treatment of the subject. They are an "Index of Buildings," or *catalogue raisonnè* of all the remarkable structures in the world, with particulars of their date, style, architect, etc.; a "New Parallel of Architecture," in about ten volumes, small folio, representing on the same scale the most striking examples of the different styles applied to similar uses; a popular "History of Military Architecture" among the nations of antiquity, the Middle Ages, and modern times; and the "History of Civil Engineering," which should include the great works, aqueducts, bridges, etc., where utility rather than beauty becomes the guiding principle of construction.

—A report to the Belgian Minister of the Interior, by Messrs. Van Beneden and Dupont, furnishes additional information regarding the curious researches in the primeval history of the human family that now occupy so large a portion of the attention of the scientific world. These gentlemen, who have long been engaged in the pursuit, have been rewarded by the discovery of what may be considered a model cave-dwelling on the banks of the river Lesse. It is described as well lighted, traversed by a spring, easy of access, and its situation most picturesque, in short, presenting every requisite of a "desirable family mansion" for our troglodytic ancestors. The evidences of occupation presented by this cavern are most numerous and important. The materials of the various stone implements found in immense numbers, fragments of minerals, flints, jet, sharks' teeth, etc., show that the inhabitants must have enjoyed extended commercial relations with other portions of Europe. Judging from the quantity of bones found in the cavern, the principal food of the cave-dwellers must have been horse-flesh, as the teeth of more than forty horses were found. The bones of the water-rat, badger, hare, boar, show that variety in diet was studied. The fore-arm of an elephant or mammoth found in the same dwelling is regarded by the discoverer rather as a fetish or idolatrous charm placed near the hearth, in the same manner as still practised by some African nations. The worked flints, in various stages of manufacture, collected are more than thirty thousand. The cave appears to have been abandoned so suddenly that the inhabitants left behind them their tools, ornaments, and the remains of their meals. According to M. Dupont's theory, this must have arisen from the approach of the sudden inundation which covered the whole of Belgium and Northern France, and swept away that generation of the cave people. Immediately after they had left it, the roof and sides of the cave fell in, the pieces detached covering the floor and thus preserving the remains from the action of the waters undisturbed to the present day. The writer reconstructs from the materials at hand, whose evidence seems incontrovertible, a striking picture of the condition and habits of the early races of men in Belgium, a state that seems to have prevailed over the greater part of Europe. The remaining unsettled point of investigation is the ancestral relation held by these primitive populations to the present race of man. It will need more extensive discoveries of human remains than have yet been made, for its final settlement.

—A help to students of etymology and philology, in any European language, of great value is furnished by the new "Sanscrit-English Dictionary" of Dr. Theodore Benfey, just published by Messrs. Longman & Co. Professor H. H. Wilson's "Sanscrit Lexicon" has hitherto been the only existing work of the kind. Its rarity and high price confined it to a small number of scholars, and the thirty years that have elapsed since its publication have increased the knowledge of the language so that it was not in all respects equal to the present standard of science. Prof. Wilson's "Lexicon" was in a large quarto volume, lately worth from £12 to £15. Dr. Benfey's "Dictionary" is published in an octavo of 1,200 pages, at the moderate price of £2 12s. 6d. It contains references to the best editions of Sanscrit authors, also etymologies and comparisons of cognate words, chiefly in Greek, Latin, Gothic, and Anglo-Saxon.

—The Oxford University Press is following up its splendid variorum edition of the "Wycliffite Early English Versions of the Bible" (which ranks, in the words of Honorable George P. Marsh, as "the golden book of English philology") by the publication of the other writings of the English Reformer. A plan has been proposed to and favorably entertained by the delegates for bringing out the most important of his works with all the aids of scholarly editorship. As a preparation necessary for the execution of this project, a "Catalogue of the Original Works of John Wyclif" has been prepared and printed by Dr. Shirley, University professor of ecclesiastical history. This list furnishes a vivid idea of the toils to be undergone by any editor of the works of a mediæval author who undertakes his task in a conscientious spirit. The number of Wyclif's writings still extant, enumerated by Dr. Shirley, after weeding from the list spurious and wrongly attributed books, is ninety-six in Latin and sixty-five in English.

The most important manuscripts of these treatises are spread abroad over Europe. The most valuable and interesting collection of them is in the Imperial Library at Vienna. Two libraries at Prague, in Bohemia, also contain rich materials, as well as the Imperial Library at Paris, and several of the university and cathedral libraries in England, so that the editorial function in the case of Wyclif must be anything rather than a sedentary one. To preserve from oblivion and destruction the stirring words that he used to awaken the dormant moral consciousness of the nation, is a debt England owes to the first of her band of reformers, and, though an undertaking of great labor and expense, it appears to be in a fair train for performance.

—It is strange that the prevailing fashion of translating Homer has not led before now to the production of a good modern library edition of the original text, with English notes, etc., presenting in a moderate compass as much critical disquisition as was necessary for the elucidation of the author, without overwhelming him beneath a mass of comment in the German style. Such an edition has long been a desideratum. It will probably now be supplied by the new volume of the "Bibliotheca Classica," a series of classical texts in course of publication in England, edited by various scholars, under the direction of Prof. George Long. It contains "The Iliad of Homer, Books I. to XII., with English Notes, by F. A. Paley, M.A.," whose editions of "The Greek Tragedians," "Hesiod," etc., in the same series, have been received with great favor. A similar volume, now in preparation, will complete the "Iliad."

—A new issue of the "English Cyclopædia" is announced, accompanied by supplements "bringing up to the most recent period every accession of knowledge connected with the rapid progress in geographical and scientific discovery, and embracing all the most desirable and important facts in regard to history and biography, and tracing in due order the changes of public affairs, either commercial, legal, or social." These supplements will be appended to each division in which the "Cyclopædia" is published—geography, natural history, biography, and arts and sciences. They will be prepared under the superintendence of Mr. Charles Knight, the original editor of the "Penny Cyclopædia," a recasting and revision of which work forms the "English Cyclopædia."

—Messrs. Rivington & Co. announce for speedy publication an "Annotated Book of Common Prayer," produced on an enlarged scale of critical research and comment, more thorough than any previous work of the kind, and worthy of the present state of liturgical knowledge, useful alike to the clergy and the laity. It is edited by the Rev. John Blunt, assisted by various writers of eminence. It will be carefully printed from the "Sealed Book." The original texts of all parts that have been derived from ancient sources, both Latin and old English, will be set side by side with the English of the Prayer Book. It will also contain historical ritual and expository foot-notes, separate essays on important subjects, historical introductions to each division of the Prayer Book, and illustrations of the last revision from the MSS. of Bishop Cosin and Archbishop Sancroft.

PHILOSOPHY IN POETRY.*

In the summer or autumn of 1589, Edmund Spenser, of Kilcolman, gentleman, was honored by a visit from Sir Walter Raleigh, whose acquaintance he had made some eight or nine years before when he was a captain in the army under Lord Grey of Wilton, whose secretary Spenser was. The particulars of the visit have not come down to us, except the single one that Master Edmund read to his good friend Sir Walter the first three books of "The Faerie Queene," which, or a portion of which, he had written as many as ten years before, and shown to his pedantic friend Gabriel Harvey, who liked them not. Sir Walter, however, was so taken with the poem, and so desirous of presenting its maker to the Queen, that he persuaded him to return with him to England for that purpose, which he was not loath to do, we may suppose, since he had, for a poet, rather a keen eye to the main chance. They arrived in England before the autumn was over, and the bard of fairyland was introduced to the famed Gloriana and her bevy of noble court dames, as well as the chief poets and scholars of the day. How long he remained in England cannot be definitely ascertained, but long enough to taste the bitterness of hope deferred, and to incur the dislike of my Lord Burleigh, who held such "metre ballad-mongers" as he in contempt, and who conveniently forgot for a time to pay him the one hundred pounds which the munificent Gloriana had commanded to be given him. He was back at Kilcolman in December, 1591, not enriched as he had expected, but with a pension of fifty pounds a year, which, with what he already possessed, in the shape of his Irish estate, was enough to keep the wolf from his door, and to entice the muses to his bower. The first thing that he did after his return was to write a pastoral poem descriptive of his voyage to England, his sojourn there, and its results, which he forthwith despatched to Raleigh, the letter which accompanied it, and which was printed before it four years later by way of dedication, being dated from his house at Kilcolman the 27th of December, 1591. Such, in brief, are the circumstances which led Spenser to write his "Colin Clout's Come Home Again."

So, at least, Spenser's biographers say, and it is to be presumed, knowing what Dryasdusts most of them are—Todd in particular—that they took some pains to arrive at the truth. They were mistaken, however, we now learn, or rather are taught, for whether we learn or no depends upon the amount of credulity which may have been infused into our compositions. Not that our writer disputes the facts we have stated—so far as we remember, he does not—but he maintains that the poem in question is not, and was not meant to be, a record of these facts. "The pastoral," he says, "entitled 'Colin Clout's Come Home Again,' was not designed to refer in the remotest degree to Queen Elizabeth; but the poem agrees, 'with truth in circumstance and matter' (as the dedication reads), with a mental journey by the poet himself, in the very spirit of Christianity, into what may be called the spiritual world—the Arcadia of the ancient poets; where the poet meets with the mystic Queen of Arcadia, the object of so much passionate devotion by a long succession of *spirituelle* poets, who, under the guise of addressing some Delia or Celia, or Lilia, Phœbe, Daphne, or Chloe, have cloaked a love which, because not generally recognized, except as addressed to some veritable woman, has been usually regarded as having no other object than woman; who, indeed, may become the true object of love, as represented in the drama of King Renè's Daughter, where her beauty and perfection are seen in the light of what must be called, for the sake of truth, divine love." This is a tolerably clear statement of his views, and had he rested his case upon them and the poem as a whole, instead of going over the latter and attempting to explain its details, he would have acted more wisely than he has done; for there is enough apparent plausibility in his "glittering generalities" to recommend them to the sentimental taste of a certain class of readers who regard poetry as a divine art, and poets as the most spiritual of mankind. That such has been the opinion of some few of the poets themselves we have reason to think, though it is not easy in these matters to tell where poetic pretence ends, and real belief begins.

The story of "Colin Clout's Come Home Again," as Spenser's biographers understand it, may be briefly summed up as follows: Colin, who is Spenser himself, is piping one day among his fellow-shepherds, when Hobbinal, who is supposed to be Gabriel Harvey, asks him to relate what befel him in his late voyage. He begins by telling them of the visit of Raleigh, whom he very aptly names the Shepherd of the Ocean, and how they sang ditties in emulation—he, in allegorical fashion, of the Mulla and the Bregog, two rivers which seem to have flowed near his place at Kilcolman; and Raleigh how "Cynthia, the Lady of the Sea," had debarred him from her presence. This done, he describes the voyage from Ireland to England, and, in answer to the questions of Cuddy, contrasts the two countries, to the disadvantage of the former. Then follows an account of his being presented to Queen Elizabeth, whose personal appearance is, of course, bepraised, after which sundry of the minor poets are mentioned, and several noble court ladies.

On being asked why he ever left the place, since he had found such grace

"With Cynthia and all her noble crew,"

Colin launches into a long description of the dangers that await simple shepherds in a court-life, which he paints as full of guile and deceit, after which he wanders off into a long rhapsody on love, and a reminiscence of his first flame, Rosalind, with whose praise the poem abruptly terminates.

How our author regards it as a whole we have shown above; let us see, now, what he makes out of its details. *Imprimis*, the shepherds of the poem are Shepherds of Arcadia, who are honest men, and sometimes poets, and are supposed to be true to Nature, their sovereign mistress. Their so-called "oaten pipe" is a figure for their musical or harmonious spirits. The Shepherd of the Ocean, who finds Colin by the banks of the Mulla, is the Spirit of Truth, and the ocean referred to is the great Ocean of Life, out of which there comes to some favored mortals, from time to time, a certain spirit here personified as a Strange Shepherd. The Mulla and the Bregog mean the true and the false in life, and what we had imagined was a mere poetic wedding of the two as rivers is a mystical account of the birth of man; Old Mole, the mountain-source of the Mulla, is a figure for Nature as the mother of all

* "Spenser's Poem, entitled Colin Clout's Come Home Again, Explained; with Remarks upon the Amoretti Sonnets, and also upon a few of the Minor Poems of other early English Poets. By the author of 'Remarks on the Sonnets of Shakespeare,' to which this volume is designed as a companion." New York: James Miller. 1865.

things, and figures, also, the father, who becomes visible in a mystic sense in the mother. The Allo, or Broadwater, who should have been the husband of the fair Mulla, signifies the universal life, to which individual life-streams, in the providence of God, were destined, the union being compared to a marriage, as it is in Scripture. The wedding of Mulla and Bregog represents our mother Eve as eating the fatal apple. The great stones which Old Mole rolled down upon Bregog, when the marriage was made known to him, indicate solid principles by which the false is destroyed; and, finally, for a little of this sort of thing goes a great way, Cynthia, the Queen of the poem, is Truth itself; or Truth and Reason, if the reader chooses, for the two will be found together bathing in the mystic love-bath!

Such is the scheme of this astonishing pastoral, so far as we can get at it through the rather muddy commentary of its present editor, who is not always consistent with himself, though as much so, we dare say, as we have any right to expect in an expounder of the hermetic philosophy. We have not the pleasure of knowing what the hermetic philosophy is, but from the glimpse we have obtained of its method of interpreting poetry, it must be as large as it is indefinite, which is saying a great deal. To our ignorant comprehension, the faculty of finding books in the running brooks, sermons in stones, and so forth, is nothing to it. It is expansive enough to embrace all other systems of philosophy, falsely so-called, and profound enough to fathom all mysteries, be they never so cunningly concealed. It can put arrow-head inscriptions, cuneiform characters, hieroglyphics, into the writing of to-day, and can put the writing of to-day into these ancient scribblements. It turns fact into fiction and fiction into fact so bewilderingly that one is at a loss to know which is which. Or, to borrow an illustration from the race-course, it displays such sleight of hand in shifting the pea of truth under the thimbles of fancy, that only the player knows where the little joker lies. In the present game it strikes us as being pretty equally distributed through the volume, the volume itself being the joke.

AGRICULTURE IN ITALY.*

This volume, a quarto of nearly 300 pages, with several maps and plans, is an official report on the improvement of flooded and wet lands, on the rice-grounds, and on irrigation in the kingdom of Italy. It contains many important statistical details, most of which are presented in a condensed form, in tables appended to the text, and other interesting information is to be gathered from the separate returns of the prefects of the different provinces.

The total continental and insular surface of the kingdom, excluding, of course, the Austro-Italian provinces and the States of the Church, amounts to about sixty-four millions of acres, or one hundred thousand square miles. Upon a rough comparison, then, we may say that the kingdom of Italy is about once and a half as large as New England, about equal to New York and Pennsylvania taken together, little more than half as large as California, considerably less than half the size of Texas, and but one twenty-ninth part as extensive as the United States of America.

The great lakes occupy a surface of rather less than half a million acres. About 925,000 acres are covered with small lakes, shallow pools, and other stagnating waters, more than half of which, it is thought, could be drained with advantage. The extent of originally boggy and marshy lands is estimated at 1,300,000 acres, of which 500,000 have been already reclaimed, and 200,000 are in process of improvement by draining.

The soil devoted to the growth of rice amounts to 450,000 acres. Of these grounds, about two-thirds are flooded at pleasure from perennial streams, the remainder being supplied from reservoirs of rain water and other sources qualified as "adventitious." It is a fact of interest, that not more than one-tenth part of the rice-grounds of Italy lie *south* of the parallel of forty-four degrees north latitude, while in the United States little rice is grown *north* of the thirty-fifth degree. In other words, the *southern* limit of profitable cultivation of this grain in Italy is nine degrees, or six hundred miles, *north* of the *northern* limit of the same branch of agriculture in the United States. This difference is by no means due wholly to climatic causes; for, though the summer temperature of our Atlantic and Valley States would not admit much extension of rice culture northwards, there is nothing in the climate of Italy to prevent the growth of rice in any part of the peninsula, except in the mountainous districts. The cause of the difference lies in the special geographical character of Northern, Central, and Southern Italy respectively. In the former division, there is a far greater extent of gently sloping plain, admitting easy flooding, and therefore suited to the cultivation of rice, than in the two latter, and the Alps and the northern scarp of the Apennines afford much more abundant supplies of water than the middle and southern ridges of the latter chain. Besides, rice culture would be much more prejudicial to health in Southern than in Northern Italy, and the habits of the population are less favorable to so severe and disagreeable a branch of agricultural industry in the former than in the latter provinces.

The regularly irrigated lands in the Italian kingdom already amount to not less than 3,350,000 acres, or more than five thousand two hundred square miles. The Canal Cavour, now very near completion, will add 250,000 square miles to this quantity, and numerous other canals for the same purpose are in course of construction, or, at least, projected with prospect of success. It is computed that in Lombardy a proper supply of water increases the annual product of lands by about twenty dollars per acre at the present prices of agricultural growths. There are few crops which are not irrigated when the means are at hand, and even chestnut, walnut, and forest trees are not unfrequently watered, with manifest advantage. In the Alps irrigation is carried up to the very foot of the glaciers, and on the southern slope of those mountains water is applied to meadows which lie further northward than the city of Montreal and higher than the highest peak of the White Mountains. About half the Italian rice-fields are supplied with water by means of artificial canals, often large enough for boats of considerable burden, and furnishing a great amount of power for driving machinery; the residue are flowed by small conduits from rivers, reservoirs, springs, and wells. There is in Italy unquestionably a very great extent of soil valuable for pasturage and the growth of timber, but too rugged and broken in surface for irrigation, and there are large districts which have no means of obtaining sufficient water. There are also regions where, from the constitution of the superficial and the sub-soil, from peculiarities of local climate, and from other circumstances, irrigation is neither practised nor needed, and some of the lands of this description sell at high prices; but, in Italian husbandry generally, water is almost as necessary as solar heat to profitable agriculture. The stimuli of necessity and of profit are encouraging great efforts for the extension of the system of irrigation, and in all probability the day is not very far distant when the current of every spring and brook and river in Italy will have been at least once utilized for irrigation, for hydraulic machinery, or for navigation.

A very considerable proportion of the Italian peninsula and islands being covered by barren mountains, and much of the lowlands being so unhealthy as to be scarcely habitable, the amount of land which can be made to produce food for man or for domestic animals, or vegetable growths required for other human use, is relatively small, and the twenty-two millions of souls that compose the population must draw their nourishment from an extent of territory which seems insignificant to eyes familiar with the vast expansion of our own arable soil. Hence, while the wages of the farm-laborer are low, probably not much exceeding on the average a franc a day, without board, the price of land is high, and it is only under exceptional circumstances that he who inherits no patrimony can hope to own the smallest portion of the soil he tills. The landed proprietors of Italy, like those of France, are tenacious of their acres, and sales of real estate are much less common in those countries than in our own, where lands and houses pass from hand to hand almost as readily as personal property. So rare are transfers of land in Italy, in fact, that a stranger can gather from his own observation or from personal enquiry very little information as to the current market value of real estate. The report under consideration attempts to give from local returns the average prices of meadow and arable ground, and, in many cases, of woods, vineyards, heaths, and marshes in each province. The range of discrepancy in price between dry and irrigable land is very great; for while in some situations pastures or meadows without water are not worth more than twenty or over ten dollars an acre, there are irrigated lands which command not less than six hundred dollars an acre. I do not refer to market garden grounds in the immediate vicinity of large towns, or vineyards planted with favorite growths, which are sold at fancy prices, but to lands devoted to ordinary cultivation. Besides original character of soil and convenience to high roads and markets, the value of irrigated lands is much affected by the quality and usual temperature of the water supplied to them. A warm rivulet, which brings down and deposits vegetable slime or enriching mineral substances, may double or even decuple the price of the land it waters, while cold glacier streams, charged with silicious sediment, add very little to the price of the soil over which they are conducted. So far as the writer of this notice can judge from the returns before him and from a good deal of enquiry, he thinks that lands of the same relative value as those which compose the bulk of New England and New York farming grounds are worth in Italy from seventy-five to two hundred and fifty dollars an acre. Marshes often have but a nominal value, but

* "Relazione al Ministro di Agricoltura, Industria e Commercio sulle Bonificazioni, Risaie ed Irrigazioni del Regno d'Italia, per Raffaele Pareto." Milano. 1865. 4to.

where they are suited for producing the basket-willow, canes, certain species of reeds, rushes, and other aquatic or semi-aquatic plants, they sometimes sell as high as good arable soil. G. P. M.

GOVERNMENT, AND OUR GOVERNMENT.*

THE plan and contents of the volume before us are as follows: After a brief introduction, the general subject of the Origin and Constitution of Government is discussed, in seven chapters, comprising nearly half the volume. As to its origin, the following theories are examined:

1. Government originates in the right of the father to govern his child. 2. It originates in convention, and is a social compact. 3. It originates in the people, who, collectively taken, are sovereign. 4. It springs from the spontaneous development of nature. 5. It is from the immediate and express appointment of God. 6. From God through the Pope, as visible head of the spiritual society. 7. From God through the people. 8. From God through the natural law.

These several theories are learnedly discussed, and with unusual strength and fairness. Rejecting the first five as insufficient, and even erroneous, and passing the sixth (which derives government from God through the Pope) with a qualification, our author leads through the seventh, which comes nearly right, to the eighth, which he holds to be the true conclusion, and states, succinctly, to be, that the right to govern, or political authority, is derived by the collective or organic people from God through the natural law. This is Dr. Brownson's fundamental position, from which he argues, ingeniously, in favor of legitimate governments, whether monarchical or republican, and against all manner of rebellion against constituted, as distinguished from usurped, authority. Proceeding from this point, he declares the constitution of every people to be twofold — the constitution of the state, and the constitution of the government. The latter is the written declarative instrument, the former antecedent and unwritten, and, as our author calls it, providential, out of which the latter must grow, or to which, at least, it must be exactly fitted, or be worthless. This unwritten constitution—which is something like what Coleridge calls the "ideal contract," to which, he says, "the real and formal state contract, the bill of rights, for instance," stands related "as a sort of *est demonstrandum* in politics"—belongs to a nation, as an organism, and is exemplified by the individual physical constitution, to which, as it has grown up, and as it is in point of fact, every code or written constitution for its physical or moral regulation must correspond, or be impertinent and useless. Necessarily and prominently connected with this idea is that of "solidarity of race," which Dr. Brownson strongly asserts, discriminating between "pure individualism on the one hand, and pure socialism or humanitarianism on the other," but utterly rejecting Kossuth's notion of a "solidarity of peoples," as "a falsehood destructive of all government and of all political organization." Of Kossuth, Mazzini, and Garibaldi, it may be added in passing, Dr. Brownson speaks with almost angry contempt, as of men of "nefarious designs and mad dreams," and as "inflicting on us the deep humiliation of their congratulations."

The reader is thus brought to the consideration of the Constitution of the United States, the sources of our national sovereignty, the relations of the General and State Governments, the causes of the rebellion, and the questions arising from reconstruction. Dr. Brownson believes our constitution of government to be quite a perfect adaptation to the antecedent or unwritten constitution of the state. He now denies the doctrine of State sovereignty, as he held it for more than thirty years, and up to the time when the logical consequence of false opinions on this subject plunged us into war in 1861. Indeed, he rejects the term State sovereignty as historically improper, holding that the original States never exercised sovereign powers, and could not, therefore, be said to have ceded them. They declared and won their independence jointly, not severally, having been alike colonies of one mother country, and have existed and exercised sovereignty since as States sovereign only in their union. This of itself—if proven—as Dr. Brownson justly observes, is decisive of the whole question involved. He goes still further, and declares that the States, so far from ceding to the general or central Government any portion of their sovereignty, *derived* all their capacity in this respect from the Union, and became, by the consent and act of the Government, co-ordinate powers. Moreover, the "instinct of unity" in the people has twice rejected the false notion of an original or pre-obligatory State sovereignty—in 1787, when the Articles of Confederation were exchanged for the Constitution; and in 1861, when this groundless pretension, having rejected constitutional adjudication, was put down by force of arms, and for ever.

So far, we can substantially agree with our author. In the more particular considerations, opinions, and applications which follow, however, he will encounter much diversity of opinion, and will probably fail to reason the "instinct" of the people into an accordance with his views, or to convince them that the principles for which they have been contending are identical with those by which the governments of King Bomba, or the Pope, or the Kaiser, or Napoleon, are defended and maintained. This disagreement will not arise from intolerance of the opinion expressed by Dr. Brownson upon slavery, that it was not the main cause of the war; or upon negro suffrage, that it is inexpedient, and should be left to the decision of the several States; or upon the acts of the Government, that they were illegal, or extra-constitutional; or upon the course of the Executive in reconstruction, that it was a blunder. Nor will it come from the mere fact of his assertion that the American democracy is properly a territorial rather than an individual democracy; or that the war was a conflict between these two forms of opinion; or from the somewhat fanciful notion that the seceded States committed political suicide, and being dead to the Union must be somehow galvanized or raised up into organic life again; nor, indeed, upon the statement that the great danger of the times is from the preponderance of the humanitarian (in other words, abolitionist) feeling of the Northern people. All these opinions and assertions will find sympathy and acceptance somewhere, and, however erroneous they may be, will not separately provoke a definite and desperate antagonism.

After asserting the doctrines of an unwritten and imperative constitution, and of a "solidarity of race," to which, in its organism, our Constitution belongs, by a natural order, Dr. Brownson proceeds, as already stated, to assert that nationality is always territorial, and never personal, and that this is eminently true of the American system. From these positions he derives the opinion, that the people of the United States are represented in its Government *not as individuals, but as States.* While this opinion enables Dr. Brownson to form a consistent theory as to the reconstruction of the States, and affords him ground for his disapproval of the course of the Government in that respect, it is difficult to see how we can ever hope to answer the arguments of the secessionists under it, or to satisfy those popular "instincts of unity" which have so often proved superior to theories. Although it may be true that a majority of our soldiers did not know precisely, or philosophically, what they were fighting for, as Dr. Brownson asserts, yet there was a sufficient *practical* apprehension of the issues involved in the mind of the people that furnished the soldiery, and, in a large measure, composed it. And although there may be no such thing as nationality, strictly speaking, without territory as well as population, yet common sense assures us that it is the man who makes the territory, and not the territory the man. If the abolition of slavery was not the conscious object of the Unionists in the late national vindication, it is certain that their object was still less the defence of the territorial idea against the popular idea. Dr. Brownson asserts that this was the only issue—it was the territorial democracy, on the part of the Unionists, against the popular or individual-rights democracy, on the part of the secessionists. We apprehend that the sense of the people and the verdict of history will reverse this assertion. The people of the United States had, indeed, no notion of parting with the common territory; but those who fought the battle fought it for their brethren, and for their brethren's rights, trampled on with theirs. Nothing is more demonstrable than that the Southern rebellion was *not* a popular movement—all Dr. Brownson's sophisms to the contrary notwithstanding. It was the struggle of an aristocracy to sustain itself—of an aristocracy numbering less than half a million, which had appropriated both the territory and its twelve millions of inhabitants, holding the whole in vassalage by superior knowledge and skill.

* "The American Republic: Its Constitution, Tendencies, and Destiny. By O. A. Brownson, LL.D." New York: P. O'Shea. 1866.

HARPER'S WEEKLY.*

IT is, perhaps, in vain to question the desirableness and value of the modern army of illustrated books and journals. It is, perhaps, better to bow—except in the most private and unspoken meditation—to the inevitable tendency of the time, and try to make the best of it. And the question being dismissed whether we want an illustrated weekly at all, we are left to consider what an illustrated weekly, existing, ought to be. During the war it was plain what an American illustrated weekly ought to be—a newspaper giving news in a way in which the dailies could not give it. There was then no doubt what the people wanted most to be told, and just

* "Harper's Weekly. A Journal of Civilization. Vol. IX., for the year 1865." New York: Harper & Bros.

as little what they ought to be told in pictures. Now that peace is come, there is more doubt about it. It is not just to blame the conductors of an illustrated weekly for the dulness of their journal, unless one is prepared to show how a constant succession of interesting subjects for cuts can be obtained at the rate, be it remembered, of from ten to twenty per week.

During the war, *Harper's Weekly*, as an illustrated diary of events, was of great importance. There was constant elucidation, by means of its wood-cuts, of matter which to most stayers-at-home needed elucidation. There were, especially during the last two years of the war, many very accurate, interesting, and useful representations of scenes in the camp and in the field. If the people at home studied these with any care, they must have learned much from them which it was well they should know.

According to the almost universal testimony of officers, so far as we have heard it given, the best illustrated record of the war was in the pages of *Frank Leslie's Illustrated Newspaper*. There was, indeed, in the pictures of that journal extreme carelessness of execution and a common disregard of artistic effect and of beauty; in comparison, the *Harper's Weekly* cuts were delicate and highly finished. But this defect was more than compensated by the more purely military character of the illustrations. For the gratification of those who followed and loved the trade of arms, Frank Leslie's paper was the best suited.

But in almost all other respects the journal whose name stands at the head of this article is the better. It is particularly fortunate in the frequent appearance in its columns of the spirited and original designs of Mr. Thomas Nast. Not that Mr. Nast has confined his talent to this one weekly; his work is to be seen in many places. He contributed the single ray of light by which *Mrs. Grundy* shone for awhile. He works a great deal and works well, and we wish him better engraving than is generally vouchsafed him. But it is in the volumes of *Harper's Weekly* for 1863, 1864, and 1865 that his most numerous and, on the whole, most powerful and patriotic and poetical designs have appeared. This source of interest is one which does not stop with the return of peace. If every number of the paper should have a Nast design with the regularity with which *Punch* once presented weekly a Leech cartoon, the paper would be oftener bought without examination.

But, otherwise, the piping times of peace are hard times for the special artist. Views of new buildings, interiors of ball-rooms, panoramas of horse fairs, and pictures borrowed from the better furnished European illustrated papers, take up too many of the pages; so that the latter half of the volume for 1865 is notably inferior in interest to what had gone before. There are good pictures, though, among the less good ones. For instance, "Shipwrecked Passengers and Crew of Brig Titania" on the raft made of two spars lashed together to make a V, and planks secured across the opening between them, at the base of the triangle; a whale lying alongside, as a whale really did lie, for twenty-four hours—that is a good picture, which we are glad to see, and Captain Frame has done us good by making the sketch and sending it. It would seem that more such veritable-seeming and instructive pictorial narratives might be procured. As it is, there are few which one cares to see again, now the war is over, except the portraits; and these, though often very good (as in the cases of Gen. Grant, p. 772, and Mayor Hoffman, page 801), have this common defect, that people who need them most, that is, who do not know the persons represented, never can rely upon their faithfulness.

Of course there is much left to be desired in the execution of the wood-cuts—we may even say a radical change—so that the subjects shall be all worth the pictures, the drawings shall all be accurate and careful, the wood blocks selected with some reference to the quality of the wood and skilfully engraved, the printing of the cuts done as well as it can be at the necessary speed. But also, of course, this is by no means to be hoped for. We have no doubt the conductors find it difficult to get their work done even as well as it is done at present. It is hard to get skilled workmen in any department of labor here in America, where various other pursuits pay better or are thought to pay better than labor. It would, probably, be quite impossible to get the illustrated work of a weekly journal as well done in New York as that of the *Illustrated London News;* and yet we are not accustomed to think the latter a model of what an illustrated paper should be. It is probable that improvements could be made in the New York journal, but there would be great difficulties attending them.

It is to be regretted that there are not more of our artists who are willing to make designs for wood engraving and for a weekly. There are many painters living and annually exhibiting in New York who would appear to much better advantage in black and white, and in the comparatively imperfect medium of wood-engraving, than they do in color and on canvas. It is, perhaps, even more to be desired for their own sakes than for the sake of the periodicals that they should consent to help the latter. These would not at first show so great improvement as would the artists themselves. But after a little practice and considerable gain in facility, the new recruits would benefit decidedly the weekly.

The only real blots upon the character of *Harper's Weekly* as an illustrated journal are the "Comicalities" on the last page of the several numbers. These, if selected from Punch as they often are, and nearly always without acknowledgment, are invariably spoiled in the reproduction; if original, are seldom witty or amusing, and never even tolerably drawn. The character of the journal would at once be raised if they were omitted.

After all, it is not as an illustrated journal that *Harper's Weekly* is most worthy of respect. It is singular, by the way, that the title, long as it is, nowhere mentions illustrations. It is rather the fashion for pictorial papers to announce that they are so, in plain English, or French, or German, or Yankee. But *Harper's Weekly* makes no such announcement of itself. And, in accordance with this reticence, we find indeed that the written words are better than the pictured thought. The short editorial essays of the second and third pages of each number are admirable. They stand with the very best newspaper writing of the time, American or European. In political discussion especially they are models of popular treatment of difficult topics, always on the right side, always clear and independent, always well put. The title "A Journal of Civilization" is well worn by so potent a civilizer, and friend and advocate of human progress.

THE PILGRIM'S WALLET.*

As a traveller, Mr. Gilbert Haven has many merits, among which we may name as chief the art of telling what he has seen rather than what he went to see. He passed over a great part of Great Britain on foot ("pedestrianated" it, he says), and, being a well-read man, he knew what to look for in the leisure afforded by his method of travel. He went abroad with that generous enthusiasm for the old which most Americans feel in first visiting Europe, and he neither takes his disillusion ill-naturedly nor tries to feign that the old was all he expected to find it. He is all sorts of a pilgrim, and visits every shrine at which men worship; goes to the English lake country, and tells what it is like, and talks with the peasantry about the great poets who once haunted it, about Wordsworth, about Coleridge, about Hartley Coleridge, inevitably, and contrives, by dint of downright hard questioning, to draw something rather interesting out of those well-squeezed sources of information. The pilgrim goes also to the whereabouts of Burns, to Coventry, to Oxford, to London, to Westminster Abbey, to the Tower, to all those places, and recounts the things he heard and saw with an unfailing frankness and an excellent simplicity. He thinks that what most surprised and entertained him will most surprise and entertain the vastly greater number of his readers; and he has not the *mauvaise honte* to refrain from speaking of a thing because literature is already vocal with it. He thus makes a book in which there is really something very fresh and authentic, and if one who has already "done" the objects of interest on which Mr. Haven dwells with so much earnestness should find him just a little tedious at times, that is the fault of the reader's previous knowledge.

The simplicity of our pilgrim is full of a curious shrewdness, which sometimes, however, fails it, and lets it lapse into actual indiscretion. This happens when he comes to tell of his visit to Mr. Tennyson, an incident which most tourists would scarcely have amplified from their note-books for the pleasure of the public. Mr. Haven, being on the poet's grounds, resolved to see him if possible. He says:

"I had loaded my gun at the village of Yarmouth, for the purpose of bringing down the shyest of game. It missed, as was not unlikely with so poor a marksman. A card accompanied a note, stating in a few words my nationality, admiration, and desire for a brief interview. I approach the door, enquire if Mr. Tennyson is at home, and am answered in the affirmative. I requested the lad to hand him the note, and soon receive the compliments of Mrs. Tennyson, with the less agreeable conclusion that Mr. Tennyson is not in. Who was right, the boy or the mistress, I had no means of learning; enough for me was the last word. Perhaps both; for he may have been 'in' bodily, and yet on some Pegasean flight; so that though in the body he was out of the body—'a disembodied thought.' Perhaps that 'American' was the reason of my failure—his aristocratic sympathies making him repellant of too great familiarity with the representatives of ideas that he prefers to sing rather than to practise; for quite a worshipper of titles is the author of 'Locksley Hall,' 'Lady Clara Vere de Vere,' and 'Maud.' Perhaps he was not really in; and most likely, with commendable good sense, though in, he disliked being pen-and-inked by this unknown wandering gamester from foreign shores, and did precisely what we should all be likely to do under like circumstances. Everybody hates to be made a spectacle, especially to mere curiosity-seekers; and the only right way, also a feasible way, is to get introductions from friends, that will en-

* "The Pilgrim's Wallet; or, Scraps of Travel Gathered in England, France, and Germany. By Gilbert Haven." New York: Hurd & Houghton.

sure you not merely a sight of the outer, but of the inner man; not only a sight, but a feeling; an acquaintance, perhaps an intimacy. This can be readily secured, if you have an acquaintance with any of their acquaintance; if not, you can easily follow up the trail till you strike it. A true explorer of earth or man can always, if patient and persistent, win his prize. Lack of time and opportunity prevented any further strategy to reduce this fortress of Mansoul; so I must content myself with the outer aspects—the house, the place, the landscape—which last are partakers and representatives of his innermost spirit."

We remember nothing in literature quite so delicious as this: the cheerful but not confident impudence of the resolution to see the poet; the *naïveté* of the doubt whether Mr. Tennyson was in or not; the only human resentment, on high political grounds, of a snub to individual vanity, chastised immediately by the freely expressed conviction that the snub was merited; the advice to readers how to avoid snubs of the kind; and the intimation that if he had but had time, he would have tried again to see Mr. Tennyson—is it not all perfectly exquisite? It would be very ill-natured of us not to say that this is the silliest thing in Mr. Haven's book. When he gets upon the Continent, he is not betrayed into such indiscretions, and is a very pleasant travelling-companion, sympathetic, sensible, and hearty. We like him very well on the swindling river Rhine, about which so much absurdity has got into literature. It is fine to have a man out with it and say that there is not a castle on every hill, nor, indeed, more than twenty castles on the whole romantic course of the Rhine, from Mainz to Cologne. Why could not Mr. Haven go further, and say how remarkably like potato-patches those vine-clad heights look?

Perhaps a fair enough notion is given of Mr. Haven's style of thought and observation by the paragraph quoted. As to his spirit, it is that of an evangelical democratic American. He is shocked by Sabbath-breaking; he believes that the countries through which he travels will one day be republics, and he loves our own republic with an affection that patronizes and puts down the rest of the world, in which, however, he sees some obvious merits.

Old New York; or, Reminiscences of the Past Sixty Years. By John W. Francis, M.D., LL.D. With a Memoir of the Author, by Henry T. Tuckerman. (W. J. Widdleton, New York.)—The present edition of a discourse delivered in 1857 before the New York Historical Society is probably not the last that the public will call for. We say the public, because these reminiscences are largely of men and events by no means of local interest or local renown. Not so much, probably, by design as by the instinct of a genial, affable nature, Dr. Francis indulged very little in statistics, in the quoting of old records, or in valuable but dull attempts to fix the site of this or that ancient building, the original course and names of streets, or the dates of the multifarious changes in the aspect of Manhattan. Some readers may even be disappointed because more attention was not given to topography in particular; but when we reflect how intimate are the physician's relations with families and with individuals, we ought to expect, what we really find in this discourse, that the author's recollections of the past would be principally of persons. A glance at the index shows it, in fact, to be almost wholly an *index nominum*. The duties of his profession brought Dr. Francis in contact with all classes of society, and enriched his gossip with a singular variety. He was not exactly

> —"nella chiesa co' santi,
> Ed in taverna co' ghiottoni,"

but his friendship embraced Edmund Kean as well as Dr. Channing. With the former he obtained permission of Bishop Hobart to erect a monument over the remains of George Frederick Cooke, the actor, in the churchyard of St. Paul's, though had it been question of a mural tablet, "I hardly knew," said the bishop, "how we could find a place inside the church for him." Dr. Channing owed to the same broad-heartedness his first hearing in New York, in 1819, when all the churches were shut against him, and with difficulty at last the College of Physicians and Surgeons, on Barclay Street, was obtained for a Unitarian service. When we mention such names as Burr, Thomas Paine, Lafayette, Cobbett, Fulton, Irving, Abernethy, Macready, and omit as many more well known to fame, it will be seen that the fascinating retrospect of Dr. Francis is wider than the limits of this metropolis. Mr. Tuckerman has undertaken in the preface to add to the other protraitures of the volume that of the lamented author himself. His essay has the fault, however, of unnecessary diffuseness, and is evidently rather the work of an admiring and perhaps indebted friend than of an historical artist.

Mr. Dunn Browne's Experiences in the Army. (Nichols & Noyes, Boston.)—Capt. Fiske's letters to the Springfield *Republican* were those of a man to whom correspondence was not (in this instance) a profession, but a recreation from the duties of the camp or field. They are not, therefore, specially valuable as a contribution to the history of military operations during the late war. To be sure, the writer, transplanted suddenly from a Connecticut pulpit to a Connecticut regiment, counted Antietam, Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, and Gettysburg among his "experiences;" was captured also and confined in Libby Prison, and gave up his ardent life for his country in the bloody strife of the Wilderness. Yet, as he himself remarked in one of his early letters: "It is astonishing, the ignorance of us who are actually playing the soldier's part here, of what is going on around us! We cannot get any information anyhow. . . . What we see with our own eyes is all that we can believe, as a general thing, and sometimes scarcely that." As vivid photographs of army life, as contemporary criticism on army movements and exploits, as the record of the feelings, aims, endurance, courage, patriotism of an American citizen (one out of many), this collection has a genuine and permanent value. They are written with the correctness of a man who to a liberal education had added extensive travel in foreign lands, and whose style is constantly enlivened by rare native humor. The brief sketch of his career which precedes the correspondence exhibits well his excellent qualities, and embalms the witty response which he made, on being examined for ordination, to a theologian who insisted on his declaring whether the Lord healed the man with the withered hand, or the man healed himself. "I always supposed," said the badgered candidate, "that the man had a *hand* in it."

Poems. By Edna Dean Proctor. (New York: Hurd & Houghton.)—The governor of this feast has not kept the best wine till the last, but has poured it out for us at once. None of the poems which we have read in this volume seem to us so good as the first, which is called "The Mississippi," and in which there is a fine feeling for description, and a sense of the poetry of the events in the history of the great river, from the time when the French priest Marquette descended its current, to those days when our victorious arms at Memphis, Vicksburg, and Port Hudson freed it at once from the dominion of slavery and rebellion. This poem is followed by others, inspired by great political and military occurrences, and marked by the same characteristics of fervent sentiment and language. Miss Proctor's civic verse is eloquent, if we may distinguish that quality from poetical. It appeals and moves as oratory does, and, coming warm upon events, has an influence not to be despised. But cooled and hardened with time, it seems to have no very pungent taste, and it reads much like old speeches. It is good of its kind, and like the vegetables which are best eaten green, would have gained nothing, probably, from being left to ripen before production in print. Its literature is always respectable, and it has doubtless carried comfort and courage to many true hearts in time of trouble. For this reason we must honor and value it; but not even for this reason can we call it poetry, nor do we find much in the non-political poems to modify the estimate in which we hold it.

Shakespeare's Mental Photographs. (Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.)—This is a game of character or fortune, elucidated by twenty answers to each of ten questions, making Shakespeare the oracle. Neither wit nor method is exhibited in the selection and arrangement, and persons who are driven to this amusement must be in melancholy need of diversion. As specimens of the questions may be cited for unintelligibleness—"What quality or qualities in others among you?" and for ineptitude (because addressed to an individual), "Where was, or will be, your first meeting?"

Poems. By Mrs. Anna Marie Spaulding. (New York: James Miller.)—We should be a very cruel critic, indeed, if, after reading the modest and sensitive preface to this pretty little volume, we could condemn it harshly; and we should be a very dishonest critic if, after reading the contents of the volume, we feigned to have found it a book of poetry.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Centenary of American Methodism. By Abel Stevens, LL.D. Carlton & Porter, New York.

The Decline of the French Monarchy. By Henri Martin. Translated from the Fourth Paris Edition, by Mary L. Booth. Two vols. Walker, Fuller & Co., Boston. (D. Appleton & Co., New York.) Subscription Edition.

Ned Musgrave. By Theodore Hook. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

Poems. By Robert Leighton. Edward Howell, Liverpool.

The Omnibus. A Satire. Trübner & Co., London.

Facts about Peat as an Article of Fuel. Compiled by T. H. Leavitt. Second Edition. Leavitt & Hunnewell, Boston.

Official Documents relating to a "Chaplain's Campaign (not) with General Butler," but in New York. Charles Hunt, Lowell.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

From various sources we make the following abstract of the arguments urged in favor of the use of petroleum, or coal oil, as fuel. Although the absolute heating power of crude petroleum, or coal oil, is considerably greater than that of an equal weight of coal, it is, nevertheless, true that crude petroleum would be a much more costly fuel than coal if the combustion were equally complete, and the heat obtained could be equally well applied and utilized in the two cases. The advocates of petroleum maintain that the combustion of the oil is much more perfect than that of coal; that the heat generated can be more economically applied; and, finally, that its manifest fitness and convenience as fuel cannot fail to outweigh eventually any probable excess of cost. Petroleum is all fuel. It contains no inert and worse than useless ashes. The ash of ordinary coal is to be counted once as pure loss and tare in the weight of the coal, and yet again several times as an impediment to combustion, an obstruction which not only clogs the fire and

necessitates constant labor in removal, but also carries away all that portion of heat which has been used up in bringing it to the temperature of the fire from which it is poked out.

A coal fire always requires more air than would be necessary for the consumption of the pure fuel, and this excess of air carries up chimney a very considerable portion of heat. If from any cause the amount of air supplied to the fire be insufficient, then a part of the gases from the coal will escape combustion and go to waste as smoke. Moreover, from the very necessity of the case, coal must be burned upon a grate, through whose bars small pieces of coal are continually dropping into the ash-pit, and so are lost. Some of the hot-air engines, in which the feed-air is taken through the fire, obtain a very complete combustion. Thus, in the Union Hot-Air Engine of Mr. Shaw, it is claimed that good anthracite coal yields only nine per cent. of ashes—a quantity very close to the real percentage of ash in such coal. Twenty or thirty per cent. of ash is not uncommon from good coal beneath the boilers of steam-engines. English engineers have estimated that, of every five tons of steam coal purchased to be put on ship-board, not more than four tons are ever realized in the production of heat capable of being converted into power.

For every kind of coal and for each particular furnace there exist special conditions under which the consumption of the coal is the most economical and efficient. This remark applies to petroleum as well, and with this addition, that it is, from the very nature of the case, vastly less difficult to hit upon these precise conditions of best possible effect in the case of petroleum than in that of any coal whatsoever. For the proper combustion of petroleum, and the application of the heat obtained from it, radical changes must, of course, be made in the construction of furnaces and boilers. No one of the existing varieties of boilers or furnaces can well be altered so as to meet all the requirements of the new problem. Special appliances must be invented not only for burning the oil, but also for the immediate application or absorption of the intense heat which is generated during its combustion. The petroleum, brought into a state of vapor, must, at the point of ignition, be met by a current of air, the volume and velocity of which can be so regulated as to ensure perfection and uniformity of combustion. The presence of smoke on the one hand, and of a needless excess of air upon the other, should equally be avoided. In so far as this part of the problem is concerned, we have only to modify and improve upon the practices which have prevailed for ages in the oil regions of the Caspian Sea, where, in order to utilize petroleum as fuel, porous clay is impregnated with the combustible liquid and then thrown upon the fire. In experiments conducted at the Woolwich dock-yard, the petroleum was burned through a porous material placed in an iron chamber, which was immersed in a water-vessel also of iron. The oil rose upon the porous substance by capillary attraction, and was burned upon its surface as upon a wick.

As for the application of the heat produced, it may be said, in general terms, that boilers adapted for the economical consumption of petroleum fuel must be so contrived that a large surface of flue or tubular space may be kept constantly filled with the flame of the petroleum; the arrangements being such, that while the flame shall be brought into intimate contact with the metal of the boiler—shall be made to "lick around" the boiler, as the firemen say—there may be no impediment to the free, rapid, and regular exit of the products of the combustion, and the nitrogen of the spent air. Corresponding to the great receptive surfaces of the boiler, which shall quickly take in the intense heat of the flame, the interior of the boiler and the steam-pipes must be so constructed that there shall always be free escape for the enormous volumes of steam which will be delivered from these surfaces. As bearing upon this point, it may be mentioned that in the Woolwich experiments, the effect of the petroleum flame was so great that with a small apparatus of only two feet superficial area, which was affixed to the boiler, as much heat was utilized as would be equal for steam purposes to that obtainable from five tons of coal. The small apparatus employed in the experiments having been placed under the boiler of a seventeen horse-power engine, steam of ten pounds pressure was raised in the course of two hours. In fact, as soon as petroleum comes to be used as a steam producing fuel, it will follow as an inevitable consequence that boilers much better adapted for economizing heat than those now in use will be constructed. Another improvement which will be likely to accompany the introduction of petroleum as fuel will be a more philosophical management of the draught in all fires. The present style of chimney or smoke-flue will probably disappear altogether as an appurtenance of boiler furnaces, and draughts produced by blowers driven by steam-power will be used to replace the irregular, unmanageable, and wasteful currents which are inevitable with the chimney system now in use. Instead of sending a large amount of hot air up chimney, for the sake of thereby inducing a brisk current of fresh air through the fire, it will be found vastly cheaper to take all the heat out of the escaping air, transfer it to the boiler, and so into steam-power, and then use, in a methodical and reasonable way, as much of this power as may be necessary to drive such fans, bellows, or other blowers, as will give the fire the necessary fresh air. This system would even now be applicable in many cases where coal is employed, though, in the case of an impure solid fuel like coal there are inherent difficulties which do not exist in the case of the liquid fuel. Wherever these power-blowers are employed in connection with boilers, the spent air and gaseous products of combustion will be so entirely under control that they may be made to circulate through and about the tanks and pipes which contain the feed-water until their temperature has been reduced to that of this water, and may be then thrown overboard, or out of the window, or into the common sewer, as may seem best, since they are now nothing more than a cold, invisible gas which may be carried off through comparatively small flues.

Steam-vessels which run short trips with intervals of rest, like ferry-boats, would advantageously use petroleum as fuel. Coal fires, though banked up, burn to great waste during these intervals of rest, but the petroleum flame could be turned down, like a gas flame, to the point at which it should be just sufficient to keep up the steam. Again, in the light steam-wagons for roads which will, assuredly, come into use in the course of the next ten years, the employment of petroleum fuel will probably be an absolute necessity. It is asserted, as a result of the Woolwich experiments, that one ton of petroleum will do as much work as five tons of coal. But, without insisting upon this strong claim, let it be admitted that petroleum possesses, weight for weight, only twice the efficient value of coal, still a war steamer using the liquid fuel could keep her station twice as long without replenishment as if she were burning coal, or she could chase or run away from an adversary twice as far. Moreover, there would be neither column of smoke nor prominent smoke-stack to attract or alarm the foe. The perfection of stowage which could be obtained with a liquid fuel is an important point in its favor. A ship using petroleum as fuel would have more room for profitable freight than a vessel of like size which should carry the coal necessary to supply an equal amount of steam-power for the same time.

It will be observed that the question as to whether or no petroleum can ever come to be used as steam fuel is in no sense one which can be settled by a mere comparison of the relative heating powers of petroleum and coal, as depending upon their chemical composition. A discussion of the actual first cost and theoretical proportionate value of petroleum and of coal will not settle the practical question. Cost is not the only consideration affecting the value and success of new inventions and processes. Porcelain costs more than pottery; the plumbing of a modern house is more expensive than the old well-sweep; in most places gas-light costs more than the same amount of light from petroleum lamps; yet these things are used.

Now, in some cases actual economy might attend the use of petroleum; but in every case there must be considered not only the capacity of each fuel to produce steam, but also the comparative rapidity and ease with which the result is effected, the amount of waste in either case, and a multitude of other incidental circumstances which have little or no connection with the theoretical power, or even the first cost of the two sources of heat.

Many of the arguments for petroleum as fuel are based upon the easy management of this fluid, as well as upon the compact nature of the apparatus in which it can be stored and used. Stokers, firemen, coal-heavers, and passers would disappear with coal, as would also a mass of dust, dirt, smut, and grime. The petroleum would be pumped out of tight barges or carts into tight tanks, whence it would flow through pipes to the fire. The engine might easily be made to regulate the supply of its own fuel—like man, to proportion its food to the work it has to do.

—In a note to the French Academy M Boudin gives some curious statistics concerning death by lightning. In 1864 eighty-seven persons, of whom sixty-one were males and twenty-six females, were killed within the limits of France. In 1863 one hundred and three persons were killed within the same limits. M. Boudin believes that his statistics establish also the fact that at least four persons are wounded for every one killed. The mortality varies very much in the different departments of France, being thirty-three times as great in the Lozère as in the Manche. But the most curious fact is the inequality between the two sexes. From 1854 to 1864 inclusive nine hundred and sixty-seven persons were killed in France, of whom six hundred and ninety-eight were males and two hundred and sixty-nine females. This comparative immunity of females extends even to children of less than fifteen years, and is the more singular inasmuch as in a great number of cases the lightning fell upon groups of men and women together. M. Boudin

thinks that this difference is not to be explained by the assumption that more men than women work out of doors, which is hardly the case in France; he believes that there is some hidden cause yet to be discovered.

—The ordinary colorless modification of phosphorus, when kept under water in the usual way, becomes covered as is well known with a thin, opaque, white crust, commonly called white phosphorus. Concerning the nature of this white body several different opinions have been held. Baudrimont, of Paris, has recently studied this crust with care, and has arrived at the conclusion that it is neither a hydrate nor an allotropic modification of ordinary phosphorus, nor yet a result of devitrification. It is nothing but ordinary phosphorus, irregularly corroded upon its surface—roughened or ground, as it were, by the oxidizing action of the air dissolved in the water. This slow combustion is more rapid in diffused daylight than in the dark, and ceases altogether as soon as the water is completely deprived of oxygen.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, February 3, 1866.

THE Committee of Ways and Means reported, on the 1st inst., a bill substantially the same as that which is known as the Morrill bill, empowering the Secretary of the Treasury to sell at any price, for any kind of money or securities, any quantity of United States bonds, bearing any rate of interest not over 6 per cent., and running for any number of years not over forty; authorizing him further to sell such bonds either at home or abroad, but limiting the interest payable on foreign bonds to 5 per cent., and requiring him to withdraw and destroy all Treasury notes or money received in payment of such bonds, so that no increase in the public debt can by any possibility be effected. The newspapers are full of rumors touching the probable action of Congress upon the bill. Some predict that the foreign clause will be stricken out, others that the unlimited power placed in the Secretary's hands will be somewhat curtailed, and that restriction will be laid upon the amount of bonds to be sold, the price at which they may be disposed of, and the money to be received in payment. We are led to believe that these rumors are uniformly baseless, and that Congress will adopt the measure substantially in the form in which it has been reported by the Committee. It is claimed by Mr. McCulloch's friends that nothing short of the unlimited power granted by the bill will enable him to negotiate bonds to advantage; that if he were limited either as to price, or as to amount, or as to the kind of money received in payment, speculators would traffic upon his position and defeat his aims. And it is urged, that as in our political and military crisis we cheerfully committed despotic powers to the men who controlled our political and military destinies, so now in the hour of our financial crisis we should place equal trust in the man who is set over our financial concerns. This reasoning is not satisfactory to the mercantile class, as a rule. Merchants generally object to investing on any pretext the Secretary of the Treasury for the time being with arbitrary control over the money market. It is urged, with obvious force, that the adoption of the proposed measure will lead to a series of fluctuations in prices, a succession of speculations and panics, which will prove extremely injurious to business, ruinous to individuals, and deleterious to the public morals. There is, however, very little prospect that objections to the Committee's scheme will be heeded. Were

the Secretary of the Treasury a cautious man personally he would decline to be invested with responsibilities which will infallibly lead to his being hereafter charged with being himself concerned in the speculations which are sure to grow out of his policy. With such power as the bill gives him, Mr. McCulloch might easily make a million a month. And though no one who knows him believes he will so speculate, it must be clear to every experienced person that, pure as he may be, and securely as he may keep his secrets, it will by-and-bye be generally believed that he is speculating and making his own and others' fortunes. Mr. McCulloch is probably so sure of himself as to defy calumny, and as for Congress they will simply register his behests.

Gold has advanced during the week in the face of a fall in exchange. It has sold as high as 141¼, closing this afternoon at 140. The advance is exclusively due to the excessive short sales by the bears, and the large accumulation in the Treasury, which held on 1st inst. $51,443,000 in coin. Gold is so scarce for delivery that it has been worth from 1-32 to ⅛ of 1 per cent. per day. Every one understands that it must fall, and every one is accordingly selling for the decline. Sterling exchange is very weak—say 108 to 108¼ for bankers' bills—over one per cent. below the rate at which specie can be shipped to Europe. In view of the fact, the nonsensical diatribes of some foreign journals about the indebtedness of the United States to foreign countries are rather refreshing. Much uneasiness, not to say embarrassment, prevails in mercantile circles. A heavy decline has taken place during the week in dry goods and in all articles of general merchandise which are bought and sold for currency. Yet goods do not move any the more briskly. The notion is general that we are going to witness a general shrinkage of prices, and dealers buy "from hand to mouth."

Notwithstanding an accumulation of nearly $100,000,000 of money of all kinds in the Sub-Treasury in this city, money continues to rule at 5 to 6 per cent. on call. In former days, when the Sub-Treasury accumulated $25,000,000, appeals were made to Congress to legislate this enormous balance into the ordinary channels of circulation, and United States bonds were bought at 116 for the purpose of depleting the Treasury. There is now, however, so much money afloat, and capitalists are so averse, in view of impending contraction, to embark their means in enterprises involving time, that the rate of interest tends downward, in spite of an accumulation in the Sub-Treasury equal to fifteen months' national expenditure on the old scale. Of the balance in the Treasury on 1st inst., $114,000,000 were on temporary deposit at 4, 5, and 6 per cent. So long as this amount lies in the hands of Government on call, a tight money market is out of the question. It is presumed that Mr. McCulloch's first step, on the passage of the loan bill, would be to fund these temporary deposits. So long as he retains them he is at the mercy of the banks. Sound financiers anticipate early action by the Department on this subject, as, otherwise, it would be difficult to explain why Mr. McCulloch should pay 5 to 6 per cent. for money which he does not seem to want, and which lies idle in the Treasury.

The following table will show the course of the stock, exchange, gold, and money markets during the week:

	Jan. 27.	Feb. 3.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	103¾	103¾	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102⅞	103	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	101¾	102	¼	....
10-40 Bonds	92⅞	94⅛	1¼	....
7.30 Notes, second series	98¾	99⅛	⅜	....
New York Central	91¼	87¾ ex d.	....	1
Erie Railway	81⅛	77	....	4⅛
Hudson River	101⅛	99¾	....	1¼
Reading Railroad	99¼	99¾	....	....
Michigan Southern	68¼	68¼	....	....
Cleveland and Pittsburg	78¾	82	3¼	....
Chicago and North-western	28⅛	27⅛	....	⅞
" " " Preferred	54¾	54⅛	....	⅝
Chicago and Rock Island	98¼	99⅛	1⅛	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	93⅛	92¼	....	1¼
Canton	44⅛	43⅛	....	1
Cumberland	44⅛	44¾	¾	....
Mariposa	13	10⅝	....	2⅜
American Gold	139¾	140	¼	....
Bankers' Bills on London	108¾	108⅝	....	⅛
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

The stock market continues feverish and variable, with a general downward tendency, counteracted in special cases by the efforts of cliques. The Erie clique, which forced up the price just a month ago to 97 per cent., and whose influence in the Board of Direction led to the declaration of the usual dividend of 4 per cent., in spite of the large floating debt of the Company, has come to condign grief. It is estimated that this party held between 40,000 and 50,000 shares of Erie, costing not less than 90. They began to sell, owing to intestine divisions, some ten days ago; they have now forced down the price to 77, and it is calculated that they have not disposed of one-half their stock. The loss on the operation will not fall far short of a million. So much for cornering speculations in the face of the natural current of prices. The next great fall will be in Cleveland and Pittsburg. We noticed, last week, the brilliant operation of a clique in that stock, by which $175,000 had been made in a week. It seems that their success has turned their head. They have been buying again, and no one being willing to sell the stock short, they are gradually becoming owners of all the floating shares, and when they try to sell, a decline of 15 to 20 per cent. will be inevitable. A clique has been buying Michigan Southern too, and had, until this evening, when it broke to 68¼, kept the price pretty steadily between 69 and 70. These operators seem to ignore the first principles of trade. If a man buys up all the boots or beef in a country, he may feel pretty sure of selling them at some price or other, because people cannot do without beef and boots. But people can get along famously without either Pittsburg or Michigan Southern, and if anybody buys them up he runs a fair chance of owning them for an indefinite period. The last quoted sale of Harlem was 280, and of Prairie du Chien 100; nobody would now give 50 for either of them. It will be the same with Pittsburg and every other stock that is bought up by a clique. Rock Island has recovered somewhat from the depression of last week, partly in consequence of an increase in the receipts for the fourth week in January. At this time last year the weather was execrable, and railway business consequently poor. Fort Wayne continues to drag. Hudson River, the last of the great dividend-paying stocks to fall below par, was down as low at one time during the week as 98½. The only instance of an advance, based on substantial grounds, which we can quote this week, is on Chicago and Alton, which has risen five per cent., selling at 115. It is unquestionably one of the most valuable and best managed railroad properties in the country, and is mainly held for investment. Governments are generally better, notwithstanding the unfavorable financial news from abroad. People have got over the idea that a tight money market in England is going to lead to shipments of U. S. bonds to this side. It is now understood that so long as we pay the interest on our bonds regularly, foreign holders will not sell, but will buy more. It is not unlikely that the market for new five-twenties and ten-forties is being gently manipulated to some extent by the Government agents with a view to prepare the way for a new loan. But of this there is as yet no official intimation.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

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INSURANCE.

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Thirty-first Dividend
NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET,
JANUARY 10, 1866.

The Directors have This Day declared a Semi-Annual Dividend of
SIX PER CENT.,
FREE OF U. S. TAX
(Reserving all unexpired premiums), payable on and after MONDAY, the 15th inst.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. J. D. STEELE, President.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.
CHARTERED 1850.
Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

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THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

$912,342 00,

and

$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

$1,400,777 16.

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INCORPORATED 1823.

CASH CAPITAL	$500,000 00
SURPLUS	251,653 11

Cash Capital and Surplus, Jan. 1, 1866, $751,653 11.

Ensures Property against Loss or Damage by fire at usual rates, and the Assured participate in the Profits of the Business.

Policies issued and Losses paid at the Office of the Company, or at its various Agencies in the principal cities in the United States.

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THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, Presiden
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.

ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

OFFICE OF THE ATLANTIC MUTUAL INSURANCE CO.,
New York, January 27, 1866.

The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following

Statement of its Affairs on the 31st December, 1865:

Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,933,146 80
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1865		2,019,324 73
Total amount of Marine Premiums		$8,952,471 53
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.		
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,764,146 38
Losses paid during the same period	$3,659,178 45	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$992,341 44	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks		$4,828,585 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise		3,330,350 00
Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages		221,260 00
Dividends on Stocks, Interest on Bonds and Mortgages and other Loans, sundry notes, re-insurance, and other claims due the Company, estimated at		144,964 43
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable		3,283,801 96
Cash in Bank, Coin		80,462 00
" " U. S. Treasury Note Currency		310,551 78
Total Amount of Assets		$12,199,975 17

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next.

Fifty per cent. of the outstanding certificates of the issue of 1864 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next, from which date interest on the amount so redeemable will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled to the extent paid.

A dividend of Thirty-Five per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending the 31st December, 1865, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the Third of April next.

By order of the Board,

J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

TRUSTEES.

John D. Jones,	William E. Dodge,	Cornelius Grinnell,
Charles Dennis,	Geo. G. Hobson,	C. A. Hand,
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Henry Coit,	James Bryce,	Benj. Babcock,
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CHARLES DENNIS, Vice-President.
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J. D. HEWLETT, 3d Vice-President.

THE MERCANTILE MUTUAL

INSURANCE COMPANY.

OFFICE, 35 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Assets, January 1, 1866 . . . . . $1,366,699

ORGANIZED APRIL, 1844.

The Company has paid to its Customers, up to the present time, Losses amounting to over

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The Nation.

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JOSEPH H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER, 130 NASSAU STREET, N. Y.

The Week.

MR. SUMNER delivered, last week, a long and elaborate speech on the right of suffrage. A large portion of it was devoted to showing that the phrase, "republican form of government," as used in the Constitution, must be interpreted not by the aid of European publicists and philosophers, but by reference to "the early and constant postulates of the fathers, the corporate declarations of the fathers, the avowed opinions of the fathers, and the public acts of the fathers;" that the American idea of a republic is "that all are equal in rights, and that governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed;" and he declares that "we might as well reject the Decalogue in determining moral duties, or the multiplication table in determining a question of arithmetic." This being the idea of the Constitution, he deduces from it the right of Congress to enforce equal suffrage by legislation, under the duty of guaranteeing a republican form of government. The argument is able and forcible, but if it fail to produce its due effect on the public mind it will be owing to the fact that, admitting his account of the theories of the fathers to be correct, their practice in establishing a form of government which was not republican in Mr. Sumner's sense, fell far below their theories. They established a bad precedent, and in now asking the nation to mend its ways, we fear we shall make almost as much progress by arguing from the necessity of the case as from authority. Therefore, that portion of his speech which goes to show that equal suffrage is essential to our safety and prosperity will, we think, make more impression than that which goes to show that our ancestors meant us to have it. Where Mr. Sumner fails, if he can be said to fail, at the present juncture, is in expecting that men like Mr. Johnson, who is perhaps a fair representative of the average intellect of the country, will be much affected by appeals to the authority of the fathers, in which more importance is attached to opinions expressed by them in essays and disquisitions and debates than opinions embodied by them in actual legislation.

THERE is a Health Bill, as our country readers are perhaps aware, now pending before the Legislature at Albany, the object of which is to prepare this city for the cholera visitation next summer, and the main virtue of which, apart from the summary powers it confers on the commissioners, lies in the fact that persons named in it for the office are not now, and never have been, connected with party politics. Everybody who is familiar with the history of the New York city government knows perfectly well that the great source of all city troubles is the extent to which municipal affairs are managed by active politicians, or the nominees of politicians. Mr. Greeley has, however, thought well to treat it as a party measure because he suspects Thurlow Weed—his wretched squabbles with whom have so long disgusted the public—of being one of its supporters, and has done his best to deprive it of all efficacy by having it so amended as to give Governor Fenton the nomination of the commissioners. Governor Fenton, whatever his excellences, is a politician, and, if not greatly misunderstood, an aspirant to the honors of a senatorship, in attaining which Mr. Greeley can, of course, greatly assist him. The motive which would mainly influence him in the selection of commissioners may therefore be guessed at. His nominees would probably be "sound" on the question of negro suffrage, and have decided views as to the character and aims of "T. W.," but perhaps be as competent to arrest cholera, and as likely to do so, as any of their predecessors. So that the real upshot of the matter will probably be that many thousands of unfortunates will be sacrificed next summer to prevent Thurlow Weed getting the better of Horace Greeley in lobby conflict in Albany. "Quidquid delirant reges, plectuntur Achivi"—which, being freely translated for the benefit of unlearned readers, means that, when politicians wrangle, poor men perish. What makes the matter all the more atrocious is that the men whose names have been inserted in the bill by its promoters are persons who have given the whole question of sanitary regulations for New York thorough and protracted study. They know where the bad drainage, the bad ventilation, and the overcrowding exist, and they have maturely considered what ought to be done by way of reform, and there now remain barely two months for them to carry out their plan, for according to the best authorities we may fairly expect the cholera by the middle of May. The persons whom Governor Fenton will put in their places have, on the other hand, most probably had their attention concentrated during the past winter on President Johnson's plan of reconstruction and the nefarious conduct of Thurlow Weed, and would, after their appointment, bring their great minds for the first time to the humble subject of bad smells and foul rooms. So that the early summer would probably find them either without a plan at all or with a very bad one.

Two Democratic conventions were in session on Wednesday of last week—one in New Hampshire and another in Connecticut. Both agreed that Congress has no power to regulate suffrage in any State. Both pledged their support to President Johnson—the former, because of the efforts he is making to secure immediate representation in Congress for the revolted States, with full restoration of their rights as members of the Union; the latter, because of his "statesmanlike resistance to negro suffrage" and to "the majority in Congress." The New Hampshire Democracy totally disapprove of any amendment of the Constitution. Their Connecticut brethren bid Congress "attend to the interests of the white man, who formed the Government, assured that in this the African race will have a sufficient guaranty of their protection and welfare." But we should like better grounds for this assurance than have been furnished by a State that disfranchises its colored citizens, and, *à la* Deacon Button, advises them, when abused, to go where their presence does not violate "the usages of society and the laws of decency."

THE passage relating to a "Special Committee" in the letter from our correspondent at the South, will interest those who are concerned to know how much security a Northern man may reasonably expect who goes there. From what follows may also be learned the precise

connection between liberty of speech and expression and Federal bayonets in the same quarter. *Per contra*, a private letter from Alabama, published in the *Times* of Monday, makes a fair, because an apparently candid, statement of personal experience favorable to the temper and behavior of the Southern people. The writer's testimony would have been more valuable if he could have vouched not only for the "Republican" and "radical" characters of certain persons known to have been unmolested, but for their habitually expressing their views without reserve.

A CORRESPONDENT, in a letter which we publish elsewhere, furnishes us a few of the opprobrious epithets which Mr. Phillips has from time to time bestowed not simply on pro-slavery men, but on some of the foremost advocates of the anti-slavery cause. The list might, if the game were worth the candle, be indefinitely extended. It is only Mr. Phillips's recent claim to be considered a mild, indulgent, and polite critic that renders the matter worth further notice. If he enjoys the use of "bad language" in public towards everybody who happens to differ with him, he is perfectly welcome to it. But we warn him that as long as he allows himself this luxury, he is estopped from giving lessons in the art of criticism either to THE NATION or anybody else. And we warn the whole school of politicians and reformers to which he belongs that there is no occult virtue in the "cause of the negro" which enables its supporters to dispense with the observance of the rules of decency to which the advance of civilization has, we are thankful to say, subjected the intercourse of white Christians. That cause has to be advocated just like any other cause, with a proper amount of respect for the character and feelings of their fellow-citizens, even by those who are wanting in proper respect for themselves. A champion of negro suffrage raving, ranting, and calling names, and blackening the character of his opponents, is as offensive a spectacle as can well be conceived of. The better the cause, the nobler ought to be the port of those who sustain it.

WE believe that the interpretation put by THE NATION upon the term "whitewash" in Mr. Sumner's speech upon the President's message regarding the condition of the South, was that at first put upon it by all of Mr. Sumner's friends and by the public generally, nor do we see how any other interpretation of it could be expected. It was upon the assumption that this interpretation was just that the article was based which drew forth Mr. Wendell Phillips's comments. Mr. Sumner having denied, however, that his intention, in using that term, was what we had supposed, and as every person has an undoubted right to put any construction he pleases upon his own words, we are bound to acquit him of all blame in the matter except for carelessness, or lack of judgment, in the choice of phrases under circumstances which made well-weighed words the only ones to which scholars and statesmen should have resorted.

SOME remarkable facts are brought out in our financial article this week. One is that foreign exchange has not been so low since 1861, when the war was impending. The news of this in England will probably give the finishing blow to the delusion set afloat by the *Times* that the financial stringency there is due to the largeness of our credits, and will reveal the plain truth—that capital is beginning to flow from all parts of the world to New York rather than to London.

A GALVESTON paper is disturbed by the reflection that the bulk of European emigrants to the South must first pass through the hands of "Northern fanatics, wire-pullers, and politicians," and so be disqualified from becoming identified with the Southern people. This unfortunate necessity it proposes should be remedied by the South establishing its own emigration agencies abroad, with corresponding agencies in its own ports; and by this sort of moral or political quarantine it hopes the importations will be effectually secured from infection. We hardly know what European state whose stock is worth having would offer the best material to the fastidious South. The Germans in Texas before the war were driving slave labor out of fashion by the sheer force of comparison, and the civilization of the South will as certainly give way before that introduced by colonies from the Continent, no matter who manipulates them on the passage.

AFTER all, if we seek the pure well of English undefiled, we must go South for it. Senator Wade unwittingly sounded it when he said in Congress he could never by his vote surrender the freedmen to be destroyed by their enemies. The Georgia *Weekly Telegraph* gushes out at him in this fashion:

"O fanatic! O blockhead! O numskull! O base calumniator! . . . Base vilifier! . . . Dog of a slanderer, etc., etc."

A NUMBER of "merchants and residents of the city of Matamoras" have signed a strong protest against the conduct of the United States officials on the Mexican frontier, accusing them of affording active aid to the Juarists and the guerrillas, and with encouraging filibustering, and having connived at the capture and pillage of Bagdad. General Weitzel replies that people in Matamoras were guilty of gross breaches of neutrality during the war, which is a very poor kind of *tu quoque*. United States officers do not stand on the same footing with Matamoras traders as regards neutrality laws, and if, as General Weitzel admits, United States officers and men may have been guilty of giving material aid to one of the belligerents in Mexico, we suspect he can hardly be acquitted, as he desires to be, of all responsibility for it. As regards the capture of Bagdad, it is undoubtedly not General Weitzel's duty to guard Mexican towns, but it is his duty to see that United States troops are not amongst the number of those who sack them. The protest is, probably, a bundle of gross exaggerations and calumnies, but we cannot say we consider the reply to it either happy or conclusive.

THE evidence on which Gordon was convicted has reached England, and proves to be such as no magistrate there would have considered sufficient to warrant a commitment for trial. And the court, it must be remembered, was composed of three young officers, the oldest of whom only got his commission in 1859. We fell into the error in our last number of speaking of Kingston as the place in which he was tried and hanged. He was arrested in Kingston, but the proceedings and execution took place in Morant Bay.

GENERAL PRIM, and the Spanish revolution with him, has passed out of public interest into Portugal. The Spanish nation is determined, however, to keep itself before the world, by continuing its unjust course towards Chili with all possible circumstances of aggravation. On the other hand, Peru has united with Chili, and it is possible that nearly all the Spanish forces on the Pacific may yet be driven to commit suicide.

THE commercial treaty recently concluded between Italy and the Zollverein awaits, before going into effect, the full concurrence of the latter. This, it is not doubted, will be obtained in time. Hanover, however, is stubborn, and wishes to adhere to the treaty without committing herself to the recognition of the kingdom—a course which is not only in its nature an absurdity, but is expressly removed by the terms of the treaty itself.

WITH the new year still further separation of church and state takes place in Italy. The latter henceforth by law takes cognizance only of civil marriages. The bishops prudently recommend the faithful to avoid the unpleasant consequences of "contracting a religious marriage which should afterwards lack the formalities demanded by the civil law, and would not be recognized by the public authority." They make bold to add that without the marriage sacrament there can be no Christian union, but only concubinage.

THEY have established at Liege in Belgium a sort of mechanics' institute and lyceum, called the *Franklin Society*. A school teacher of Leghorn cites a maxim of "Beniamino" in support of an appeal for a public library in that city.

BY a recent order of the Russian Emperor, persons of Polish descent are forbidden to acquire real estate in nine western provinces. Two years are allowed those who have been exiled and their goods sequestered to sell their property to orthodox Russians.

THERE is a rivalry of the Alpine passes for the honor of the projected railway between Switzerland and Italy. Cantons declare, and engineers write books, for the Simplon, Saint-Gothard, or Lukmanier, according to their respective predilections.

RECONSTRUCTION does not go uncontested in Switzerland. Six cantons have favored by their votes the revision of the federal constitution, nine have pronounced against it, and six hang fire.

THE Porte has notified the European Powers through their representatives that the international conference concerning the cholera will shortly assemble at Constantinople. It has also added that the deliberations of this body must not extend beyond the domain of science, nor be in any sense of a diplomatic character. The French ambassador has responded that this was not exactly the motive of his Government in appointing a minister plenipotentiary delegate on its part. The Porte is evidently apprehensive of intermeddling with its concerns, and, besides this warning, is said to have resolved to send a Turkish medical commission to Jidda two months in advance of the pilgrimages, to take precautionary measures against the pestilence.

DURING the last quarter the receipts from visitors at Pompeii were only 400 francs, against 40,000 in the same period of the year before. The cholera made the difference.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 10, 1866.

CONSIDERABLE progress has been made during the week in the public business, although no measure of great national importance has passed either House. The naval appropriation bill occupied much of the time of the House, and the policy advocated by Gen. Banks, Mr. Washburne, and others, of postponing the expenditure of public money upon the Southern navy yards at Norfolk and Pensacola until those regions are in a settled condition, was adopted by the House, against the desire of the Naval Committee and of the Department.

The measure which passed the House, providing for the sale of all the public lands in the late rebel States to actual settlers, including the freedmen, in small parcels of 80 acres or less, at $1 25 per acre, is an extension of the beneficent provisions of the Homestead act, from which much good may result. Still, it will be absolutely necessary to have the law backed up by the power of the federal Government, as, in the present state of prejudice against the freedmen throughout the South, no policy will be more unpopular and more violently resisted than the independent ownership and settlement of land by the negro.

The reconsideration and amendment of the Freedmen's Bureau bill, as it came back from the House, gave opportunity to Senator Guthrie, of Kentucky, to utter one of the most deliberately disloyal sentiments ever heard in Congress. He said, "You will have to acknowledge these States, and let them in, or you will have to do worse. . . . The passage of this system of bills is a dissolution of this Union, and you cannot help it. It is impossible for you to carry on this Government under any such system. Do you suppose there will ever come a time under this bill that they will desire to become members of this Union once more? . . . There were rebels in all the States in the beginning, and there will be again if you drive these people to desperation."

Had this language emanated from Mr. Guthrie's colleague, Garrett Davis, it might have passed as the vaporing of a common political scold. But from Senator Guthrie, a man of wide influence, immense wealth, and unimpeached honor and integrity, it sounds very ominous indeed. It has long been seen that Kentucky is more fanatically wedded to slavery than any Southern State—not excepting South Carolina. One of her (Union) representatives in the House said, the other day, that Kentucky was not only one of the most disloyal States in the Union, but was the only State which had practically succeeded by her legislation in carrying out the doctrine of secession. Are we to have a second war of rebellion, Kentucky taking the lead?

Another and a better border State—Missouri—claims the credit not only of a voluntary abolition of slavery, but of establishing (alone of all the States) a government purged of rebellion by the utter disfranchisement of all her citizens who took part in that great treason. Her two senators and all her representatives, save two, are "radicals" to the core, and to Senator John B. Henderson, of that State, belongs the honor of proposing the substitute for the constitutional amendment of the Committee of Fifteen, which prohibits any State from making any discriminations between its citizens on the ground of race or color.

This last proposition has gained an accession of strength this week, not only from the exposure of the difficulties, inconsistencies, and anti-republican admissions of the amendment before the Senate, but from the unexpected adhesion to the principle of universal suffrage of Senator Lane, of Indiana, heretofore reckoned, with several other Western senators, as opposed to negro voting. While planting himself, by his powerful speech on this subject, in advance of the public sentiment of his State, Mr. Lane forecasts the future sufficiently to have assured himself that absolute political equality is the only safe or tenable ground for securing the rights of the emancipated race. He turned the argument of "a war of races," recently reiterated by the President as an objection to equal rights, against its champions, by the assertion that justice alone is a stable foundation for reconstruction, and that a war of races is to be prevented by so constituting our political system as that no race shall be denied its rights.

The Senate debate upon the Constitutional Amendment is likely to last at least another week, and meanwhile several State legislatures will, undoubtedly, adjourn. The prospect of its ultimate adoption by twenty-seven States is very remote, and the most discerning judges share the opinion that even its adoption by the Senate is daily growing more uncertain. The stimulus of party unity and the resentment of Executive dictation is felt less strongly here than in the popular branch of Congress, where the "previous question" carries through measures often distasteful to the very men who vote for them. Besides, the partial and illogical reform of the Constitution proposed in this amendment lends strength to the champions of absolute and universal suffrage, who oppose anything short of a reform that can be completely justified on grounds of principle. Still, there is far more prospect that the amendment reported will pass than that any other will be agreed upon at the present session of Congress. Should no amendment pass, the friends of impartial and universal suffrage would go to the people, and Congress at its next session, if not intimidated by too severe a popular "rebuke of radicalism" at the fall elections, will propose a constitutional amendment such as will not need to be amended.

DIARY.

Monday, Feb. 5, 1866.—In the Senate, the House bill prohibiting American vessels which sailed under foreign flags during the rebellion from being registered or enjoying the privileges of American vessels, was taken up and laid over. The House joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to regulate the basis of representation was taken up. Mr. Sumner spoke five hours against the amendment, concluding his speech on Tuesday. He argued that the proposed amendment would introduce discord and defilement into the Constitution, by admitting that rights could be "denied or abridged on account of race or color;" that by its adoption Congress would prove derelict to its constitutional duty to guarantee a republican form of government to each State; and that having already legislated to protect the colored race in civil rights, it is bound to secure to them political rights also.

In the House, Mr. Blaine offered a bill providing for a census of the United States, to be taken in 1866. Referred. Bills were introduced to amend the indemnity act of March 3, 1863; to improve the Mississippi River; to fix the standard of weights and measures; to amend the *habeas corpus* act; to prescribe an oath for public officers and members of the bar; and to amend the Homestead act; all of which were referred. The Senate resolution for distributing 500 copies of Madison's Writings was passed. The Senate bill to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights was referred. Mr. Ross offered a resolution setting apart one day in each week to the public business, to be known as "white man's day." Laid on the table. Mr. McClurg, of Missouri, offered a resolution looking toward levying contributions on the seceding States to support the standing army and protect loyal citizens. The House refused to table it by 41 to 65. Laid over. Mr. Blow, of Missouri, offered a resolution looking to employment of colored troops, with their consent, in the construction of railroads. Referred. A resolution instructing the Joint Committee of Fifteen to report upon the expediency of removing the national capital was adopted. The House passed the Senate amendments to the pension appropriation bill. The Freedmen's Bureau bill of the Senate was discussed by Messrs. Trimble, Grinnell, McKee, Eliot, and Stevens. Speeches were also made on reconstruction by Messrs. Hubbell, Randall, Lawrence, and Stillwell.

February 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner reported from the Committee on Foreign Relations a bill to authorize the President to appoint a diplomatic representative to the Dominican Republic. Passed to a second reading. A resolution was passed, instructing the Judiciary Committee to report on the expediency of paying loyal citizens in rebel States for supplies furnished the army of the U. S. The Senate took u House joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment regulating the ba

representation. Mr. Doolittle offered an amendment basing representation upon the number of male electors over 21 years qualified by existing State laws.

In the House, the Senate resolution of thanks to Vice-Admiral Farragut was passed. The Freedmen's Bureau Bill was taken up. Mr. Smith, of Ky., offered an amendment, exempting Kentucky from its provisions. Lost—yeas, 34; nays, 131. Mr. Stevens offered a substitute, striking out the limitation to three years of the possessory titles acquired by freedmen under Sherman's field orders; providing that freedmen may acquire title both to public lands and confiscated lands: and that all these titles shall be perpetual. Lost—yeas, 37; nays, 126. The bill was then passed—yeas, 136; nays, 33; absent, 13. Mr. Stevens reported a bill making appropriations for fortifications for the fiscal year ensuing. Made a special order for Feb. 15. The joint resolution giving consent of Congress to the transfer of Berkeley and Jefferson Counties from Virginia to the State of West Virginia was passed—yeas, 112; nays, 24.

February 7.—In the Senate, a bill to increase soldiers' pensions from $8 to $12 per month was passed to a second reading. A bill to revise and consolidate the statutes of the United States was reported from the Committee on the Judiciary. The House bill providing that no vessel which sailed under protection of a foreign government during the rebellion shall be deemed or registered as an American vessel except by special act of Congress was passed—yeas, 31; nays, 12. Mr. Wilson's resolution proposing a constitutional amendment prohibiting any payment by the United States or any State on account of the emancipation of slaves, or on account of debts incurred in aid of rebellion, was referred to the Joint Committee of Fifteen. The consideration of the House constitutional amendment was resumed; Mr. Fessenden defended it, and replied to Mr. Sumner, arguing that universal suffrage is not now a practical measure, and that although he (Mr. F.) was for amending the Constitution so as to secure equal political rights to all, yet it cannot be carried by the requisite number of States. He criticized Mr. Sumner's proposed substitute as amounting to this: "Whereas, it is provided in the Constitution that the United States shall guarantee to every State in the Union a republican form of government; therefore, we declare that there shall be a republican form of government, and nothing else." The bill reported from the Committee on Public Lands, granting one million acres for the support of schools in the District of Columbia without distinction of race or color, was discussed and recommitted.

In the House a bill was passed to declare the meaning of the internal revenue act, so as to collect a larger amount from corporations. Mr. Stevens reported a bill making appropriations for the diplomatic service. Made a special order for February 15. The House passed a resolution instructing the clerk to prepare an index to Executive documents and House reports from 1839 to 1867. Mr. Brooks presented credentials of six representatives from Alabama. Referred to the Reconstruction Committee. Also, a petition from women asking the right to vote. Sent to the same committee. Mr. Julian, from the Committee on Public Lands, reported the bill for the disposal of the public lands in Alabama, Louisiana, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Florida to actual settlers only, without distinction of color, in parcels not exceeding 80 acres. An amendment to include in the privileges of the bill all persons pardoned by the President for participation in rebellion was defeated—yeas, 37; nays, 104. The Senate bill granting the franking privilege to Mrs. Mary Lincoln was passed. Also, Senate resolution extending the time for completion of the Burlington and Missouri River Railroad. Also, Senate resolution to pay the expenses of the Joint Committee on Reconstruction. A resolution was passed asking the Secretary of the Treasury to inform the House how much revenue has been derived from the late rebel States since April, 1865. The naval appropriation bill was considered and amended. Messrs. Walker, Henderson, and Kelso made speeches on reconstruction.

February 8.—In the Senate, Mr. Doolittle presented the credentials of John Pool as senator from North Carolina. Laid on the table. Mr. Sumner presented a petition from the State Convention of colored men of Mississippi praying Congress to establish a republican form of government. Mr. Lane, of Indiana, spoke two hours on reconstruction, arguing that Congress alone has power over the subject, that the late rebel States are not now fit for full membership in the Union, and that their governments can only be made republican in form by the admission of the freedmen to citizenship and the right of suffrage The Senate considered the House amendments to the Freedmen's Bureau bill, and non-concurred in the one restricting its operation to the States in which the *habeas corpus* is now suspended. The other amendments were concurred in. Mr. Guthrie, of Kentucky, spoke against the bill, declaring it a degradation of Kentucky, a measure to create rebellion, and a dissolution of the Union. Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, rebuked such sentiments, and declared himself in favor of its extension to all the States, but predicted it would be ineffectual without the ballot, which should be extended to the negro by constitutional amendment.

In the House, the bill for disposing of the public lands in the late rebel States to actual settlers, without distinction of color, in parcels of eighty acres, was passed—yeas, 112; nays, 24. The naval appropriation bill was considered and amended, the House reducing the appropriation for the Pensacola Navy Yard from $200,000 to about $50,000. The bankrupt bill was considered, debated, and amended.

February 9.—In the Senate, the credentials of Geo. S. Houston, as senator from Alabama, were presented and laid on the table. The House bill for the disposal of public lands in the late rebel States to actual settlers was referred. A resolution was passed directing the Secretary of War to communicate a compendium of medical statistics collected during the war. Mr. Davis offered a resolution for a select committee to investigate frauds by cotton agents of the United States. Laid over. The Senate took up the House resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to regulate the ratio of representation. Mr. Johnson argued against it as unfair to the States having large negro populations, as diminishing their representation, while increasing their taxation, and as calculated to lead to discord and disunion. Adjourned to February 12.

In the House, the Senate amendment to the Freedmen's Bureau bill, extending its operation to all the States, was concurred in. A message was received from the President declining to communicate, as incompatible with the public interest, the grounds or accusations upon which Jefferson Davis, C. C. Clay, and D. L. Yulee are held in confinement. The naval appropriation bill was resumed and many amendments made, among which was one striking out nearly $300,000 for the Norfolk Navy Yard, and appropriating $20,000 to keep it in repair. A proviso was added to the bill that no moneys appropriated by it shall be paid in violation of the test oath of 1862. The bill was then passed. The House resumed the consideration of the bankrupt bill, making sundry amendments thereto.

February 10.—The Senate was not in session.

In the House, speeches upon reconstruction were made by Messrs. Ward, Delano, and Williams. Mr. Rogers gave notice of a bill to repeal all acts exempting Federal securities from State and Federal taxation. Adjourned to February 12.

THE FREEDMEN.

According to the latest advices from Gen. Tillson the people of Georgia, who generally at first were strongly opposed to giving reasonable wages, now, influenced by the judicious course of the Bureau, are exhibiting much greater readiness to pay the freed people fair wages, while many of them declare that their prospects were never so good before, and that the freed people are doing admirably.

From Mississippi we receive the intelligence that the disproportion between the demand for labor and the supply ensures the freedmen a good price for all they do, and makes them quite independent. To meet the demand for labor in the Mississippi bottoms large numbers of laborers have been transported from the interior and poorer parts of the State to the rich lands, where they will be well treated, fed, and paid by kind employers. A very bitter feeling exists in the State against Government lessees, who are using property that has been restored.

In Virginia, the need for some of the troops that have been recently withdrawn or mustered out makes itself seriously felt among the officers of the Freedmen's Bureau. In some of the counties justice cannot be strictly enforced, and returned rebel soldiers maltreat freedmen at their good pleasure. The forces in Virginia are scarcely enough to guard public property.

—Lieut. Wood's disclaimer of any participation in the cruel outrages on the freedmen at Beach Branch, S. C., and denial that they even occurred, should have been addressed, our special correspondent informs us, to anybody rather than himself. He only quoted from the report of Gen. Saxton, which embodied charges against "the officer at Beach Branch," and of which he forwards us an official copy. The language is exactly reproduced in his twenty-first letter to The Nation.

—The difficulty experienced by the Bureau in obtaining detailed officers as permanent agents is not likely to be diminished by the recent fate of many of them. One was murdered in his bed at Pontotoc, Mississippi, according to a telegraphic despatch of the 6th. A Newbern (N. C.) paper of the same date reports that Capt. Horace James, superintendent for that district, went to the neighboring town of Washington on freedmen's business, where he was assailed by rowdies and most shamefully beaten. A detachment of ten men, under a lieutenant, was sent from headquarters to the scene of the outrage, and on the road thither was waylaid, the lieutenant being shot.

—The Maryland Legislature adjourned on the 8th. The House bill to admit colored testimony to the courts was laid on the table by the Senate; thus justifying the wisdom of Congress in extending to that State the authority of the Freedmen's Bureau.

Minor Topics.

In this country, where the effective and simple invention of *avertissement* is unknown, the press has a liberty not bounded even by the dictionary, but limited only by the imaginations of the people who write for it. A certain check upon journalistic fancy once existed, when nearly all the writers for the press were known; for then, individuals aggrieved by a newspaper had the means of personal satisfaction in their own hands, and there was nothing in public opinion to restrain a citizen from beating an editor if he liked. This means of satisfaction is still the resort of injured innocence in the remoter districts, but it must be confessed that it is liable to sad abuses, and that an editor may now and then be flogged for upholding a great principle, as well as for defaming private character. In this metropolis—where some characteristics of our civilization have found their ripest growth—the *argumentum ad hominem* is difficult of application in most cases

of editorial offence; for the journalists are nearly all sheltered under the cloak of impersonality, which, like charity, covers a multitude of sins, and the public has come to look with a sentimental disfavor upon the device of beating the responsible editor.

In Italy, where the Government exercises a certain control over the press, it is the custom for each journal to maintain as its *gerente responsabile* a stout laboring man, who, for a stipulated salary, consents to be cast into prison in atonement for such offences as the journal may commit. Consequently, this honest fellow spends half his days in arrest; the journalists pay the fines, and write what they please. This would be the true principle on which to make the journalists personally responsible in this country. For a very slight consideration, a newly arrived emigrant, or an able-bodied freedman, or one of those Constitution-as-it-was people, who believe that slavery is a fine thing and flogging a privilege, could be induced to represent the editor of any leading journal, and take those beatings which can now no longer be given to the real offenders.

Lacking, however, this more perfectly organized means of satisfaction, the victim of journalism must still turn for redress to the courts of law, as Mr. A. T. Stewart has lately done, with a success which must surprise the public. This gentleman had been defamed in a journal which is devoted to the exposure of crime on the principle of a thief set to catch a thief, and he courageously brought suit for criminal prosecution. The suit was very lamely defended, on the ground that Mr. Stewart was not the person intended in the libellous article; although his standing and circumstances were so described that those who knew the story to be false could not mistake the direction of the slander. Mr. Stewart, having proved that the article was utterly unfounded, accepted an apology from the defendants, and withdrew his suit.

He has since caused the arrest of the New York correspondent of a St. Louis journal, who had similarly defamed him, and has sued the proprietor of the paper for libel. It seems probable that he will succeed in this case, as in the former; and certainly the good wishes of the community are with him in his defence of private reputation against unprincipled writers for the press.

We Americans, who have so much civil liberty, have singularly little individual freedom, and it is to be acknowledged that the palladium of our liberties is often made to bear rather heavily upon us. From thrones, and crowns, and usurpations of political power we are tolerably safe; but we have our tyrants, nevertheless. The number of chiels among us taking notes with a view to printing them is out of all proportion to the census, and the

"Sweet little cherubs who sit up aloft"

in the fifth stories of the daily newspaper offices, writing articles, have a sharper tooth for private character than could be wished. There are laws for libel on our statute-books, but they have heretofore been of very difficult and infrequent application. Now that Mr. Stewart, however, has heroically illustrated the fact that they do afford certain redress, we hope the lesson will be lost neither upon our professional brethren nor their victims. It was, of course, Mr. Stewart's unfathomable purse which contained his success; but then, it is usually rich and prominent men who are assailed, and these have the means of defence made known to them. We imagine that if they pursued and prosecuted their enemies in the press, and exposed the factitious quality of their romances, they would do much to protect public as well as private reputation. We have grown to have a sad character for morals, or the want of them, in our large cities, by virtue of just such stories as Mr. Stewart has shown to be false. The ginger is now and then hot in the mouth, it cannot be gainsayed; but in many cases the salacious *contes* with which New York correspondents, and lewd journalists of the baser sort, enrich the newspapers are utter fiction. Unless the tendency to scandal is in some way checked, we shall have, with a really not very wicked civilization, such a state of things as exists in some European countries, where unspotted reputations are unknown, and purity of life is no safer from infamy than its opposite.

Upon the whole, we imagine that the merit (such as it is) of the most distinguished of the recent railroad accidents must be given to New Jersey. Not the most populous or most extensive among the States of this Union, she has far excelled her sisters in efforts to raise the public horror by the destruction of the travelling community, and she has just made another appeal to our somewhat toughened sensibilities by a casualty of certain appalling circumstances. The people who rode over a bridge near the village of Bloomfield, last Thursday, on the Bloomfield and Newark Railroad, must have been alarmed, but could hardly have been surprised, by the breaking of the bridge and the precipitation of their train into the stream below, with the well-known picturesque effects of the cars heaped in wild ruin, one upon another, and the equally familiar dramatic interest of the cries and moans of the sufferers buried in the wreck. We say these people could hardly have been surprised, for it was a matter of common fame that the bridge in question was rotten and unsafe, and it had more than once been reported to the company as exceedingly dangerous. These facts, indeed, were so public in the region through which the Bloomfield and Newark Railroad runs, that we should think the accidental insurance company, in which the young man who was killed held a policy for ten thousand dollars, might reasonably refuse to pay the insurance, on the ground that to pass over the Bloomfield bridge was an attempt to defraud the company. Their decision is still to transpire. In the meantime a coroner's inquest has been held on the victim's remains, and the jury have found that he came to his death through the gross and culpable neglect of the railroad officers, who failed to put the bridge in repair when informed of its insecurity.

Now, we tell New Jersey that all this will not do. The public may be willing to acknowledge her primacy in railroad accidents, but the public really does not care any longer for this sort of distinction, and does not in the least honor it. The truth is, the whole business of casualties by land and water is utterly stale, and people are simply bored by your absurd railroad slaughters and your foolish steamboat assassinations. These stories of trains off the track, and through bridges, and driven one into another, are all twice and thrice and thirty times told tales, and we turn from them with a feeling akin to disgust. Is our interest to be any longer awakened by the fact of some scores of wretched travellers daily burnt, and crushed, and beheaded, and disembowelled, and dismembered?

"Every minute dies a man,
Every minute one is born."

And we have learnt to consider that if these things happen, neither death's measure nor pain's is overflowed, but merely filled from unusual sources. People thus hurriedly put out of the way, are spared from lingering long and expensively in bed, and from suffering with disease.

Then, as to the coroner's inquest and verdict and all that, is it not the most tiresome part of the whole tedious farce? We know very well about these things: how the jury is empanelled, and great numbers of witnesses are examined, and indignation is manifested, and the proceedings printed in the newspapers, and there an end. No; if New Jersey has really an ambition to figure in the public view, she must either invent some novelty in horror, or else strike chords of sensation, never yet swept, by executing justice in some such familiar case as the present. The latter would probably be the more difficult of achievement (though we are by no means ready to say that the former would be easy), but then the triumph would be vastly greater. Let New Jersey reflect what renown she might win by convicting the officers of the Bloomfield and Newark Railroad, for example, of manslaughter; by shaving their highly respectable heads; by putting their influential persons into prison stripes, and by teaching their universally esteemed legs the lock-step! But we dare say New Jersey will not do anything of the kind. At least we cannot take courage to hope for such greatness from New Jersey, in view of the fact that her Governor has just declined to re-nominate one of her judges, because he decided that New Jersey had no right to sell a monopoly of the public carriage of passengers, over her territory, to any one railroad company.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE WAY THE GOVERNMENT IS SERVED.

Want of space did not allow us, last week, to do more than allude to the comments made by the Revenue Commission, in their report, on the present condition of the principal Custom House in the country—that of this city—and on the whole administrative system of the Government. The loss sustained through the frauds and waste and incompetency of the employees at the New York Custom House was estimated as ranging from $12,000,000 to $25,000,000 annually, and the wonder is that it is not greater. Only a very small minority of the officers are persons who had experience of their duties before the incoming of Mr. Lincoln's administration. The proportion of them that were originally selected for their office because of any special fitness for their duties is still smaller. The large majority are men who have been unsuccessful in various other pursuits; and the cases are rare, indeed, in which these pursuits have been of a nature to furnish them with either the kind of knowledge or kind of training called for by the Custom House. In nine cases out of ten they were appointed on purely political grounds, for services rendered to the party either by themselves, or more generally by their friends; and apart from this, their only claim on the Government is based on the fact that there is nothing under the sun by which money may be made for which they are fitted. It is only, in fact, owing to the almost accidental intrusion into office of a few men possessed of some commercial experience, and the retention by each new administration of a few men of official experience, that the business of the establishment can be carried on at all. Every known guarantee against plunder and waste is thus, one might almost say, studiously removed. Select a man for office without reference to his fitness; retain him in it without reference to his efficiency, and make his tenure dependent on the ups and downs of politics, and you have hit upon the best known mode of promoting corruption, negligence, and malfeasance, short of actually offering a full pardon for thieving and idleness, with a percentage on the amount stolen.

But it would be a great mistake to suppose that the bad effects of this system are witnessed only in the Custom House. There is, perhaps, nothing on which the operations of the commercial world, as well as the happiness of individuals, are so much dependent in this new country of ours as on the officering of the post-office. And yet we have the worst post-office in the civilized world—the one in which most letters are lost and delayed, and in which least attention is paid to public convenience in the despatch of mails. We are not now talking of the sparsely settled States of the border, in which distance, badness of roads, absence of bridges, and wide diffusion of population naturally offer insurmountable obstacles, for the present, to the accurate or regular working of the postal system. We are talking of this system as it exists in the old and densely populated States of the East, whose cities, in wealth, numbers, intelligence, and letter-writing, may vie with those of any country in the world. In all these the post-offices are mostly presided over by mere politicians, men without the smallest knowledge of, or liking for, their duties, and who pay little or no attention to them. The New York Post-office is one of the most important in the world; the postmaster is an illiterate person, who has passed his life in ward politics, and still devotes a large portion of his attention to them. Of his subordinates, a few, of course, have to be retained from term to term in order to prevent the machine stopping altogether; but the mass are the nominees of politicians, and are of even a lower class in character and intelligence than the denizens of the Custom House; and, in order to make them, if possible, still more inefficient, they hold their places at will, are poorly paid, and have to submit, as have the Custom House officers, to have their poor pittance docked nearly every year to assist in the payment of the electioneering expenses of their party. The result is, that there is about the whole establishment a laxity and absence of responsibility which deprives it of all public confidence, leads to enormous losses every year, mars social intercourse, sets a bad example to the community, and makes every American blush when he reads of or experiences the wonderful accuracy and regularity of the English and French post-offices.

Now, this disgraceful mode of carrying on the civil administration of the Government is no necessary part of the democratic system. It is, on the contrary, intensely oligarchical. Cynical contempt for the public and indifference to the public convenience run through the whole of it. If an aristocrat were seeking means to accomplish the overthrow of democracy or to bring it into disrepute, he could hardly hit upon anything better than this mode of filling the public offices; and, in point of fact, it does at this moment furnish to European writers one of their favorite illustrations of the worthlessness of purely popular governments. Nor is it of ancient date. It was inaugurated by Andrew Jackson, a man who, in spite of the brilliancy of his military career, was, as a civil administrator, one of the worst enemies the country has ever had, and he introduced it for the not inappropriate purpose of gratifying personal spite against Henry Clay.

One has not to go far to find the remedy. Congress has but to pass an act applying to all branches of the public service the rule suggested by the Revenue Commission with regard to the Custom House—throwing open all places in the public service, except the highest, to everybody, male or female, above a certain age, possessed of a good character, capable of standing the test of a competitive examination both as to physical and intellectual qualifications. The whole system of nomination by members of Congress is a monstrous abuse. This done, Government officers should be paid as well for working for the United States as any private person would pay them, unless, indeed, a small deduction were made for the greater permanence and security which the public service ought to offer. Their places ought to be dependent on good behavior; promotion, within certain limits, ought to be by seniority; and there ought to be pensions for the superannuated. True, this would deprive politicians of one valuable source of excitement, and would drive large numbers of the lower grades into other employments, but the public would certainly be no loser by their disappearance.

If we said, however, that we anticipated an immediate realization of our hopes on this subject, we should be guilty of deceit. We do not. It will, we fear, be a long time before any party acquires enough conscience and public spirit to use its power to deprive itself as well as its adversaries of the means of rewarding its underlings out of the public purse. But if Congress acts on the suggestion of the Revenue Commission with regard to the Custom House, we shall at least have inserted the narrow end of the wedge.

THE IMPERIAL SPEECH.

The speech of the French Emperor, which opens the legislative session, was expected this year with more than usual impatience. The Mexican question had become of prime solicitude to the nation, and it was expected that Napoleon III. would announce the withdrawal of his troops from the ill-fated empire of Maximilian. The last steamers had brought the message of President Johnson and the documents which accompany it; the official press could no longer conceal from the French people that the intervention in Mexico was looked upon by the American people as a disguised attack upon the United States, and a violation of the Monroe Doctrine. The opinions expressed by Gen. Grant on the Mexican war had also found their way to Paris, and had created much sensation. Under these circumstances we may imagine with what impatience the words of the Imperial oracle were expected. In the speech pronounced in the *Salle des Etats* by Napoleon, the lion has become a lamb. Nothing is left of the oriental and pompous style to which we were accustomed; nothing of the dogmatic and dictatorial tone; nothing of the Napoleonic impudence and pride. *Quantum mutatus ab illo!* The nephew of Bonaparte no longer wishes to interfere in the affairs of Europe; Bismark may do as he likes; the Emperor of France only means to preserve, in the face of new events, of new complications, usurpations, and conquests, the right "*de nous affliger ou de nous réjouir*" (of being satisfied or sorry), a right which it would be very hard to deny him.

Mexico is mentioned in only ten lines of a speech which occupies three full columns of the *Moniteur*. We are taught that the government founded there on the will of the people is consolidating; that the rebels are dispersed and have no longer a chief; that the expedition approaches its close, and that Napoleon is negotiating with Maximilian to fix the time of the withdrawal of his troops, in order that they may return to France without compromising the French interests which they have gone to defend in those distant parts.

This programme would have been more promising if those "French interests" had been defined a little. Frenchmen have not forgotten, if the Emperor has, that he once wrote that he "meant to re-establish across the seas the strength and the prestige of the Latin race." They have not forgotten, if he has, that he wrote on the 3d of July, 1862, to Marshal Forey: "Our *interest* is that the United States should be powerful and prosperous, but that this republic should not conquer the whole Gulf of Mexico, dominate the West Indies as well as South America, and become the only dispenser of the products of the New World." If the Emperor Napoleon resolved upon the Mexican expedition to check the growing power of the United States and to re-establish the prestige of the Latin race, and considers that the interests of France are bound up in this double object, we do not see very clearly how he has given to these *interests* a sufficient satisfaction. Such a lofty mind can, of course, not be thinking of the Jecker debt alone when he speaks of interests; France has not spent millions and sacrificed thousands of her soldiers in order that a naturalized Swiss banker should get satisfaction from his Mexican creditors.

The pleasure at first experienced by the French people on hearing the Mexican paragraph of the Emperor's speech, must have been even more diminished by recurring to last year's paragraph on the same subject:

> "Thus all our expeditions are drawing to an end. Our troops have evacuated China; . . . the army of Mexico already returns to France (*rentre déjà en France*); and, while shutting the temple of war, we shall, with pride, inscribe on a new triumphal arch these words: 'To the glory of the French armies for their victories in Europe, in Asia, in Africa, in America.'"

What a fine image this, and how sublime a sentence! But has the door of the Temple of Janus really been shut by the modern Augustus? If the army a year ago was leaving Mexico, we wonder where it will be a year from this day. Will it then have left Mexico, or be leaving it, or be on the eve of leaving it? Janus only knows.

The *Yellow-book* (the French name for a Blue-book) is even more modest than the Imperial speech. The Emperor's only object in going to Mexico was to obtain suitable reparations; once there, he could not refuse his support to the men who conceived the project of establishing a monarchical government, as a guarantee of order; he had no desire to make a crusade against republican institutions; the new empire once established, he was only to claim for its protection the principle of non-intervention, and then to withdraw his forces. Such is the language of the *Yellow-book*, but no undue importance ought to be attached to it, as the Emperor never considers himself bound by any words but his own, and not always by them. The real state of the case is this: the Mexican war is unpopular—unpopular in itself, unpopular on account of its evident complication with the United States. The Emperor means to get out of his difficulties as well as he can, and is willing to sacrifice Maximilian in the end; for the present he cannot, or thinks he cannot, withdraw his troops without getting from our Government the recognition of the emperor of his own choice and making. That recognition would be a screen for his vanity; it would allow him to retire from the contest; he would say to Maximilian and to the Mexican people, "I have done for you all I could; the recognition guarantees you against the only dangerous interference you have to fear, that of the American government. You must take care of the rest." His pride would be safe, if Maximilian's crown was not. There is an evident desire all through his speech to win the good graces of the American people. He speaks of Mr. Lincoln's death with as much feeling as if, during Mr. Lincoln's presidency, he had not done his best to obtain the recognition of Jefferson Davis's confederation from the governments of Europe, and as if his official press had not for three years represented Mr. Lincoln as a vulgar, coarse, ignorant tyrant, unworthy of his high position and incapable of sustaining the Union. He no longer professes a platonic love for English liberty, but now admires American liberty. He has just discovered a certain analogy between the French and American constitutions. To be sure, in both countries the responsibility falls directly on the executive, and the ministers are not responsible. But here the responsibility of the President is real; in France this responsibility of the executive is merely theoretical. The descendants of Napoleon III., if they are ever to be emperors, will hold their throne with the same hereditary title as the Czar of Russia or the Emperor of Austria. It would be idle to show in detail how widely the functions of the executive and the legislature differ in the two countries; but above all these constitutional questions shall we not place liberty itself, which the political institutions have no other legitimate aim than to protect and to maintain? What sort of parallel can the Emperor draw between a country which enjoys the most absolute freedom and that in which he has destroyed all liberty; where twenty-nine citizens cannot hold a meeting without the permission of his police; where Prévost Paradol, a member of the French Academy, is not allowed to lecture on Molière; where no one is at liberty to issue a paper without his permission; where any paper can be suppressed at his pleasure; where a book can be seized in the bookseller's shop even before a copy has been sold?

The very flatteries of the Emperor to the United States, however sincere and timely, serve him as a pretext for refusing Frenchmen any new liberties. He alludes to ministerial responsibility, and rejects it as un-American. He is quite satisfied with the working of his system. His speech reads more like that of a philanthropist than that of an emperor; trade, agriculture, co-operative societies, etc., fill more than half of it. "L'Empire c'est la paix" is again the order of the day. The army is diminished, a diminution which amounts to a saving of twelve millions of francs a year. All is for the best in the best pos sible empire. France is happy, respected, "sans détenus politiques dans ses prisons, sans éxilés hors de ses frontières." We wonder what Victor Hugo and Louis Blanc and Ledru Rollin, what the Orleans princes, will think of this last phrase. They are summarily put out of existence—a generous proceeding on the part of a man who was once himself an exile. The property of the Orleans family was confiscated by Napoleon III. ten years ago. Is it not strange that, in 1866, he knows nothing about that same family, and forgets its existence? "There are no exiles." What if one of these men, taking the Emperor at his word, should show himself in Paris? Can they forget the words once pronounced in the Senate by Prince Napoleon, in view of such an eventuality: "Nous les fusillerions bel et bien?" Not only are these persons exiled, but their very names are not allowed to be mentioned in the French papers; their books are confiscated, if they try to publish any; while Napoleon, in prison as well as in exile, was freely allowed to be a contributor to the "Progrès du Pas de Calais." Either his memory or his magnanimity is at fault. The world is not as ignorant as he thinks, and will give him little credit for declarations which it is too easy to refute.

THE PRESIDENT AND THE COLORED DEPUTATION.

The interview of the President with the colored deputation last week had some curious features about it. The President spoke at some length, though, as is not uncommon with his speeches to negroes, with a good deal of repetition. He argued strongly against negro suffrage on two grounds—the one that it would irritate the poor whites horribly, and the other that the majority in every State has the right to decide in whose hands political power should be lodged. We must, however, earnestly protest against his considering himself, as he evidently does all through this reconstruction process, as the special champion and protector of the poor whites of the South, or in fact of any class in particular. The poor whites of the South have no peculiar claims on his consideration, and, whether negro suffrage be a good or a bad thing, their feeling about it is only of importance so long as it seems likely to lead to a defeat of the law. But the Chief Magistrate of the United States has no right to acknowledge that it is in the power of any class in the community to defeat the law. He has no right to reply to any class of men seeking equality of rights, that it cannot be granted because it would hurt the feelings of another class

To call this democracy is an abuse of language. If it were true that the poor whites would resent the exercise of the franchise by the negroes, it would be the business of the Government to protect them in it. One of the objects, in fact the great object, of the existence of government, is to protect people in the enjoyment of rights against the attempts of their neighbors to deprive them of them. All aristocracy is based on a simple prejudice, and the great reason why every country in the world is not democratic is that a portion of the population would be annoyed by seeing the remainder sharing in the government. The negroes of the South have precisely the same claims on President Johnson's sympathy, and thoughtfulness, and regard as the poor whites—no more and no less. He may have a strong personal preference for the poor whites; he has a right to have it, and if he has it we do not blame him; but political preference he ought neither to have nor to express. He is just as much the organ or officer of the one as the other, and this in virtue of the simple fact that both are freemen, and live in the United States. Therefore, when he replied to the deputation as if he was bound to see that the poor whites, in particular, should suffer no annoyance, he wandered from the point.

Nor is the argument that the suffrage would do the negroes no good any better than the argument that their possession of it would vex their white neighbors. *That* is not a reason for refusing a man anything which is his due. We may think many a rich man would be better without his riches, but we never hear this brought forward as a good reason for despoiling him. Large numbers of white men who possess the franchise at the North certainly *seem* to be the worse for it, but would this justify us in disfranchising them? The true democratic theory is that every man will be sooner or later the better for sharing in the Government; that even if his belonging to the governing body does not at once improve him, its influence is educating, and will sooner or later make him worthy of it; but whether it would or would not be a good thing for him personally to have it, if he was on general grounds entitled to it, is something with which other people have nothing to do. Mr. Johnson might very well refuse to consider whether the bestowal of the franchise on the negroes would or would not benefit the negroes as a class, and direct his attention solely to the consideration of the effects of their possessing it on the nation at large; but of this he says nothing whatever. The feelings of the poor whites seem uppermost in his mind.

His next objection—that the people of each State are alone entitled to decide in whose hands the local government shall be lodged—is, with certain qualifications, a just one. But then he knows very well that this principle is limited in its operation. The people may not lodge power, for instance, in so few hands as to change the character of the Government. They have to preserve its republican form. They may not lodge power in hands that will use it against the Union; this is treason, as has been demonstrated by the war. Mr. Johnson never thought of respecting the decision of the majority in the various States when they lodged the governing power in the hands of the rebel legislatures. The great question remains still unsettled whether a part only of the people has a right to lodge it anywhere. The freed negroes are certainly part of the Southern people, in our political nomenclature, but when Mr. Johnson called the Southern people together, after the rebellion was over, to decide afresh how political power should be distributed, he expressly provided that the negroes should not be consulted. If all had been allowed to vote for the conventions which revised the existing Southern constitutions, and the majority had then decided that color ought to deprive men of the franchise, there would have been a show of fairness in the argument which he used to the deputation. But after all that has happened, it is simply a begging of the question. When he uses it against the claims of the colored men, he not only knocks them down, but kicks them for falling, a proceeding which has always been considered, though no doubt very vigorous, the acme of absurdity.

The grand secret, however, of Mr. Johnson's difficulties about the negro and his rights was revealed, unwittingly perhaps, in his address on Thursday, when, in giving his reasons for having opposed slavery, he mentioned "first the fact that it was a great monopoly," and only secondly that it was wrong in principle. No man to whom its evils present themselves in this order is likely to reason rightly as to what the nation which abolished it owes to those who have been its victims. No mind to which the moral iniquity of the thing does not appear so monstrous and overwhelming that every other objection to it sinks into comparative insignificance, is ever likely to have that ardent love of liberty for its own sake which casts out all fear or misgiving, which is in all countries the best and surest foundation for statesmanship, and in a democratic country the only one. Mr. Johnson's weakness on this point is perhaps natural in a man born and bred in a slave State. But he has made prodigious advances in political education within the last five years, and we may fairly look for advances still more remarkable in the next three. It may be that the very two-sidedness of his mind may be one of the most powerful aids to perfect reconstruction.

STORMS AND EPIDEMICS.

From the last annual report of the Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, we are glad to learn that there is reason to hope for the speedy re-establishment of that organized system of simultaneous meteorological observations over the whole United States which was inaugurated as early as 1849, and which, previous to its partial interruption by the war, had done so much for the development of the science of meteorology. The method and manner in which problems so vast and so exceedingly difficult as those of the laws of storms, and of the progress of the seasons and their variability from year to year, have been attacked, and in good part mastered, by the Smithsonian Institution, are alike creditable to American science and honorable to the founder and directors of the institution. One simple item of practical fact, which has resulted from the labors in question, ought to be reiterated in the ear of every intelligent citizen, until the strange apathy or ignorance which now prevails with regard to it shall have been for ever done away with. The officers of the institution, as they sit quietly in their chairs at Washington, possess the power of predicting, sometimes a day or two in advance, the approach of great storms, and of spells of severe cold weather—in a word, of foretelling the advent of any of the larger disturbances to which the atmosphere is subject.

In view of the many advantages which would accrue to commerce, and of the great comfort and convenience which would result to the general public, if there were to be adopted some system of regularly foretelling the weather in the daily prints, it seems hardly credible that no society of merchants or underwriters has as yet arisen to take the matter in charge, or that the Associated Press, or even Congress, have so long abstained from making a systematic use of the materials which are in the possession of the institution and at the free disposal of every one. It would be no very difficult task to impart in each of our cities such information of the coming storm or cold as would prevent the shipment or exposure of perishable merchandise, the premature uncovering of buildings, the unseasonable journeying of invalids or of persons in pursuit of pleasure. It would be a comparatively easy matter to give warning, by hoisting signal-balls by day or by flashing fire by night, at the capes of the Chesapeake or the Delaware, at Sandy Hook, Cape Cod, and Cape Sable, along the Sound and at the Vineyard, and at every appropriate promontory along the Atlantic sea-board, of the coming of the great north-east snow-storms which periodically line our coast with wrecks, and to indicate to all inward-bound vessels that it would be well for them to make an offing at once, or else run for an anchorage under the nearest hook or in the next best hole, there to hold on until the almost inevitable north-wester shall come up to succeed the snow.

But in illustrating as they do most forcibly the value of united and concerted action in scientific research, the meteorological results attained by the Smithsonian have a far higher significance than would appear from the considerations just now alluded to. They show us upon a higher level the transcendent efficiency of a skilfully organized, well equipped, and thoroughly disciplined regiment, as contrasted with an equal number of isolated malcontents, or guerrillas, working always at cross purposes, often quarrelling among themselves, and of little or no use in war, excepting when employed as auxiliaries to regular troops. The chemist Dalton, after long and laborious study of meteorological

matters, is reported to have exclaimed in despair: "In this thing there is no law!" Considering his stand-point, as one man upon that little island which, according to observations of the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table, if stirred into the Mississippi at Natchez would all be handsomely settled out between that and the Balize, we can but sympathize with Dalton in his despair and admit that his conclusion appears to have been correctly drawn from the premises. But his exclamation is in strange contrast with the attitude of modern science. We quote from Prof. Henry's report:

"Meteorology has ceased to be a mere record of isolated facts. The special characteristic of modern efforts in this line consists in extended co-operation, and in determining the simultaneous condition of the atmosphere over extended regions of country. It is only by this means that the laws which govern the occurrence, motion, direction, and propagation of the disturbances of the atmosphere can be ascertained. By comparisons of this kind isolated observations of otherwise little value become important, and afford an ample field in the cultivation of which any person who will take the trouble to record the direction of the wind, the beginning and ending of rain, snow, hail, the time of blossoming of trees, appearance of birds, insects, etc., may render valuable services." . . . "The advantages possessed by the Smithsonian Institution for investigations of this kind will be evident when it is recollected that a large portion of its observers are stationed west of Washington, that the phenomena approach us over a large extent of land, and can be critically noted through every part of their passage eastward, while the phenomena which are presented to the meteorologists of Europe traverse in reaching them a wide expanse of ocean, from which only casual observations can be gleaned." . . . "No other part of the world has offered such facilities for the collection of meteorological data, the system extending over so large a portion of the earth's surface; the observers, with few exceptions, all speaking the same language, and many of them being furnished with full sets of compared standard instruments."

In regarding this admirable system, the question is at once suggested, Why has not something similar been adopted in many other departments of science besides that of meteorology? We have, for example, as a parallel to the effort of Dalton, the following extract from the writings of the famous Doctor Sydenham. He says:

"I have carefully examined the different constitutions of different years as to the manifest qualities of the air, yet I must own I have hitherto made no progress, having found that years, perfectly agreeing as to their temperature and other sensible properties, have produced very different tribes of diseases, and *vice versa*. The matter seems to stand thus: There are certain constitutions of years that owe their origin neither to heat, cold, dryness, nor moisture, but upon a certain secret and inexplicable alteration in the bowels of the earth, whence the air becomes impregnated with such kinds of effluvia as subject the human body to distempers of a certain specific type."

In these days of approaching cholera and cattle-plague Sydenham would find no lack of adherents to his doctrine of the "certain secret alteration." We should now say that diseases like the cholera and Rinderpest probably depend upon cosmical and infrequent causes, and not immediately upon local and constantly recurring causes, though there is nothing which would lead us to suppose, with Sydenham, that this "alteration" is "inexplicable." So far from this, we cannot help believing that a comparatively small amount of concerted action around a definite rallying point, such as the Smithsonian Institution has proved itself to be in the matter of meteorology, would be sufficient to bring order out of the chaos of medical information which has already been collected by individuals and local associations throughout the length and breadth of the land, and to explain many points with regard to the transmission and communication of disease which are now shrouded in obscurity. We would invite the attention of that profession, the members of which have in all ages shown themselves ready to advance the cause of science and of humanity by word and deed, by time and by money, to the question, whether there could not be raised, by subscription among the physicians of the country, if in no better way, a fund sufficient to support—in connection, perhaps, with the Smithsonian Institution—a competent permanent secretary, who should do for the laws of disease what Prof. Henry and his assistants have done for the law of storms, and Prof. Baird and his coadjutors for the natural history of our country.

AN AUTOBIOGRAPHY OF THE REBELLION.

It has been remarked by Montesquieu that it was victory alone that decided whether "Punic faith" or "Roman" should become the proverb of the world. There are people who affect to believe, many who no doubt sincerely believe, that the judgment of posterity concerning the late controversy between North and South would have been reversed if the Confederate battalions had outweighed the Federal. We mean such is the notion of a large and even respectable number of foreigners. The people of the South themselves, we need hardly say, are all of this way of thinking, and for our part we do not care to disturb them in it. Let them, if they choose, look forward to that epoch of retributive justice, when, as in a German print we once saw, the wood-sawyer and the tree change places. If the present generation shall die before that time, no one meanwhile ought to grudge them the consoling illusion.

We observe in a Texas newspaper a spirited exhortation to the citizens of that State not to suffer the history of the war to be written by their victorious adversaries alone, or from the materials furnished by the latter. Scarcely, it is affirmed, have their statements "done us justice in regard to a single battle." Leave the whole matter to the Federals, and "we may expect nothing but a complete self-justification on their part, and to have the responsibility of the four years of bloodshed and suffering thrust upon ourselves." It is shown how this misrepresentation may be avoided by a little pains in collecting and preserving facts; how the captain might write the history of his company, and the colonel the history of his regiment; how the ladies might form societies in aid of this laudable undertaking, reserving, if they please, the brightest pages for a "faithful transcript of their own noble actions;" and how this one yielding of his memory, and that one of his documents, the honorable tale would grow apace, until, each county having rendered in its account, the whole should be bound with tape and deposited in the State archives, there to await the impartial historian of the future to which we have alluded.

Far be it from us to call this industry misdirected, or to protest against it. We do, indeed, attach a peculiar infamy to rebellion and treason in the interest of slavery, and we should have been more than pleased if the South had manifested a disposition to forget its high crime and misdemeanor. We must, nevertheless, acknowledge that its present mood is a better guaranty that we shall some day have a veritable history of the recent struggle. However reputations may suffer, or theories be affected, on either side, it is of the highest importance that mankind should have the exactest information of what occurred in these past four years—what occurred, and why it occurred—what were the issues and how many were decided, and what were the lessons of each and all. It is superfluous to assert that nothing of the sort can be accomplished without a fair amount of frankness on the part both of conquerors and vanquished, but especially of the latter. For it cannot be merely prejudice to conceive that they would have of the two the greater reluctance to be unreserved. They were incontestably engaged in a conspiracy whose origin antedated many years its violent outbreak, and which yet was sought to be invested, for outside effect, with an air of spontaneity. South Carolina's revelations, to be honest, must begin at least thirty years before her ordinance of secession. However righteous the plot to take possession of this Government, it has never been distinctly avowed in all its length of duration and breadth of purpose, and it is safe to say it never will be. We shall be only too thankful if the South will unlock her secrets. Hitherto the rebel archives have been admirably concealed from loyal researches. Dr. Lieber presides over a parcel of rubbish at Washington; there have been various captures from time to time of "invaluable papers;" but we do not penetrate the rebellion to the core. Shall we ever?

If we cannot obtain an *exposé* of motives, let us have military statistics, and be thankful for them. Ask Mr. Secretary Stanton how many Confederates under Lee confronted and overwhelmed McClellan, Burnside, Hooker; how many disputed with Grant the passage from the Wilderness to Richmond. He will not tell you—the facts would be humiliating; perhaps he is not able. Then welcome the Southern historians. Already Early and Sheridan are renewing their little differences, and this time, with that backwoods indifference which characterizes the seeker after truth, we do not care which whips. Gen. Jordan found a Northern vehicle and a Northern audience for his views on the probable fate of the Confederacy if Jefferson Davis could have been laid on the shelf. Pollard has written history from a Southern point of view, and threatens to write more if his life is spared; to which end we advise his continuing to assail only unarmed newspaper correspondents. The ex-President himself may possibly indulge either in a confession or a vindication, and the opening of his lips

would remove the scruples of many who are dumb while he is in peril of his life.

In bidding these historians of every degree to the witness-stand, we cannot deceive them by pretending that our credence will be equal to our satisfaction in seeing them appear. We shall listen respectfully to their statements and arguments, without, however, expecting to place entire faith in them. They shall be treated as we are willing they should treat the freedmen in their courts; we will not exclude them from a hearing, but we shall exercise the right of sifting their evidence. It would be presuming too much on Southern equanimity to request that they shall receive our histories as gladly and freely as we shall receive theirs; and that any one of their fellow-citizens who may happen to conclude, after balancing the sheet, that the credit is on our side and the debit on theirs, may be unmolested in his opinion and in the expression of it, nor be denounced as low-minded, unchivalrous, unpatriotic, and be chased from the community or lynched instanter.

CONVICT LABOR.

SEC. 1. No male convict who shall hereafter be sentenced to imprisonment in either of the State Prisons of this State, shall be permitted to work therein at any other mechanical trade than that which, as shall appear by the certificate of the clerk of the court in which he shall be convicted, such convict shall have learned and practised previous to his conviction, except that the convicts at Sing Sing may be employed in the cutting and manufacture of stone, and the convicts at Clinton in the manufacture of iron from the ore, and except also that convicts may be employed in such branches of manufacture as are not elsewhere carried on in the State of New York.

Mr. Brandreth, of Westchester, who seems to have made himself the especial champion of laboring men, spoke at length in favor of the bill. The great argument for the foregoing section is that convicts who have learned other trades are put at work under contractors or iron moulders; and, after serving out two or three years' time, compete with journeymen who have served a regular apprenticeship to the trade. It is urged that the State should not bring its prison labor into dangerous competition with honest industry. Progress was reported on the bill, which will probably pass.—*Albany Correspondence of the N. Y. Times.*

The majority of convicts are thieves of various degrees of demerit; men who prefer preying upon the labor of others to working for a living themselves. The State seizes them and shuts them up, not merely to punish and prevent crime, we are told, but to reform the criminal, and dismiss him at the end of his term a useful, or at least a harmless, member of society. How can this be accomplished unless the criminal is made to work, and is taught some kind of mechanical labor by which he can earn his livelihood in the outside world without too much difficulty; for his antecedents will always place him in a worse position than that of others seeking for employment? Mr. Brandreth might object to religious teaching in Sing Sing just as reasonably, because it might bring conscientious and pious prison labor "into dangerous competition with honest industry." But in spite of Mr. Brandreth, it can hardly be denied that it is the duty of the State to give the convict every chance of reform. Let him be taught both to work and to pray; and particularly to work—even if it should be true that a few individuals might lose something by his gain.

It will be answered: "There are the iron mines and the stone quarries; let the prisoners work in them." Unless miners and quarrymen have not the same right to protection as other workmen, which Mr. Brandreth is not likely to assert, it is evident either that there are comparatively few mines and quarries in the State, or that this kind of labor is not considered an attractive way of earning one's bread. Indeed, we all know that it is a very hard way. "Condemned to the mines" was long a punishment, and has almost become a proverb. How many of the eight hundred convicts of Sing Sing, if turned out upon the world, hampered by their past, and beset by temptation, would find a life in the mines a sufficient inducement to good conduct—even if it were possible for them to seek out the remote places where this kind of work is carried on? And we may add that not more than half of the eight hundred have the physical ability to get their living in this way.

"Then let the prisoners be employed at the trade they have learned and practised previous to their conviction." But many of them have never learned a trade, or, having learned it in early life, have long ceased to practise it and have forgotten it. It is the dislike to steady work that leads them to jail. This is the moral malady to be cured.

The mechanic has no right to complain that prisoners compete with him. So do his neighbors who carry on the same business. The whole community would rejoice if there were no convicts in Sing Sing; but, instead, eight hundred honest men working hard for wages, and competing with him. That would be a model state of society. Unluckily, the eight hundred are incarcerated because they preferred forcing honest men to support them. Why should not the State, then, make them do their duty, and repair by their labor the damage they have caused, and not run up an additional bill of expenses?

When the convict leaves the public institution, he will either be honest and work, or he will not. If he is honest and industrious, we have succeeded in our object—reform; society is the gainer; there is one more producer to add to the public prosperity. If he relapses into crime, the mechanic will have no competition to complain of. But his loss will be far greater than if he had a dozen competitors. A rogue or ruffian at large preys upon the labor of working-men. They are the class that suffer. The rich man's loss is a trifle, and he is able to take care of himself.

This is by no means the first time that a bill to this effect has been presented to the Legislature. It is protection carried to an absurd and selfish extent. Stated simply, it amounts to this: All the inhabitants of this State shall be taxed to support convicts, because if convicts are made to support themselves, a few mechanics outside of the prison walls may possibly receive lower wages. The selfishness and absurdity of the proposition are inversely as the number of mechanics interested is to the whole population of the State. We say "may possibly receive lower wages" advisedly; for the amount of any article furnished by prison labor is so small when compared with the total product of the community as to be of little account. But if the facts were otherwise, it would make no difference in the principle. There is no reason why a thousand farmers should be taxed to help one mechanic, and there are many unanswerable reasons why prisoners should be taught to labor intelligently, effectively, and to pay their own expenses.

MASSIMO D'AZEGLIO.

THE distinguished man who died in Turin, on the 15th of January, was akin in universality of mind to the great Italians of other times, to Dante, to Leonardo da Vinci, to Buonarotti, to Galileo; and it would be hard to say whether Italy has most to mourn the statesman, poet, or painter in the loss of the Marquis Massimo Taparelli d'Azeglio. To recount fully the story of his life would be to rehearse the political annals of Italy during the last twenty-five years, to describe the rise of the romantic school in literature, and to enter upon the discussion of modern Italian art. It is by no means necessary to do this here; and no doubt most of our readers will be satisfied with such a sketch of the career now ended as shall place within the range of actual knowledge the facts of a life already vaguely known in its three-fold claim upon their interest.

Massimo d'Azeglio was born at Turin in 1801, when French domination had succeeded the misrule of the Piedmontese princes. His father was a general officer of the Piedmontese army, and his blood was of the noblest and best in the always aristocratic little kingdom. It was the boy's good fortune to be taken to Florence, where the first seven years of his life were spent, and where he learned, what was impossible in Turin, pure Italian speech and manners not provincial. How detestable were the accent and ideas of his native city at that time, we have all been told by Alfieri, and it is said that d'Azeglio, who had been treated like any other idle urchin in Florence (*come un birichino qualunque*), was astounded at the immense bows and sounding titles with which he was received in Turin. He never outlived the liberal notions early imbibed in the Tuscan capital, and his religion was of no severer quality than his politics. He tells how, in his fourteenth year, the priest who acted as his tutor punished him for some offence by the infliction of a pretended excommunication from the Bishop of Turin, and how heartily he enjoyed his exclusion from the functions of the church, and especially the use of his rosary, which had always bored him.

The ancient rulers of Piedmont came into their own again, after Napoleon's fall, and young d'Azeglio became one of the king's guard; but his father being sent to Rome to congratulate Pius VII. on his return, his mother begged the general to take "that unmanageable boy" with him, and to Rome he went, and saw all those wonders of the old and new civilization, and became more and more Italian, and less and less Piedmontese.

After the embassy was concluded, he returned to Turin with his father,

and there entered upon a course of severe and earnest study. He learnt many things, but chiefly that he was meant by destiny to be a painter. His father scarcely agreed with him on this point; he told him he might go back to Rome and lead his artist life, if he would, but he must expect for his full support no more than the pocket-money he would receive in Turin. D'Azeglio went very gladly, and spent the happiest days of his life in the world's capital. He gives a delightful account of it all in some sketches which he contributed to a friend's journal. He was full of health and hope and good humor, and he enjoyed everything. He loved the adventure and vagabondage of the life, and one does not esteem the statesman less because the student played wild pranks. He tells how one day he went into the country with two comrades and bargained to paint an altar-piece for a dinner, and how they all set to work upon it, painting each as the muse inspired, without regard to one another's labors. D'Azeglio did a sea with certain galleys on it; one friend painted a group of pines and some sheep feeding in a meadow; and the other depicted a line of palaces with the cupola of St. Peter's in the background. Their patron was charmed, and dined them like princes. This jolly life of painter was once interrupted by a summons to appear before the Governor of Rome under suspicion of political conspiracy. There was nothing whatever to inculpate d'Azeglio, and the governor, ashamed, made him excuses: "Cavalier, I am sorry; these are unpleasant things; but what would you? What can we do? *Austria compels us*—the Duke of Modena sends us notes—you know—we cannot do otherwise. *They are stronger than we!*" "The Governor of Rome," says d'Azeglio, "taught me to blush for my country."

In time he went back to Turin, where people believed him a great painter. He was too wise, it seems, ever to fall into this delusion himself, after the flush of youthful aspiration had passed away, although he continued to paint great numbers of pictures, and sold them not only in Italy but in Paris and London. He relates very pleasantly how he followed to the French capital three pictures which he had sent thither for exhibition, and how he was induced by his friends to cultivate the acquaintance of a journalist, for criticism's sake, although the search for this sort of protection was made against his own good sense. When the journalist's opinion appeared, d'Azeglio found it brief and pointed: "Whoever would see how far facility can go should look at the pictures of M. d'Azeglio." "The journalist," says d'Azeglio, "was right in his way, and I in mine; we made peace and were better friends than ever." It is probable that the critic was right; but the pictures were sold to the Duke of Devonshire, and are now in his house in Scotland. Many of d'Azeglio's paintings were taken to Milan, whither the painter himself at last went. The Italian connoisseurs admired them for their heroic size, the poetic character of their subjects, and their bold and ardent manner; and compared him to Claude and to Rosa.

In Milan he lived from 1831 to 1841, painting pictures and getting fame and money. He had married the daughter of Manzoni, the great author of "I Promessi Sposi," and he formed part of the brilliant literary circle of Milan, for he had already published his "Ettore Fieramosca," and had commenced his "Nicolò de' Lapi." Of these two romances the latter has by far the largest popularity in Italy, and must be praised as one of the best historical novels in any language. Indeed, it seems to us that d'Azeglio's chances of remembrance rest rather with this romance than with his heroic pictures, or his political acts. Dealing with the same period of Florentine history as Guerrazzi, in his "Assedio di Firenze," d'Azeglio turns to more purely artistic account the incidents of the famous and lamentable siege which restored the Medici to Florence; and while he interests us scarcely less than Guerrazzi in the fate of the city, he interests us far more in the fortunes of the individual characters. The hero of Guerrazzi's book is the people of Florence, as Marc-Monnier acutely observes; and in choosing a hero of this collective grandeur, the author is unable to centre our interest upon anything but the political destiny of a state. D'Azeglio's hero, Nicolò de' Lapi, is himself bound up in the fortunes of Florence, but a patriot must naturally be more interesting than patriotism, especially a patriot of the stalwart virtue and unselfish pride of Nicolò. Few figures in romance are so grand as his, and it is pleasant to know that its proportions are not exaggerated in the fiction, for Nicolò shows not less noble in history. Grouped around this central character, subordinately as they would have been in the man's household, are the other persons of the romance, whose fate is almost as inseparably as his united to that of Florence; his sons, the brave, strong, obedient warriors; his friends, the gentle Dominican friar, and the austere, religious magistrates of the city; his daughters, one clandestinely wedded to the traitor who betrays the city, and the other betrothed to the faithful and high-hearted Lamberto; Fanfulla, ex-scape-gallows, ex-condottiere, ex-friar, true friend and fearless soldier, and one of the most enjoyable and original creations of fiction. The story is episodic, and its best interest is the study it affords of the old Florentine life and character. In Nicolò we behold a Puritan of Cromwell's days, full of faith in God and country, upright, stern, and strong, cherishing the memory and prophecies of Savonarola to the end, and dying grandly on the scaffold. His household, also, is Puritan, and there dwells the rigorous spirit as unmistakably as ever it dwelt in any New England household. In Florence we see a city sustaining itself against a long and cruel siege by force of popular virtue, and so strongly grounded in its own sense of right that the banded wrong of half Europe hardly sufficed to shake it. Without the wall lies the camp of the besiegers, the motley hosts of the empire, Spaniard and German, Catholic and Lutheran, full of riot, ambition, intrigue, cruelty, and corruption. In this siege of Florence the evil was matched against good, and triumphed, as evil will now and then in this world, and the salvation of Italy was postponed three centuries. "Nicolò de' Lapi" is a very sad book, for, though not all the characters come to sad ends, though virtue is rewarded and vice punished as far as the author can contrive without violating history, yet Florence falls, and the reader's heart sinks with it.

The story is told with an exquisite grace, with a pathos often relieved by graceful and quiet humor, and with unfailing good sense and good principle. The author, in suggesting the relation of events to the destiny of his country, has a sharp irony and sarcasm for her oppressors, and a tenderness for herself, all the pleasanter for never being suffered to find that bolder expression which would have constituted a political crime in the days when the book was written. At times d'Azeglio has the touch of Cervantes, and his humor is like the Spaniard's, especially in those passages relating to Fanfulla. We think that the manner of the poor old *condottiere's* end is one of the finest things in literature, when considered in relation to his life of battles and repentances; and we relish exceedingly the German *Landsknecht's* manner of confessing; how Fanfulla, desiring to do penance, procured him to deal him certain blows, which, being given with too great fervor, brought on the fight ending in Fanfulla's death. Perhaps the most touching and original effect of the book lies in the character of the poor soul, Selvaggia: a woman born to infamy, in the rude camp-life of those embattled days, and who, following in the train of Giovanni de' Medici, falls in love with his young lieutenant Lamberto. He seems to deride her passion, and she devotes her life to revenge; but in the supreme moment of retribution she relents, saves his life, and knows her sole happiness in his union with the daughter of Nicolò.

D'Azeglio was never concerned in the plots of the *carbonari* for the liberation of Italy; but in 1844 he left Milan, and took up his home on the highway, as he says. His mission was to visit patriots in different parts of Italy, and to endeavor to bring about that state of things which ripened into revolution in 1848, and resulted in the temporary expulsion of the tyrants and the establishment of short-lived republics. The dream of Italian patriots up to this time was of an Italy united under the Pope; but this dream was rudely dispelled when Pius IX. abandoned the popular cause. One by one the patriotic governments fell before the reaction—Rome, Lombardy, Venice—and for a time all hope was extinguished in that disastrous battle of Novara, where the Piedmontese were beaten by the Austrians, and Carlo Alberto abdicated in favor of his son, Victor Emanuel. D'Azeglio had taken part in the fighting, and had been wounded at the battle of Vicenza, and he was now called to the far more difficult task of shaping the policy which was to preserve life and liberty to Piedmont. On the one hand, treaties were to be made with Austria, and on the other the republican elements of Piedmont—most violent in Genoa—were to be tranquillized. D'Azeglio, as prime minister of the young king, succeeded in not only quelling the Genoese, but in persuading his countrymen to acquiesce in the treaty ratifying the defeat of Novara; and by skilfully temporizing with the enemies of peace without and within, he restored the kingdom to security and quiet. To him was due in a great measure the preservation of the only constitution of the many granted in 1848, and his Fabian policy was the only real hope of Italy. The press remained free in Piedmont, and the inviolability of political asylum was maintained. Patriots were attracted from all parts of the peninsula to Turin, and that sentiment of national unity created which, when Cavour came to relieve d'Azeglio, was made foundation of the new Italian kingdom. D'Azeglio's administration had the defects of passivity: liberty was not its own excuse for being anywhere, in the eyes of reactionary and Imperial France, and the Piedmontese minister's dispatches to Paris were full of excuses for it. At last, after the attempt of Orsini upon Louis Napoleon's life, d'Azeglio felt constrained to propose a law repressive of injurious language against foreign sovereigns. "It was a necessity," says Signor Camerini, the writer to whom we are indebted for our biographical information concerning d'Azeglio, "a sacrifice to the infernal gods, that they might not harm us. Lord Palmerston, after the

Orsini attempt, had condescended to devise means for protecting the Imperial life and good name, and the press had beaten him. But England could have even the liberty of insult, Piedmont hardly liberty at all." It was d'Azeglio's great error; he had at last carried his temporization too far, and he fell under the load. Cavour withdrew from his ministry; d'Azeglio formed another cabinet without Cavour, and then, yielding to fortune, retired from his place, which Cavour immediately took.

D'Azeglio, after the fall of his ministry, was sent to England on a special embassy, and he held a public office in Milan when the new kingdom was formed. Withdrawing, finally, from this trust, he spent the greater part of his last years in that pleasant Tuscan capital which he loved so well, with no other labor to employ him but the preparation of his memoirs, which he has left only half completed. These will, no doubt, add greatly to the riches of a literature already opulent in autobiography, and will form a most precious contribution to the history of the most important events of our time.

The immediate cause of the Marquis d'Azeglio's death was a fever taken by remaining too late in the season at his villa near Turin. He aggravated the disorder, after returning to the city, by writing constantly on his memoirs, but his case was not considered alarming until within a week before his death. A few days later he was visited by the Prince of Carignano and the Admiral Persano, whom he recognized, saying, "Thanks, thanks! I have been a faithful servant to the house of Savoy." Others of the great and noble from every part of Italy came to take leave of him, and although suffering acutely, he received all graciously, and was in such perfect possession of his faculties as to be able to speak to each in the dialect of his province.

It is related that one morning, shortly before his death, he heard the rehearsal of music for a mass in a chapel near his house, and observed quietly: "They are preparing for me the music of the mass; very well! It is beautiful and well done." Among his latest words were: "*Non posso far niente per l'Italia!*" (I can do nothing more for Italy.) He might rest, having given his whole life to her glory.

THE LIMITS OF THE IMPROBABLE IN FICTION.

NOTHING is easier in the opinion of many *littérateurs* than to criticize a novel. Few things are in reality more difficult. We really believe that Grote's Plato, Mill on Hamilton, Anybody on the Steam-engine, Brillat-Savarin on the Philosophy of Grub, Science, History, Philosophy, what you will, are easier to appreciate and discuss *properly* than even a fair second-class tale or romance. The reason lies in the essential character, the *differentia*, of the novel. It is fictitious, avowedly in most cases, really in all, yet it must resemble truth. In some species there need be less of this resemblance than in others; a romance, to take an obvious case, has more license than a novel of manners; but verisimilitude cannot be altogether dispensed with. Even when the characters belong wholly or in part to an imaginary class of beings, there must be a conventional probability. A fairy tale must have a certain "keeping" if it would avoid being sheer burlesque or sheer nonsense.

Now, at the very first step we take, as soon as we ask what is natural or unnatural, probable or improbable, in a given situation of certain characters, we are involved in an almost boundless field of speculation. Suppose, for instance, your friend Smith says to you *apropos* of the last novel in vogue, "I don't think the hero in his affair with So-and-so behaves exactly as a gentleman ought to." You disagree with him. Here are the materials for an immense discussion at once. What your standard of a gentleman is, whether the English, or the Continental, or the American, or neither, but some ideal compounded of them all; what the standard finally agreed on would require of a gentleman in that particular contingency; how far it is probable that a gentleman would deviate from the standard under certain provocations and temptations, and how far he would be permitted to do so without forfeiting his character as a gentleman; what has been the conduct of gentlemen in similar or analogous circumstances, etc., etc., etc., almost *ad infinitum*. Or take a purely physical, matter-of-fact question. You say, "The hero rides his horse so many miles; any horse ought to have dropped long before. When the horse does break down, he proceeds a-foot, and, after a long run, climbs a wall which would puzzle a professed gymnast." Then Smith, who is well up in equestrian and pedestrian statistics, quotes *Bell's Life* or Pierce Egan to prove that horses have carried men a greater distance in less time, and men have surmounted greater obstacles. You perhaps rejoin that the horses were regularly trained, and the men Indians or Borderers, whereas, etc., etc. To which again Smith, "But under pressure of strong excitement," etc., etc.; thus you may keep bandying the question back and forward half an hour. As to the naturalness and probability of certain representations of manners and society, the field of controversy is equally fertile. Are Balzac's novels correct pictures of French life or are they utterly extravagant and imaginary? Are such books as "Wuthering Heights" and "The Tenant of Wildfell Hall" gross caricatures of Yorkshire or slightly exaggerated sketches? The discrepancies in the accounts of countries by different travellers show that having gone over the ground is no sure criterion of accuracy in narratives professing to be veracious. When the very facts are so difficult to determine, how much more puzzled must we be with the inferences!

Some critics think they have found a very general solution in human nature, "which is the same everywhere and in all ages." But this guide will not lead us into particulars. There are broad motives at work all over the world—love, avarice, ambition, and the like—but all their details are so modified by a thousand influences of law and government, custom and tradition, that they no more help you to determine how certain persons will act under certain circumstances than the knowledge that all men require food will help you in deciding whether a particular people (say the Chinese) really eat rats. Can an American understand why an Englishman objects to another Englishman's marrying his deceased wife's sister? Can an Englishman understand how a certain kind of sensation newspaper has attained its circulation among respectable and even religious Americans? Can you make a Frenchman understand how the most frightful consequences do not result from allowing Anglo-Saxon young ladies to "wander at their own sweet will?" Human nature does not manifest itself in the same way everywhere, whatever its potentialities may be; and as to the difference of its manifestations in different ages, any historical knowledge beyond the most superficial will settle that point. Even the proposition that human nature is the same in the same age and country must be taken with qualifications, as we shall see.

There is a strong tendency in the best English journals and reviews (shared by such of our own periodicals as have any coherent ideas on the subject of criticism) to condemn the incidents of a novel as physically or morally impossible according to some very limited standard of the critic's own, standards which, if carried out rigorously, would render all fiction, except what we may call the Dutch school, impossible, and confine us to a vista bounded at one end by Miss Austen and Anthony Trollope, at the other by the "Pumplighter" and all those works which Charles Kingsley relegates to the purgatory of stupid books.

This tendency was strikingly exemplified a few years ago on the appearance of "Les Misérables," a production sufficiently open to criticism. Nothing could be weaker than its pseudo-philosophical speculations on government and society, at which Louis Napoleon must have laughed in his sleeve to see his own rule strengthened by the self-*exposé* of his brilliant and bitter enemy. But the magnificent romance, so independent of the speculative rubbish that all the latter might easily have been eliminated from it, was generally approached by its reviewers in the spirit of very small mice nibbling around a very large cheese. They saw in it all manner of improbabilities. How could Jean Valjean climb a garden-wall with a child on his back? How could he elude the vigilance of the police? Why did Fantine, who had walked from Paris, never think of walking back to look after her child instead of trusting to the reports of the Thenardiers? And so on *ad nauseam*.

Now, if these English reviewers had but looked back to the current history of their own country, they might easily have found events as abnormal and startling as any of the incidents in Hugo's book. There was the unfathomed mystery of the Waterloo Bridge murder—if murder it was—with its carpet-bag of mangled remains. There was the attempted assassination of officer Murray by usurer Roberts, a crime which moved half the newspapers and magazines to exclaim: "If this had been represented in fiction, how we should have cried out against its monstrous improbability." If hair-breadth escapes were required, there was no need to go back to Jack Sheppard's prison-breaking or the well-authenticated case of the man who had a gig-shaft run through him and lived thirty years after. The officer was then living—and for aught we know is still—who rode over a precipice more than a hundred feet high, breaking every bone in his horse's body, but escaping himself without serious or permanent injury. So much for English life. Let us look a moment nearer home. Suppose some novelist of our own had, previous to any of those occurrences, introduced to his readers a Burdell-Cunningham murder or one of those *causes célèbres* which so recently scandalized—or ought to have scandalized—our public, should we not have cried *haro!* on him as a social, if not a national, libeller? In short, whether we look at physical or moral phenomena, or at combinations of both, the more we consult history and experience, the more must we be impressed with the

truth of the adage, *Le vrai n'est pas toujours le vraisemblable.* Why, then, blame the novelist for introducing improbabilities which are so often actualities? Do we expect fiction to be more natural than nature herself? Probably the error springs from a confusion of ideas, clumsy enough, yet easily fallen into.

There is a class of novels, already referred to, of which Miss Austen used to be, and Mr. Trollope bids fair to become, the type. They are novels of manners, *romans de société*, and their whole value depends on their fidelity to the everyday life which they represent. They may have an elaborate and artistic plot; they do not exclude striking situations; but the plot and the situations are secondary matters. In such works abnormal events have no place. They represent everyday life, and not only are extraordinary accidents repugnant to their character, but the most trivial error or incongruity in petty details is fatal to their pretensions. If, for instance, in a story of American life, a young gentleman and lady not betrothed or related were represented walking down the Fifth Avenue *arm-in-arm*, this slight inaccuracy would be sufficient to condemn the book at once.

But a romancer, a writer like Hugo or Dickens or Reade, not only has liberty to make use of the abnormal and improbable, but may be said to possess this as his peculiar province. His dealings with everyday routine are only episodical, by way of relief. The romantic, in other words, the unusual, is his staple.

Is there, then, no limit to his license? Certainly there is; but only the impossible, the absurd, and the indubitably false are on the further side of it. Sue's "Juif Errant" overstepped the *certos fines* because it was a tissue of monstrous absurdities. The whole story of the treasure which furnished the motive of action was, from beginning to end, in its final destruction as well as its long preservation, not improbable but impossible. Again, it should not be allowable for the novelist to arrange the laws of his country according to his own vague ideas of them, although half the recent English writers of fiction, from Dickens down to Mrs. Wood and lower, seem to consider themselves above law, as the old German potentate was above grammar.

With such exceptions, and provided he preserves that consistency and individuality which will render his characters lifelike, we think the romancer should have full swing in his romance, and his readers should modify the old theological dogma just a little, and believe, or, at any rate, read, because it is improbable.

MEN AND MANNERS ON THE WAY FROM FERRARA TO GENOA.

I.

In our visits to the different churches in Ferrara we noticed devotion in classes of people who are devout nowhere else in Italy. Not only came solid-looking business men to say their prayers, but gay young dandies, who knelt and repeated their orisons and then rose and went seriously out. In Venice they would have posted themselves against a pillar, sucked the heads of their sticks, and made eyes at the young ladies kneeling near them. This degree of religion was all the more remarkable in Ferrara, because that city had been so many years under the Pope, and His Holiness contrives commonly to prevent the appearance of religion in young men throughout his dominions.

Valery speaks of the delightful society which he met in the grey old town; and it is said that Ferrara has an unusual share of culture in her wealthy class, which is large. With such memories of learning and literary splendor as belong to her, it would be strange if she did not in some form keep alive the sacred flame. But, though there may be refinement and erudition in Ferrara, she has given no great name to modern Italian literature. Her men of letters seem to be of that race of grubs singularly abundant in Italy: men who dig out of archives and libraries some topic of special and momentary interest and print it, unstudied and unphilosophized. Their books are material, not literature, and it is marvellous how many of them are published. A writer on any given subject can heap together from them a mass of fact and anecdote invaluable in its way; but it is a mass without life or light, and must be vivified by him who uses it before it can serve the world, which does not care for its dead local value. It remains to be seen whether the free speech and free press of Italy can re-awaken the intellectual activity of the cities which once gave the land so many literary capitals.

What numbers of people used to write verses in Ferrara! By operation of the principle which causes things concerning whatever subject you happen to be interested in to turn up in every direction, I found a volume of these dead-and-gone immortals at a book-stall, one day, in Venice. It is a deliciously yellow and uncomfortable volume of the year 1703, printed all in italics. I suppose there are two hundred odd rhymers selected from in that book, and how droll the most of them are, with their unmistakable traces of descent from Ariosto, Tasso, and Guarini! What acres of enamelled meadow there are in the volume! There are purling brooks enough to turn all the mills in the world. I should say some thousands of nymphs are constantly engaged in weaving garlands there, and the swains keep such a piping on those familiar notes—*Amore, dolore, crudele*, and *miele*. Poor little poets! they knew no other tunes. Just as now, weak voices twitter from a hundred books, in unconscious imitation of the hour's great singers.

II.

I think some of the pleasantest people in Italy are the army-gentlemen. There is the race's gentleness in their ways, in spite of their ferocious trade, and an American freedom of style. They brag in a manner that makes one feel at home, immediately; and met in travel, they are ready to render any little kindness.

The other year at Reggio (which is not far from Modena), we stopped to dine at a restaurant where the whole garrison had its coat off and was playing billiards, with the exception of one or two officers, who were dining. They rose and bowed as we entered their room, and when the waiter pretended that such and such dishes were out (in Italy the waiter, for some mysterious reason, always pretends that the best dishes are out), they bullied him for the honor of Italy, and made him bring them to us. Indeed, I am afraid his life was sadly harassed by those brave men. We were in deep despair at finding no French bread, and the waiter swore with the utmost pathos that there was none; but as soon as his back was turned, a tightly-laced little captain rose and began to forage for the bread. He opened every drawer and cupboard in the room, and finding none, invaded another room, captured several loaves from the plates laid there, and brought them back in triumph, presenting them to us amid the applause of his comrades. The dismay of the waiter, on his return, was speechless.

Three officers, who dined with us at the *table d'hôte* of the *Stella d'Oro* in Ferrara (and excellent dinners were those we ate there), were visibly anxious to address us, and began not uncivilly, but still in order that we should hear, to speculate on our nationality among themselves. It appeared that we were Germans; for one of these officers, who had formerly been in the Austrian service at Vienna, recognized the word *bitter* in our remarks on the *beccaficchi*. As I did not care to put these fine fellows to the trouble of hating us for others' faults, I made bold to say that we were not Germans, and to add that *bitter* was also an English word. Ah! yes, to be sure, one of them admitted; when he was with the Sardinian army in the Crimea, he had frequently heard the word used by the English soldiers. He nodded confirmation of what he said to his comrades; and then was good enough to display what English he knew. It was barely sufficient to impress his comrades; but it led the way to a good deal of talk in Italian.

"I suppose you gentlemen are all Piedmontese?" I said.

"Not at all," said our Crimean. "I am from Como; this gentleman, il signor Conte (il signor Conte bowed), is of Piacenza; and our friend across the table is Genoese. The army is doing a great deal to unify Italy. We are all Italians now, and you see we speak Italian, and not our dialects, together."

My cheap remark that it was a fine thing to see them all united under one flag, after so many ages of mutual hate and bloodshed, turned the talk upon the origin of the Italian flag; and that led our Crimean to ask what was the origin of the English colors.

"I scarcely know," I said. "We are Americans." (It was bad enough to be thought German, but the imputation that we were English was insufferable.)

Our friends at once grew more cordial. "Oh, Americani!" They had great pleasure of it. Did we think Signor Leencolen would be re-elected? I supposed he had been elected that day, I said. Ah! this was the election day, then. *Cospetto!*

At this the Genoese frowned superior intelligence, and the Crimean gazing admiringly upon him, said he had been nine months at Nuova York, and that he had a brother living there. The poor Crimean boastfully added that he himself had a cousin in America, and that the Americans generally spoke Spanish. The count from Piacenza wore an air of pathetic discomfiture, and tried to invent a transatlantic relative, as I think, but failed.

I am persuaded that none of these warriors really had kinsmen in America, but that they all pretended to have them, out of politeness, and that they believed each other. It was very kind of them, and we were so grateful that we put no embarrassing questions. Indeed, the conversation presently took another course, and grew to include the whole table.

There was an extremely pretty Italian present with her newly-wedded husband, who turned out to be a retired officer. He fraternized at once with our soldiers, and when we left the table they all rose and made military obeisances. Having asked leave to light their cigars, they were smoking—the sweet young bride blowing a fairy cloud from her rosy lips with the rest. "Indeed," I heard an Italian lady once remark, "why should men pretend to deny us the privilege of smoking? It is so pleasant and innocent." It is but just to the Italians to say that they do not always deny it; and there is, without doubt, a certain grace and charm in a pretty *fumatrice*. I suppose it is a habit not so pleasing in an ugly or middle-aged woman.

III.

We had intended to stay only one day at Ferrara, but just at that time the storms predicted on the Adriatic and Mediterranean coasts, by Mathieu de la Drome, had been raging all over Italy, and the railway communications were broken in every direction. The magnificent work through and under the Apennines, between Bologna and Florence, had been washed away by the mountain torrents in a dozen places, and the roads over the plains of the Romagna had been sapped by the flood, and rendered useless, where not actually laid under water.

On the day of our intended departure we left the hotel, with other travellers, gaily incredulous of the landlord's fear that no train would leave for Bologna. At the station we found a crowd of people waiting and hoping, but there was a sickly cast of doubt in some faces, and the labelled employees of the railway wore looks of ominous importance. Of course the crowd did not lose its temper. It sought information of the officials running to and fro with telegrams, in a spirit of national sweetness, and consoled itself with saying, as Italy has said under all circumstances of difficulty for centuries: *Ci vuol pazienza!* At last a blank silence fell upon it, as the *Capo-Stazione* advanced towards a well-dressed man in the crowd, and spoke to him quietly. The well-dressed man lifted his forefinger and waved it back and forth before his face:

The Well-dressed Man.—Dunque, non si parte più? (No departures, then?)

The Capo-Stazione (waving *his* forefinger in like manner).—Non si parte più. (Like a mournful echo.)

We knew quite as well from this pantomime of negation as from the dialogue our sad fate, and submitted to it. Some adventurous spirit demanded whether any trains would go on the morrow. The capo-stazione, with an air of one who would not presume to fathom the designs of Providence, responded: "Who knows? To-day, certainly not. To-morrow, perhaps. But—" and vanished.

It may give an idea of the Italian way of doing things to say that this break in the line was only a few miles in extent, that trains could have approached both to and from Bologna, and that a little enterprise on the part of the company could have passed travellers from one side to the other with very small trouble or delay. But the railway company was as much daunted by the inundation as a peasant going to market, and for two months after the accident no trains carried passengers from one city to the other. No doubt, however, the line was under process of very solid repair meanwhile.

There was little to interest us in the country over which we rode to Bologna from Ferrara. It is perfectly flat, and I suppose the reader knows what quantities of hemp and flax are raised there. The land seems poorer than in Lombardy, and the farm-houses and peasants' cottages are small and mean, though the peasants themselves, when we met them, looked well-fed and were certainly well-clad. The landscape lay soaking in a dreary drizzle the whole way, and the town of Cento, when we reached it, seemed miserably conscious of being too wet and dirty to go in-doors, and was loitering about in the rain. Our arrival gave the poor little place a sensation, for I think such a thing as an omnibus had not been seen there since the railway of Bologna and Ferrara was built. We went into the principal *caffè* to lunch—a *caffè* much too large for Cento, with immense red-leather-cushioned sofas, and a cold, forlorn air of half-starved gentility, a clean, high-roofed *caffè* and a breezy—and thither the youthful nobility and gentry of the place followed us, and ordered a cup of coffee, that they might sit down and give us the pleasure of their distinguished company. They put on their very finest manners, and took their most captivating attitudes for the ladies' sake; and the gentlemen of our party fancied that it was for them these young men began to discuss the Roman question. How loud they were, and how earnest! And how often they consulted the newspapers of the *caffè!* (Older newspapers I never saw off a canal-boat.) I may tire sometime of the artless vanity of the young Italians, so innocent, so amiable, so transparent, but I think I never shall.

The great painter, Guercini, was born at Cento, and they have a noble and beautiful statue of him in the piazza, which the town caused to be erected with the contributions of all the citizens. Formerly, his house was kept for a show to the public; it was full of the pictures of the painter and many mementoes of him; but recently the paintings have been taken to the gallery, and the house is now closed. The gallery is, consequently, one of the richest second-rate galleries in Italy, and one may spend much longer time in it than we gave, with great profit. There are some most interesting heads of Christ, painted, as Guercini always painted Christ, with a great degree of humanity in the face, and to almost the exact likeness of Lucius Verus as you see him in busts at Rome. It is an excellent countenance and full of sweet dignity, but quite different from the conventional face of Christ.

IV.

At night we were again in Bologna, of which we had not seen the gloomy arcades for two years. It must be a dreary town at all times: in a rain it is horrible; and I think the whole race of arcaded cities, Treviso, Padua, and Bologna, are dull, blind, and comfortless. The effect of the buildings vaulted over the sidewalks is that of a continuous cellar-way; your view of the street is constantly interrupted by the heavy brick pillars that support the arches; the arcades are not even picturesque.

I always like to leave Bologna as quickly as possible, and, on this occasion, learning that there was no hope of crossing the Apennines to Florence, we made haste to take the first train for Genoa, meaning to proceed thence directly to Naples by steamer. It was a motley company that sat down at breakfast in Hotel Brun the morning of our arrival in Bologna, and a bad breakfast it was, of murky coffee and furry beefsteaks, associated with sleek, greasy, lukewarm fried potatoes. I am sure that if each of our weather-bound travellers had told his story, we had been as well entertained as those at Canterbury. However, no one thought fit to give his narrative but a garrulous old Hebrew from London, who told us how he had been made to pay fifteen guineas for a carriage to cross the Apennines, and had been obliged to walk part of the way at that price. He was evidently proud, now the money was gone, of having been cheated of so much; and in him we saw that there was at least one human being more odious than a purse-proud Englishman—namely, a purse-proud English Jew. He gave his noble name after a while, as something too precious to be kept from the company, when recommending one of the travellers to go to the Hotel d'Angleterre in Rome: "The best 'otel out of England. You may mention my name, if you like—Mr. Jonas." The recipient of this favor noted down the talismanic words in his pocket-book, and Mr. Jonas, conscious of having conferred a benefit on his race, became more odious to it than ever. An Englishman is of a composition so uncomfortably original that no one can imitate him, though many may caricature. I saw an American in London once who thought himself an Englishman because he wore leg-of-mutton whiskers, declaimed against universal suffrage and republics, and had an appetite for high game. He was a hateful animal, surely, but he was not the British lion; and this poor Hebrew at Bologna was not a whit more successful in his imitation of the illustrious brute, though he talked, like him, of nothing but hotels, and routes of travel, and hackmen and porters, and seemed to have nothing to do in Italy but to get through it as quickly and abusively as possible. The English have settled the topics at the *tables d'hôte* of the Continent, and you may hope to hear of nothing but these things in lands where the very stones have speech for him who heeds.

We were very glad to part from all this at Bologna and take the noon train for Genoa. In our car there were none but Italians, and the exchange of *La Perseveranza* of Milan for *Il Popolo* of Turin with one of them quickly opened the way for conversation and acquaintance. (*En passant:* I know of no journal in the United States whose articles are better than those of the *Perseveranza*, and it was gratifying to an American to read in this ablest journal of Italy nothing but applause and encouragement of the national side in our late war.) My new-made friend turned out to be a Milanese. He was a physician, and had served as a surgeon in the late war of Italian independence; but was now placed in a hospital in Milan. There was a gentle little blonde with him, and at Piacenza, where we stopped for lunch, "You see," said he, indicating the lady, "we are newly married," which was, indeed, plain enough to any one who looked at their joyous faces, and observed how great disposition that little blonde had to nestle on the young man's broad shoulder. "I have a week's leave from my place," he went on, "and this is our wedding journey. We were to have gone to Florence, but it seems we are fated not to see that famous city." He spoke of it as immensely far off, and herein greatly amused Americans who had outgrown distances. "So we are going to Genoa instead, for two or three days." "Oh, have you ever been at Genoa?" broke in the bride. "What magnificent

palaces! And then the bay, and the villas in the environs! There is the Villa Pallavicini, with beautiful gardens, where an artificial shower breaks out from the bushes, and sprinkles the people who pass. Such fun!" and she continued to describe vividly a city of which she had only heard from her husband; and it was easy to see that she walked in paradise wherever he led her.

They say that Italian husbands and wives do not long remain fond of each other, but it was impossible in the presence of these happy people not to believe in the eternity of their love, and it was hard to keep from "dropping into poetry" on account of them. Their bliss infected everybody in the car, and in spite of the weariness of our journey, and the vexation of the misadventures which had succeeded one another unsparingly ever since we left home, we found ourselves far on the way to Genoa before we thought to grumble at the distance. There was with us, besides the bridal party, a lady travelling from Bologna to Turin, who had learned English in London, and spoke it much better than most Londoners. It is a matter of constant surprise to me how thoroughly Italians master a language so alien to their own as ours, and how frequently you find them acquainted with English. From Russia the mania for this tongue has spread all over the Continent, and in Italy English seems to be prized first among the virtues.

As we drew near Genoa, the moon came out on purpose to show us the superb city, and we strove eagerly for a first glimpse of the proud capital where Columbus was born. To tell the truth, the glimpse was but slight and false, for railways always enter cities by some mean level, from which any picturesque view is impossible.

Near the station in Genoa, however, is the weak and ugly monument which the municipality has lately raised to Columbus. The moon made the best of this, which stands in a wide open space, and contrived, with an Italian skill in the arrangement of light, to produce an effect of undeniable splendor. On the morrow, we found out by the careless candor of the daylight what a uselessly big head Columbus had, and how the sculptor had not very happily thought proper to represent him with his sea-legs on.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXIX.

MOBILE, Ala., January 31, 1866.

ON the journey from Montgomery to Mobile I formed a slight acquaintance with two men who seemed to me, as I heard them talking, very fair specimens of two large classes of people that I not infrequently meet with in the South, and, therefore, I describe them.

One, who walked heavily into the car just as the train was starting, was a tall man in the Federal uniform, a staff officer, apparently, and perhaps thirty years old. He carried in his hand, rather ostentatiously, a bundle of official documents. Taking off a military cape, he laid it down, remarking in a loud voice that he had one objection to living in the South—the climate was too fine. Then the documents received each a brief, rustling examination and were placed one by one in his pocket; but, meantime, having discovered that one of two gentlemen sitting near was known to him, he leaned forward, and, shaking hands with him, was introduced to the other, whom I understood to have been a despatch-bearer or envoy of the Confederacy who had never got nearer Europe than Fort Warren. By-and-bye I heard this officer making known his opinions upon the war and the state of the country.

"Oh, sir, the fact that your Government selected you for that position is a guarantee. We shall not differ, sir, I 'm sure. When I meet with a Southern gentleman, like yourself, sir, I never find that we can 't agree. Some of the warmest and most intimate friends that I 've got I 've made in the South; some of the people that I have the very highest respect for. It 's far from being a recommendation for a man, in my eyes, to disown his cause. You Southern men believed you were right; in some things I sympathized with you myself; why should n't you fight for your opinions? Pleased to meet you, sir."

Cigars were then offered and accepted, and the major went on:

"I speak out myself, and I like to meet a man who expresses his sentiments just as he feels them. Though mine are at variance with yours, I can understand how you should feel as you do. Of course you are proud of your record in the war. You fought us honorably, nobly; no people ever fought better in all history, and I hope I can honor a brave man whenever I find him. I fought you, I confess, as hard as I knew how, and I know I 'm proud of my record. And I consider that the glory of this war, the glory of each side, belongs to both. Look at the valor, the endurance, the way our people fought in this struggle, the military resources we have developed, the skill and generalship and strategy of Generals Lee, and Johnston, and Grant! They have never been equalled in the history of ancient or modern times. Where will you find such a long, bloody war recorded in history? We are invincible. Yes, sir; I consider the United States more than a match for France and England and all the foreign nations of Europe combined. What's Mexico?"

Ah, his hearers did n't know about that; they doubted it.

"Oh, certainly. Of course, I mean in defensive warfare. With the South and the North united, if the powers of Europe were to attack us they would be whipped. That 's what I mean. Of course, both sections are too much exhausted for us to think of bringing on an unnecessary war. I 've seen enough of fighting. I have been in the army more than four years, and I 've been at the front all the time. I would n't part with my experience for any money. A wonderful experience for a man. There is only one thing I missed: I never was a prisoner. I should like very much to look back now on two or three months spent in Libby. During the war I did n't think so, for it would have taken me away from the front. That was my only objection, however. I never was afraid you 'd starve me if you got hold of me. Too many of my friends, ha! ha! received your hospitality for me to think that."

Both the gentlemen joined in the laugh. No, he need n't have been afraid of that.

"Oh, no. You told such stories about us and we told the same about you. Some suffering, of course."

"Of course; the life of a prisoner could n't be made very pleasant. But," said one of the gentlemen, "from my experience of prison-life I congratulate you, major, that you got through without being captured; at any rate, that they did n't get you into Fort Warren."

"Yes, that was a hard place, undoubtedly. But now it 's all over, a' n't you glad that you have that experience to look back on?"

No; the gentleman could n't say that he was. Of course he had the satisfaction of knowing that he had suffered for his country. But it had been his wish to serve her in some more active way.

"Yes; but you did serve her. I consider it a great misfortune to any man, especially to any young man, North or South, if he has n't done something on one side or the other. The leading men of the country in the future will all be taken from among the soldiers. You of the South are not going to trust your pretended Union men, those who did n't prove true to your cause; we do n't expect it of you; and we are not going to give office to our cowards and stay-at-homes. If a young man has any aspirations, it is a great misfortune to him if he did n't serve on one side or the other."

He himself had no aspirations, he explained. It was not for rank or promotion that he entered the army, and he did not look forward now to civil rewards. He simply wished to discharge gallantly his duties as a soldier. Not that he was gallant either—his duties as a soldier and citizen. He fought because he thought the Constitution should be maintained. He honestly differed in opinion from the Southern leaders in regard to secession, though he had acted with them politically. If he had been born in the South he would, probably, have fought as hard for secession as he had fought for the Union. As for the Abolitionists, they were his detestation. Indeed, it was the Abolitionists who brought on the war.

And Thad. Stevens and that gang, one of the gentlemen said, were just as bad to-day as they were ten years ago.

The major assented. Thaddeus Stevens he knew personally. He was deficient in the first qualities of a statesman. Able, very smart indeed; but no statesman. He and Sumner, however, were only fanatics; they could not lead the people. In his own opinion, the people of the South since the surrender had furnished an example of good sense and sincere loyalty unparalleled in ancient or modern history. Sumner and Stevens and the Abolition party were now the only disloyalists left. But the men who had fought who knew the Southerners because they had met them on the field of battle, were willing to trust the South and let the war end, and, if it should be necessary, to put down the fanatics.

There was much conversation of this sort, and all the major's remarks were well received by the two gentlemen. It was gratifying, one said, to hear such sentiments expressed; and the other said that they reflected honor upon the man who felt them. But among two or three young men across the aisle looks and smiles were now and then exchanged which the speaker would not have considered flattering. Just before going to sleep, for we left Montgomery in the night, I heard him replying to an enquiry about some buildings in Mobile which were seized by the Government some months ago and have since been used for the public service. Certainly they ought to be restored, he said, or else the rents ought to be paid. If he had his way

the back rents should be paid at once and the buildings turned over to the owners. But, unfortunately, if he had been correctly informed, very recent orders from Washington forbade it, and of course the United States Quartermaster had no option but to keep the buildings and withhold the rents. It was a great hardship. For his own part, he would like to see the Government magnanimous to the South in every particular; magnanimity was the true policy, and the one that would have to be adopted; but still they would admit that it was the duty of a good soldier to obey his orders, although they might be such as he could not help considering wrong, and such as it was painful to his feelings as a gentleman to carry into effect.

This personage belongs to the South of to-day; the other figure that I attempt to describe belongs to the South which has just passed away. It is that of a man who throughout the rebellion was a loyalist in Georgia. He is a small, pale man, of very unobtrusive manners, and with the look of an artizan, so that I was not surprised when he said he was a cotton-carder and spinner from Rochdale. He came to America when he was twenty years old and had since then lived in the Southern States, following his trade in one factory and another and earning good wages. When the war broke out he was in Columbus, but he determined to get himself out of the city, where everybody was in a tumult, and they were all "through other" with their secessionism, and this and that, and therefore with his savings he bought a small farm two or three miles out in the country, where he could be quiet like. He avoided all public gatherings, gave a civil word to every one, and never spoke about politics or Abe Lincoln except in secret and to those that he knew were of his way of thinking. The Union men in those days knew each other a deal better than the secessionists, and had a good understanding together. For a time this quiet, inoffensive life kept him out of trouble, though once in a while he 'd know that there was talk of making him come out with his opinions; but still he never was visited till they began to enlarge the State militia and to drag in the old men as well as the young. His name he knew would be put down, for his age was within the limit; but he had decided in his own mind that he never would lift a hand for the rebellion, and he set about finding a plan for escaping the draft. He began to wear the oldest clothes he could get, and a pair of shoes that the blacks themselves would n't have demeaned themselves to pick up in the streets. He put such a stoop into his shoulders, too, that he was bent almost two double; he did n't shave either, and altogether he looked dreadful decrepit. Often the neighbors passing him at dusk, or riding by quick in the day-time even, would call to him, "Hello, Mr. N." or "How d' ye do, Squire N.," mistaking him for Squire N. that lived near him, a man eighty year o' age. But they put down his name and served him with a notice to be at the mustering place on such a day. He just stayed at home and looked after the ploughing, stooped over a little more very like, but paid no attention to the summons otherways. So in the evening a whole committee of them waited on him and wanted to know if he did not know he was enrolled, and why he had not made his appearance. He put them off with some indifferent answer; they would n't be wanting men of his age for the militia. His name was on the roll, they said, and he was to appear at the next meeting or take the consequences. Well, he did n't know how ever he 'd be able to get there. He could n't take the mule out of the field. But he told them, shuffling his old shoes and clapping one leg over the other so they could see them, he 'd see if he could get something to wear that he could walk in. They said he 'd best mind and be on hand, and with that they rode off. He had been careful not to say that he would go, but only to say that he would look up a pair of shoes to walk in, for it never was in his mind to go at all. And he never did. On the morning of the muster the captain of his company, a man that he had known pretty well for some years, rode past his place and said, "Come, Mr. F., are you going to town?" "Well, no, captain," he told him. "It 's younger men than me you want for your company." Then the captain asked how old he was; his name was down, and there had been some talk before because he was absent. "Captain," he asked, "you 're a man that has known me for years; what would you set me at?" Well, the captain considered, and looked at him, and all this time the old clothes were on him and the old shoes, and at last he said, "Well, sure enough, Mr. F., I reckon you 're rising sixty. How near have I come to it?" But he would n't tell him; he only said, "Captain, you 're near about the thing; I 'm not that old as I look, but you 're near about the thing." So, after a bit, the captain rode along; and he was informed afterwards that when the roll was called and they came to T. F., and some of the men cried out that he was not there and never had been there, the captain said that man was too old for duty, and they might just strike out his name. That was the last of his troubles except that he lived under a miserable tyranny, without daring to open his mouth, until the United States Government conquered them and put them down. It sickened him of the South, and he intended to leave it for good and all. He was only waiting for the winter to pass and then he would seek work in Louisville or St. Louis.

I asked if he thought it would be unsafe for him and other men of his political opinions to live in Georgia and Alabama now.

No; he would n't say that. He could get along with them. He had lived with them through all the war; and they were far humbler now than then. The wild young men would bluster, but the most of the people would let a man alone if he went about his business.

The other day I put the same question to a gentleman living in Mobile, Mr. A. G., who is perhaps better qualified to give an opinion on this matter, showing him at the same time the anonymous letter of which I give a copy below. It is one of those that are known to have been sent to many different persons within the last fortnight.

"MOBILE, Ala., Jan. 25, 1866.

"SIR: We, the undersigned citizens of Mobile, Ala., give you one week from date to leave the place, and if found within the limits of the city or State after the time specified as above, you and your traitorous offspring will be wiped into eternity as sure as there is a God above you.

"By order of SPECIAL COMMITTEE.

"To the traitor, Francis Lyons, late Commandant of Florida Renegades."

In answering my question, Mr. G. related an illustrative passage in his own history. Before the war his father, a Northern man, published a newspaper in Macon, Ga., in which town Mr. G. lived from the time when he was three years old till the autumn of 1855. In that year he was waited upon one day by a number of his fellow-citizens, who charged him with being an anti-slavery man and with having made anti-slavery speeches in New York. He admitted that he was opposed to the continuance of slavery, if any safe method for getting rid of it could be devised, but denied that he had made speeches of any kind during his visit to the North. He was ordered to leave the town within twenty-four hours. At first he thought of disobeying this command. He went about to the shops to purchase a knife or a pistol and ammunition, but no one would sell anything of the kind to him or any member of his family; his friends being called on to aid him, durst not, and pronounced the idea of resistance utter folly; the power and authority of the mayor were invoked for the protection of a peaceable citizen, and the mayor replied that he should be protected up to the expiration of the twenty-four hours. Nothing remained, therefore, but submission, and he left Macon on the next train. None of the usual accessories of such a departure were omitted. He was accompanied to the depot by a tumultuous escort, who cursed, gibed, and flung rotten eggs; one of the newspapers noticed the occurrence in a short local article, headed "Served him right," setting forth that a young man, whose youth and weak head alone preserved him from a severer punishment, had been summarily sent out of Macon for using offensive language in reference to the peculiar institution, and was on his way to the North and the society of more congenial spirits; a telegram was sent to Savannah informing the citizens that an abolitionist might be expected in their city by the next train, and bespeaking a warm reception for him. Going North by way of Augusta, he escaped the tar and feathers prepared for him in Savannah.

One man, Mr. G. said, caused all this. He felt confident that if the question of his expulsion had been voted upon by the people of Macon, more than three-fourths of them, even then, in 1855, would have voted in his favor. The manner of his banishment was the same with that of nine-tenths of all the men who in those days were driven out of the South. Some one man, a personal enemy perhaps, would take advantage of the soreness of public feeling in reference to slavery to use the ruffianism of the community in furtherance of his private ends. Free speech was not punished in every instance, though it was in his case; he had known many men whose dislike of slavery was as well known as his who were never molested. But let it once become worth any one's while to attack such a man, and he could not consider himself safe; for though, as he believed, the majority of the people in no Southern community would have borne a part in such outrages, yet as they knew that slavery could not bear free handling in the light, they willingly permitted others to commit them. Now, however, there is no peculiar institution to be conserved, the great reason for hating Northerners has disappeared, and the prominent and influential men whose countenance of these lawless conservators alone made them dangerous, recognize the changed state of affairs. It was not at all his opinion that the memories of the war could furnish a reason for hating Northerners strong enough to take the place of the old reason of slave-holding times. He would be willing to work at his trade in any Southern community and vote the Union ticket. Yes, and read the New York *Tribune* openly. No; perhaps he would not like to avow himself in favor of

negro suffrage. And he readily admitted further that he would by no means consent to continue his connection with *The Nationalist* (a newspaper published in the interest of the colored people of Alabama) a day after the Federal troops should be withdrawn from Mobile. The same people who might concede to a white man the liberty of holding such opinions as seemed good to him, were very far from willing to allow that right to negroes or to see anything done for their instruction.

I may say that the Assistant Commissioner for Alabama, General Swayne, is of opinion that Northern men may now settle in Alabama without fear of being molested by their neighbors. He inclines to think that such settlers are apt to exaggerate the bluster of a comparatively small number of men into the threatening voice of the whole people. At the same time he would not wish to be understood as denying that quite possibly their view is the correct one. They see in detail, while he gets but a general view, and there may be good ground for the apprehensions which they do undeniably entertain, for it is certain that the Northerners in the vicinity of Montgomery, his headquarters, are unanimous in believing the presence of the Federal troops essential to their comfort and safety.

I am informed by the officers of the Bureau that the freedmen in this part of Alabama have almost all found work for the year, and already entered upon the performance of it. In the immediate neighborhood of Mobile the turpentine business forms the chief employment of the people; and for working in the orchards the men receive some ten, some fifteen, and some even twenty-five dollars a month. Women, engaged in the same occupation, get from six to eight dollars a month; and food, shelter, and medical attendance are furnished at the expense of the employer. This statement is to be understood of the wages of able-bodied hands. The demand for labor both in the turpentine region and in the cotton country, further from the coast, exceeds the supply.

The newspaper which I mentioned above, *The Nationalist*, is conducted by white men, but is owned by an association of colored people, and of course relies mainly for support upon that class of the population. I may remark, in passing, that the publisher announces that he finds it difficult, "owing to some cause connected with the post-office department," to supply the paper to his more distant subscribers. From its columns I quote a report of the number of rations issued to destitute citizens of Mobile, and of the number of cases tried in the Freedmen's Court, during the week ending Jan. 27, 1866:

Total number of applicants for justice from among colored citizens, 335, viz.:

For collection of wages from white employers	301
For whipping and other brutal treatment from the hands of white citizens	18
From the hands of colored citizens	4
For protection rom white mobs in the streets while employed in their daily labor	3
Total	335

Number of rations issued to destitute citizens for the past week, 5,194, as follows:

Number of white persons drawing rations	624
Number of colored persons drawing rations	51
Number of persons in hospital at Dog River, of both classes, drawing rations	67
Total	742
Number of days	7
Total number of rations	5,194

Besides their attempt to establish a newspaper, the colored people here, in their desire to elevate themselves, are making efforts in other directions that merit a favor and encouragement little likely to be given them by the white citizens of Mobile. The books of a branch bank of the National Freedman's Savings and Trust Company have within a month been opened, and the deposits made already exceed $4,000. By means of a fair recently held in the Medical College building they succeeded in raising $1,200, to be devoted to the founding of an asylum for orphan children. Six hundred children are under instruction in the schools, which are to a considerable extent self-supporting, the scholars buying their own books and paying the salaries of two teachers out of eight. In these schools the scholars were well behaved, and the lessons were recited very well. The teachers, who have been engaged in the schools since they were first opened in May last, speak in high terms of the docility of their pupils, and say that it is seldom necessary to resort to punishment. Here I saw, fort he first time in the Southern States, colored boys reciting in the same class with white. The latter, however, were children of the teachers, and not natives of Alabama. I saw, too, among the children one old white-headed man, who, when I asked him why he was there, told me with great earnestness that he would n't trouble the lady much; but he must learn to read the Bible and the Testament. He and his grandchild attend the same school, and the old man supports them both by what work he can do in the morning and evening.

As everywhere else, except in Port Royal, the teachers of these negroes are bitterly disliked by the white people around them, and complain of many insults.

ENGLAND.—THE WORK BEFORE PARLIAMENT.

London, January 20, 1866.

It is not very often that any newspaper article creates a sensation. This week, however, we have had everybody that is anybody talking about one particular article. Probably the reputation of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, the youngest of our London dailies, has hardly reached as yet across the Atlantic. Brought out by Mr. Smith, the proprietor of the "Cornhill Magazine," and supported by a sort of secession from the *Saturday Review* staff, it represents very much the same school of genteel liberalism as the weekly journal in question. Bearing the name of the famous newspaper which Captain Shandon edited, and to which Arthur Pendennis and George Warrington were contributors, it professes, like its prototype, to be written solely for the upper ten thousand. Hitherto its success has not been brilliant. Somehow or other the "scholars and gentlemen" who were supposed to compose its articles in contradistinction to professional writers found that writing leaders was a pursuit like most others at which the professional beats the amateur. Still the *Pall Mall Gazette* has been eminently respectable and, in a feeble way, liberal. But up to lately it had failed altogether in making any mark in the world of journalism. The other day, however, by a happy inspiration, one of its writers struck on the idea of going himself to a London workhouse in the dress of a houseless tramp, and describing what he saw there. The experiment was tried and proved eminently successful. The narrative of "the night in a London workhouse," simply told, with an almost Defoe-like realism, has excited a strange interest amongst all classes. It is a very old proverb that one-half the world does not know how the other half lives. Of England this saying is eminently true. People were perfectly aghast at the revelations of the writer in the *Pall Mall Gazette*, yet they might have learned the same truths much more forcibly by perusing the reports of the police courts, or by using their own reasoning powers. But the truth is, it has come to be a sort of article of belief with our upper classes that, somehow or other, anybody, as a rule, is better off in England than he could be anywhere else, or especially in America; and any account of pauper sufferings was always explained away as being exaggerated. Even the protests which Mr. Dickens has often raised so nobly in his novels against the hardships of our workhouse system were called "sensational" and dismissed forthwith. But here, at last, in an eminently genteel organ, we have an account written by a gentleman of what he himself saw and heard in the assumed character of a pauper. On a bitter cold night he, in common with some threescore other houseless wretches who applied for lodging at the Lambeth workhouse, was forced to sleep in a half-open shed, on a stone floor covered with filth, with no covering except a rug. His description of the horrors he witnessed, the language he overheard, and the hardships to which he was subjected, is quite sufficient to explain the "unreasoning" aversion, as it is called, which the honest poor entertain towards the workhouse or, to quote the popular name, "the union." Of course, the Lambeth officials are indignant at this disturbance of their privacy. Bumbledom is in arms, and protests that the account is exaggerated; that any hardships suffered were due to some unavoidable accident; and that, as a rule, the receptacles for paupers err upon the side of being too luxurious.

The authorship of the article in the *Pall Mall Gazette* has been kept a strict secret. I have heard it attributed, "on undoubted information," to Tom Hughes, to Higgins the "Jacob Omnium" of the *Times*, to Jones Kennay, to Lord Milton, to George Sala, to the present writer, and to a score of other personages. I have myself more reason to believe that it is the work of Mr. Greenwood, a brother of the author of "Margaret Denzil," and sub-editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*.

You will, of course, have seen the narrative of the dreadful shipwrecks we have had of late about our coasts. The loss of the *London* is one of those casualties which comes home to English people more, perhaps, than far greater catastrophes. The victims of the shipwreck belonged to the middle classes; and there are few people who read through that long ghastly list of the lost without a dread that some well-known name is among them. Poor Gustavus Vasa Brooke must, I should think, be recollected by many American play-goers. Latterly, circumstances which there is no good recalling had completely destroyed his reputation as an actor at home, and he was going out to Australia, as a disappointed and broken man, to try and retrieve his fortunes. Whatever the errors of his life may have been, he died nobly, as indeed everybody on board the ill-fated vessel appears to have

done. Much anxiety has been caused by a rumor that the *Atrato*, the Jamaica mail steamer which carried out the commissioners, had foundered at sea. The report has very little to rest upon; but we are waiting anxiously for tidings of this, as of every outward bound steamer which sailed within the last fortnight. The gales have lasted for nearly that time, and as yet there is very little symptom of their termination.

Politically, we have no news at all, except that there are renewed rumors of dissensions in the still incomplete cabinet. The other day Mr. Layard suddenly resigned his office as Under-Secretary for Foreign Affairs, and only resumed it in consequence of some arrangement whose exact nature is not yet known. Very little political knowledge is required to ascertain the probable motives of Mr. Layard's resignation. There can be no doubt that Mr. Goschen's appointment to the office of cabinet minister has given dire offence to many of the subordinate members of the Government. Mr. Layard is certainly the ablest of the younger members of the Palmerston Ministry; he has done good service to the Government for many years, and might, not unreasonably, expect that if any new man were admitted within the charmed circle of the cabinet he would be the person chosen. When he found himself passed over in favor of a young and untried colleague, he not unnaturally felt it incumbent on him to write a protest. The Nineveh discoverer has never quite realized his early reputation, but he is a vigorous speaker and a man much less wedded to traditions than the majority of our governing classes. Mr. Goschen is, probably, a more sincere Liberal; but yet Mr. Layard's election to the cabinet would have been a greater triumph for Liberal principles. Unlike Mr. Goschen, he has neither wealth nor commercial interests. Whatever position he holds he owes simply and solely to the force of his own ability. A sort of Liberal Disraeli, he is viewed with the same suspicion by the landed gentlemen who compose the governing class of England. Probably his threat of resignation will cause him before long to be raised in official rank. Earl Russell is not strong enough yet to quarrel with Mr. Layard.

January 27.

On Wednesday next, Parliament will meet for the session. For the first time since the death of the Prince Consort, the royal speech will be delivered by the Queen in person. There are many stories afloat as to the manner in which the Queen intends to combine the performance of this public duty with what has been called "her sacred prerogative of mourning." But everything connected with the court is always kept so profound a secret from the outer world that I see very little use in speculating on the manner in which the ceremonial will be conducted. The first few days of the session will be occupied by the swearing-in of the members and the election of a Speaker. The Government propose to nominate Mr. Denison for re-election, and, though he is by no means an efficient chairman of the House, I should think his return will be practically unopposed. The debate on the address will probably not commence till Monday. Meanwhile there is every prospect of a stormy and excited session. Foreign politics occupy at present less of public attention than they have for many a long year. The excitement of the great Transatlantic contest has ceased to disturb the public mind; the outlook of affairs upon the Continent is exceptionably tranquil; and the sort of truce which so long suspended all political action has obviously come to an end with the death of Lord Palmerston. Add to these facts the circumstance that the Parliament is new and untried, and the existence of a number of topics on which public feeling runs very high and on which action must be taken without delay, and it is easy to perceive that the halcyon days of the do-nothing Palmerstonian administration are over.

Let me specify the subjects which must first of all command the attention of Parliament. First and foremost there is this dreadful Jamaica business. Any set discussion will, doubtless, be adjourned till the report of the committee of investigation can be received; but questions are certain to be constantly asked with reference to the news from the West Indies, which will keep alive the discussion between the opponents and the apologists of Governor Eyre. Every day, indeed, seems to make the case clearer against the Jamaica authorities. Mail after mail has arrived. General Nelson has come over, communicated with the Government, and been sent back to the colony; and yet no official apology of any kind has been put forth in behalf of the impugned authorities. Now, Governor Eyre has many powerful friends; the sympathy of "society," which has immense weight with our governing classes, is in his favor; and the extent to which Mr. Cardwell has identified the Government with the governor by his ill-advised congratulatory despatch—all render it certain that no time would be lost in bringing forward any reports or correspondence which could prove either that the extent of the massacres had been exaggerated or that there was moral proof of the necessity for such wholesale extermination of the negroes. As it is, the non-official reports confirm more and more the justice of the outcry raised in England. We have got this week the report of the trial on which poor Gordon was sentenced to death. Some faint idea of the animus with which it was conducted may be given from the facts that the prisoner, who, by order of the governor himself, was carried off from the protection of civil law to be tried by a military court, was actually refused permission to consult a lawyer, and that the sapient tribunal, composed of two sub-lieutenants and one ensign, who sat in judgment upon him, actually took time to deliberate whether the unhappy man might be allowed to take notes of the evidence for the prosecution. The whole mockery of the trial is so apparent that even the newspapers which most distinguished themselves by the defence of Eyre are driven to suggest that probably there must be more to be said against Gordon than has yet been disclosed. Meanwhile, to a weak Government, like the Russell-Gladstone one, the very name of Jamaica must appear ominous of peril.

Then, again, there is the Irish question. Fenianism has been laughed at in our papers, and the humor of our comic writers has been exhausted—a task of no great difficulty just now—in holding up to ridicule the knot of lunatics who fancied they could overthrow the British Empire; and the movement has been suppressed, I am thankful to say, without the loss of a single life, and the whole affair has ended in smoke; and yet, gradually, the British public are beginning to perceive that Fenianism is a very serious matter after all. To judge from our newspaper reports you would suppose that the affair never had any real importance; but the tone of private intelligence is very different. I know that the private reports received by the Government are such as to inspire very grave uneasiness. Amongst the peasantry the sympathy with Fenianism is represented to be universal. The object of the movement, as far as Ireland herself is concerned, is considered to be rather social than political; but this fact renders it none the less significant. It appears now that any agitation which promises a reform of the land tenure will command the support of the Irish, no matter whether it is favored or opposed by the priesthood. In other words, Ireland never will be contented unless the proprietorship of the soil is virtually transferred from the landlord to the tenant. On the other hand, any measure by which this change could be brought about would be in direct antagonism to all our principles of government, and would be opposed to the death by the English landed interests, the most powerful one in the long run in the whole country. With the state of disaffection which is known to prevail in the sister kingdom, it is impossible to do nothing. On the other hand, it is almost as impossible to suggest what ought to be done, or what can be done, with safety, under these circumstances. I expect the Ministry will try to gain time and stave off the evil hour of settling upon an Irish policy by proposing a commission of enquiry into the condition of Ireland.

A similar expedient is hardly available in the case of the third dilemma with which the administration has to deal. The moment Parliament assembles there will be a cry for legislation on the subject of the cattle-plague. The experiment of a commission has been already tried, and has resulted in failure. Rightly or wrongly, the public has made up its mind that the Rinderpest, like small-pox, is propagated solely by close contact; and on this theory it is absolutely essential that all opportunities for communication between different herds should be precluded. In order to facilitate this object, the Government, by orders in council, has given power to the local authorities of the different counties to adopt precautionary measures. In consequence, the holding of markets and the conveyance of live stock has been prohibited in many parts of the country; but these remedies are found to be ineffectual so long as the prohibition is not uniform. A strong appeal, therefore, will be made to the Government to forbid all markets throughout the country and all removal of live stock from one place to another. How strong the feeling on the subject is in the agricultural districts may be estimated, by any one acquainted with England, by the simple fact that in Northamptonshire, where hunting is not a favorite pursuit of the landed gentry, but where it is the chief support of many of the smaller towns, there is a vigorous local agitation in favor of suspending all hunting while the Rinderpest rages, on the plea that the riders make gaps in the hedges, and thus allow the cattle to stray from one field to another. I hear, too, that the Conservatives intend to urge the necessity of a public loan to indemnify the farmers for the losses sustained by the pestilence. Such a proposition would be extremely embarrassing to the Government. Its acceptance would be extremely resented by the manufacturing districts, while its rejection would be almost fatal to the chances of the ministerial members for rural constituencies in the event of another election.

Last, but not least, there is the question of reform. The Government are now absolutely pledged to bring in a bill, and to dissolve Parliament in the event of its rejection. But they are still utterly at sea as to what basis of reform they ought to make their stand upon. As yet there has been

little evidence of any strong popular feeling in favor of reform, and the hostility of the half-and-half Liberals to any practical change is daily becoming more outspoken. The one thing on which the Ministry appears to have made up its mind is, that the bill shall not interfere with the present distribution of seats. Forthwith, the *Times*, which represents fairly enough the dread of the governing classes to any scheme which shall really increase the influence of the popular element in the representation, begins to plead that, if we are to have any change at all, it is idle to leave the question of the petty boroughs untouched. The real purport of these tactics is obvious enough. The *Times* knows that the Government cannot hope to pass a bill opposed by the representatives of from five-and-twenty to fifty boroughs which would have to be disfranchised if any attempt was made to render our electoral system somewhat less anomalous; and, therefore, it insists upon the necessity of disfranchisement as the indispensable condition of any bill deserving national support. A great number, too, of Liberal members, who are very fond of reform in the abstract, are extremely reluctant to have the subject entered upon at present, because the passage of a reform bill would render it necessary for them to undergo the cost and trouble of another election, and will, therefore, seize every opportunity of covertly frustrating the measure. If the Government has courage enough to bring forward a simple and straightforward bill, and to urge it vigorously upon the House, I think it just possible they may force it through Parliament; but if there is any appearance of hesitation or of divided counsels on the part of the Treasury bench, the defeat of the measure and of the Ministry is absolutely certain. And so far there has been no reason to credit the administration with decision or vigor of any kind. And, as if all this trouble were not enough, there is the further prospect that the repeated disclosures of mal-administration in our workhouses may force on the consideration of pauperism and of the parochial system—the most difficult and dangerous subject with which an English Government can well be called on to deal.

Other than political news there is hardly any which would interest anybody but home readers. Lady Palmerston has refused a peerage in her own right, with remainder to her second son by her first marriage, the Hon. William Cowper. Whatever judgment the world may pass upon the dead statesman, it is only natural that to the lady who bore his name the honor of being known only as the wife of Lord Palmerston should seem the highest of earthly distinctions. In the fashionable world the event of the week has been the christening of Sir Robert Peel's child, at which, in the reporter's phrase, "all the rank and fashion of the metropolis were assembled." I only mention the circumstance on account of the sensation produced at the ceremony by Mr. Gladstone's speech. The great English orator had to propose the health of the infant; and nobody expected that on so commonplace an occasion he could do more than utter a few graceful sentences. But to the surprise of everybody he made a speech about which all London is talking, and which it is credibly asserted set two colonels crying and disturbed the equanimity of a brace of bishops.

Sir Edwin Landseer, as I think I told you would be the case, has been offered the presidency of the Royal Academy, vacant by Sir Charles Eastlake's death, and will, it is thought, accept the honor. On Sunday intelligence was received of the death of Gibson, the sculptor, at Rome; and most of the Monday's papers had articles upon the loss thus sustained by art. It seems, however, that he is not dead after all, though I fear he is never likely to regain his strength. Americans who have resided in Rome will hear with regret of the death of Mrs. Charles Newton, the wife of the late, and the daughter of the present, English consul in that city. She was quite the cleverest of our female portrait-painters, and was very popular in the artistic world.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, Jan. 18, 1866.

THE spiritual "lion" of the Advent just over has been a Dominican monk rejoicing in the euphonious designation of "Father Hyacinth," a new man, previously unknown to fame, but selected by the chapter of Notre Dame, for his zeal and eloquence, to preach the regular course of "Advent sermons" in that fine old fane. The theme of the new preacher's discourses has been "Independent Morality," and his object has been to prove that there is no true "morality" out of the pale of the church, and that the most noble and excellent deeds, or what the common-sense judgment of the world would regard as such, are neither noble nor excellent unless they are done not because they are seen to be noble and excellent, but because they are prescribed by that sole depository of light and of authority, "the church." The new preacher being a young man of striking appearance, great scholastic learning, and vigorous delivery, the church-going world of Paris has been crowding to his sermons in greater numbers than have been drawn by any preacher since Lamennais, Lacordaire, and Ravignan; and so highly have they been approved by the ecclesiastical authorities that the Archbishop of Paris, after the delivery of the last of Father Hyacinth's orations, mounted the pulpit, and there expressed his entire approbation of all that the new preacher had said in these discourses, before dismissing the congregation with the "Papal benediction" duly sent on from Rome for the occasion. All the other churches of the capital have had their course of "Advent sermons," but none of them have rivalled, in public estimation, the outpourings of Father Hyacinth.

Advent and church-going being now successfully got through with, the Parisians are making the most of the unusually short carnival of the present year. The theatres are in full blast, and half-a-dozen popular novelties dispute the honors of the season. Patti, who has been fêted "to the top of her bent" in Italy, and was all but buried alive the other night, at Marseilles, under the cart-loads of flowers that were showered upon her from every part of the opera-house, is just re-engaged here, at the Italian Opera, at three thousand francs per night, a sum which is almost causing M. Bagier, the director of that renowned temple of song, to tear his hair. He ought, however, to be much obliged to the *diva* for letting him off with merely one-quarter of the total receipts of the theatre; for the public would insist on having Patti at any cost, and whatever she chose to ask he would be forced to give, even if she compelled him to pay her at the rate at which she lately mulcted the director of the opera at Lille, where she pocketed 24,000 francs as the price of a couple of representations! What the public of Lille were made to pay for their seats on those occasions has not transpired; but we learn that at Marseilles tickets for the stalls fetched as much as 200 francs, those for the first gallery 60 francs, and those for the pit 20 francs each.

The Marquis de Massa's new ballet, "Le Roi d'Yvetot," at the grand opera, has not equalled the anticipations which had been formed respecting it. The plot is of the slightest, and utterly incomprehensible, as is the want of ballets; the music, by Labarre, is very unequal; the dances, devised by Petipa, are wonderful in their way, but are so very statuesque as to occasionally suggest a wish that they might be transferred to the studio of some sculptor to whom the exhibition of the human frame might be more edifying than it can well be to the general public. So large is the portion of the "Africaine" which it has been found necessary to cut out, in order to bring Meyerbeer's posthumous opera within the capacities of performers and of the public, that the rejected *morceaux* would amply suffice for the fabrication of a two-act opera. An enterprising *librettiste* has offered to provide a plot for this purpose, to which the cuttings in question would be adapted. The proposition is under consideration, and rumor states that M. Fétis, the musical executor of the late *maestro*, is in treaty with Mme. Meyerbeer in reference to this suggestion. The accomplished professors who compose the magnificent orchestra of the French opera are paid for their arduous work in an inverse ratio of their talent, the pay they receive being so small as to be almost a derision. They have been agitating for several years in vain for an increase of salary, and have now hit upon a novel sort of strike, which they are employing with marked effect. They play so softly as to be almost inaudible, especially the passages which demand a vigorous rendering, and in which, while the unhappy leader works his *bâton* wildly in a frantic endeavor to galvanize the orchestra into the production of some grand burst of sound, the instruments give out but the faintest whispers. As it would be impossible to collect a new orchestra of equal talent on anything like the terms which these gentlemen demand, the manager dares not cashier them, but still refuses to comply with their demands, which, however, he will probably have to do before long.

The Théâtre Lyrique is beginning what appears to be destined to become a magnificent success, with an opera by Barthe, founded on Byron's "Bride of Abydos," and in which that unrivalled warbler, Madame Miolan-Cavalho, is pouring forth torrents of vocalization surpassing all her former feats, and only to be matched by a mocking-bird or a nightingale.

The transpontine Odeon, which ranks officially as "the second French theatre," is drawing unwonted crowds to weep over the sorrows of a specimen of the extinct class of *grisettes*, borrowed from the *Bohême* of their late historian, Henri Murger, and personated with equal charm, grace, and pathos by Mlle. Thuillier, who draws tears from the most flinty-hearted of her auditors, while those of a gentler mould are unable to get through the evening on less than half a dozen handkerchiefs. The vast new theatre of The Chatelet is crammed every night, from floor to ceiling, with a densely packed crowd, whose tickets have been taken a fortnight beforehand, to witness the brilliant marvels of a new piece called "The Magic Lantern," and in which one of the prettiest actresses of Paris, Mlle. Eugénie, personates our common mother, Eve, with the aid of the smallest modicum of green

crape whose existence could hope for recognition by the censors of the police. The largest of the Paris houses, the Grand Théâtre Parisien (which seats 8,000 people, and opened last year with a grand flourish of trumpets, proclaiming itself the "continuator of the traditions of the theatres of ancient Rome," apparently forgetting that the Circus Maximus seated 250,000 spectators, and the Colosseum 100,000!), has a "grand military drama," by Tessier, entitled "Puebla," which, with its 20 sieges, 31 sackings, and 400 discharges of artillery, is driving the east-end public wild with delight. The side-splitting "Review," at the little Théâtre Déjazet; the "Benoiton Family," at the Vaudeville; and the "Belle Hélène," at the Palais Royal, are pursuing their career as successfully as ever, and the manager of the theatre of the Porte St. Martin having announced his intention of celebrating the 300th representation of that marvellous fairy-spectacle, "La Biche au Bois," with a ball and supper, and private theatricals "interspersed with vivacious couplets," the demand for tickets, which has been unprecedented even in Paris, has attained still larger proportions since the appearance of the prospectus of the coming fête, in which the manager makes a particular request that "mothers will leave their daughters at home on this occasion;" thereby implying that the "vivacity" of the entertainment will be in stricter accordance with the prevailing taste of this particular portion of the planet than with the prescriptions of any very straightlaced code of proprieties. The opera balls, meantime, are in higher favor than ever. The interior of the French opera-house, boarded over so as to form a floor on a level with the stage and the first row of boxes, and thus converted into a vast ball-room, magnificently lighted with enormous chandeliers, opens its doors every Saturday night during the carnival, exactly at midnight, to the masquerading crowd who will dance wild dances, look out for adventures, or simply look on, from the comparative retirement of the boxes, on the bewildering whirl of uproarious merriment going on to the exciting strains of Strauss's unrivalled "Brass Band," and only ending in the broad daylight of Sunday morning.

But the great success of the moment is the new song of Thérése, the popular *diva* of the Alcazar Café, entitled "La déesse du Bœuf-Gras"—that is to say, the young woman in book-muslin who personates Venus in the chariot of Olympian deities that always forms part of the traditional procession of "fat oxen" on the three days of Shrovetide. This new ditty, of the stamp of her famous "Sapper," is even more in favor with the Parisian public than was that wonderful setting forth of the peculiar audacities commonly considered as constituting an essential part of the military career. Paris is going mad about this new ballad. Last night Thérése was recalled no less than six times, and was greeted each time with the most frantic applause and avalanches of bouquets.

The first court ball of the season took place yesterday, and is to be followed by the usual series of hospitalities at the Tuileries, including a fancy ball, concerts, and theatrical performances. The little Prince Imperial, who, being strictly limited in his allowance of pocket-money, and withal of so generous a disposition that he gives it away as soon as he receives it, and is thus almost always in a state of great pecuniary embarrassment, happened to learn a few days ago that one of the Zouaves now doing duty at the Tuileries had been robbed of 1,500 francs, the price of his re-engagement, which sum he was just going to send to his mother, and that the Zouave being a young man of excellent character and greatly beloved and respected by his comrades, the latter had made a subscription for him among themselves, the amount thus raised being, however, very far short of the sum of which he had been robbed. The generous little fellow, having just received his pocket-money, immediately sent for the colonel of the regiment, and, putting the sum of 1,500 francs into his hand, begged him to present it to the Zouave in his name, and to tell him that he "had great pleasure in making him this present, as he had learned what had been his intentions in regard to the money of which he had been so unfortunately robbed." The officer having promised to obey his little Highness's commands, called the company together on parade, and delivered the gift and message to the delighted Zouave, amidst the enthusiastic cries of "Vive le Prince Impérial!" proffered by the rest of the men, almost as much touched and delighted at their comrade's good fortune, the gracious deed of the little Prince, as that comrade himself.

Lovers of Biblical antiquities will rejoice to hear that the excavations now being made in Syria have resulted in the discovery, at Nadir-Sarape, of a Hebrew house dating from about the second century before Christ. Some of the rooms, with their contents, are in perfect preservation, among the latter being a number of Hebrew books, showing that the house belonged to a literary man. Besides the books of Moses and the Psalms of David, there is a collection of Hebrew poems, absolutely unknown to the Orientalists of our day. These interesting remains, many of which bear traces of Egyptian origin, have been sent to the Asiatic Society of London STELLA.

Correspondence.

AN IMPARTIAL CRITIC.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Your vindication last week of the conduct of THE NATION against the gratuitous arraignment of Mr. Wendell Phillips was convincing and ample. Had you chosen, however, to enquire why he essayed to play the champion for Mr. Sumner on this particular occasion, and, of all men, to stigmatize you as a "heartless and unfair critic" of that philanthropic senator, you might easily have removed from Mr. Phillips every vestige of an excuse for assuming either office. For, in the first place, while *he* regards and publicly brands President Johnson as virtually a traitor to his country, who deserves immediate impeachment and trial, Mr. Sumner declared, when seeking to justify his epithet of "whitewashing:" "*I have no reflection to make on the patriotism or the truth of the President of the United States.* Never in public or in private have I made any such reflection, and I do not begin now." And this, surely, Mr. Phillips must regard quite as bad as "whitewashing," and to the taste like wormwood!

But the *sang-froid* of this novel partizanship is quite refreshing in view of Mr. Phillips's severe, not to say savage, assault upon Mr. Sumner in the spring of 1863, when he exclaimed:

"Peel off Seward, peel off Halleck, peel off Blair, *peel off Sumner*—yes, *Massachusetts senators as well as others.* No, I will not say peel off our Massachusetts senators; but I will say their recent action has *very materially lessened my confidence in their intelligence and fidelity.* I will tell you why. When the Government called on New England for a negro regiment, and we went from county to county, urging the blacks to enlist, one Massachusetts colonel [Stevenson], dared to say, down in South Carolina, in the face of the enemy, that he had rather be whipped without negroes than conquer at their side—a Massachusetts colonel, in that hour of emergency and critical issue. His case within twenty days went before the Senate of the United States, and the very week that his apology was filed in the War Office at Washington, *Massachusetts senators begged their reluctant brothers to make him a brigadier-general.* Yes, Massachusetts senators, thoroughly informed and *put upon their guard, against the repeated remonstrance of their fellow-senators,* INSISTED *on rewarding the mutineer!*"

Again:

"Thus we see high-handed defiance of the Government's policy enter the Senate as a colonel and come out a brigadier. Sigel, Fremont, Butler, Hamilton, Phelps, and a host of others idle, yet *a negro-hater promoted on the plea of necessity to get good officers! When Mr. Sumner let personal feelings lead him to such a step,* HE BETRAYED THE NEGRO."

Again:

"*Massachusetts senators reward the mutineer* TO CONCILIATE HUNKER TREASON."

This aggravated statement and damnatory criticism Mr. Phillips was not satisfied with rehearsing to public audiences in various cities, but he was careful to make them a portion of the last speech contained in the volume of his "Speeches, Lectures, and Letters" published the same year, and thus designedly to send them down to posterity, aspersing the motives, impeaching the integrity, and blackening the conduct of Messrs. Sumner and Wilson, who had done and suffered more in the anti-slavery cause than any other two public men in the land, and whose illustrious career, as well as upright character, should have shielded them from such a merciless attack. This was all the more wanton and inexcusable because Mr. Sumner, we are told, and also others whose testimony was unimpeachable, minutely laid before Mr. Phillips all the facts in the case, placing an almost totally different aspect upon it, and relieving "the Massachusetts senators" of all suspicion of intentional wrong-doing in the appointment of Col. Stevenson, who, however betrayed in a moment of excitement to say, in a private conversation, what Mr. Phillips imputes to him, promptly forwarded to the War Department his humble apology, as Mr. Phillips admits; and who laid down his life in the service of his country in the spirit of a brave soldier and a true patriot. In relation to Mr. Sumner in special, is this to be a "heartless and unfair critic"—or how shall it be characterized? When, on a certain occasion, at an anti-slavery celebration, Mr. Phillips contemptuously said of Henry Wilson in his speech, "I could make a better senator out of the sweepings of a bar-room caucus," because Mr. Wilson had said or done something displeasing to him, was this a just appreciation of one who, by his inherent energy and manly character, had succeeded in exchanging a cobbler's shop for the Senate Chamber of the United States, and to whose indomitable zeal and tireless industry, accompanied by sound discretion and admirable tact, the cause of freedom, in its broadest signification, owes its most important legislative triumphs?

Instances like these might be multiplied by any one who should take the

pains to search Mr. Phillips's later speeches for them, or should simply recall that in his phraseology Mr. Lincoln was once "the slave-hound of Illinois," and a certain Massachusetts major-general "a strolling mountebank." It is one thing to be a comprehensive statesman; another to be an eloquent rhetorician. Mr. Phillips not unfrequently mistakes sweeping condemnation for courageous censure, a love of paradox for a bold enunciation of the truth, and extravagance of impeachment for fidelity to the claims of the oppressed. This habit is growing upon him in proportion to the lack of provocation; while he is still listened to for his oratorical ability, his criticisms are daily becoming less valuable and less regarded. AN ABOLITIONIST.

THOMAS FLEET.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In the interesting communication of Mr. Wheeler, in last week's NATION, upon "The original Mother Goose," he speak of Thomas Fleet as having been a man of considerable wit. In the course of my reading lately I came across one or two instances verifying your correspondent's remark, a few of which I note for the benefit of your readers.

Thomas Fleet, the son-in-law of Mother Goose, first established the *Boston Weekly Rehearsal* in 1731, and afterwards the Boston *Evening Post*. Massachusetts was then a slaveholding country, and Fleet owned several negroes, two of whom he instructed in the art of printing. Their names were Pompey and Cæsar—the only two *Romans*, I believe, who ever belonged to the printing fraternity. These honest fellows lived and printed until after the war of the Revolution, having become freemen by the constitution of Massachusetts of 1780. Fleet was droll and witty in the conduct of his paper, especially in his advertisements. Witness the following advertisement of one of his negro women for sale: "To be sold, by the printer of this paper, the very best negro woman in this town, who has had the small-pox and the measles; is as hearty as a horse, as brisk as a bird, will work like a beaver."

There was a common evil existing in those days, which, it is to be feared, has now become chronic. People were prone to omit paying for their newspapers. Fleet had often to complain even against men of great religious professions. On one occasion he read them quite a severe lesson upon their injustice and oppression in this respect. "Every one," says he, "thinks he has a right to read news, but few find themselves inclined to pay for it. 'T is a great pity a soil that will bear *piety* so well, should not produce a tolerable crop of honesty."

It is, moreover, slanderously reported in the ancient chronicles—in spite of Mother-in-law Goose and her ditties—that Fleet was not blessed with the most beautiful and sweet-tempered wife and daughters in Boston. On one occasion he invited a friend to dine with him on *pouts*, a kind of fish then esteemed a great delicacy, and of which he knew his friend to be remarkably fond. His domestic matters, however, did not move along very smoothly that morning, and when they sat down to table, the gentleman remarked that the *pouts* were wanting. "Oh no," said Fleet, "only look at my wife and daughters!" WM. L. STONE.

NEW YORK, Feb. 8, 1866.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

PHILADELPHIA has just lost one of her oldest and most respected citizens by the death of Mr. George Ord in his eighty-fifth year. Mr. Ord's retiring disposition withdrew him from the public gaze, but for more than half a century his name has been known and esteemed in his own country and in Europe by all who, through a similarity of tastes and studies, were brought in contact with him. His chief published work was the memoir of his friend, Alexander Wilson, the naturalist, whose great work on the birds of America he edited and brought into its present shape, and to whose memory one of the most interesting pieces of biography in our language was consecrated. Mr. Ord's favorite pursuit was ornithology; his acquirements in that science well fitted him for the post of president of the Academy of Natural Sciences, Philadelphia, which he filled for many years, being, at the same time, a prominent member of the American Philosophical Society, a fellow of the Linnæan Society of London, etc. Of English philology Mr. Ord was also a devoted student. Though he never published any separate work on the subject, his co-operation was largely given to the Rev. H. J. Todd's enlargement of Dr. Johnson's dictionary and to the lexicographical labors of Dr. Webster and of Dr. Latham, whose dictionary is now in progress in England. Mr. Ord retained to an advanced age a youthful freshness of interest in his studies and in public affairs. His last days were cheered by the return of peace and prosperity to his country.

—An important work is now proceeding through the press of Messrs. T. & T. Clark, of Edinburgh, exemplifying a combination of German and American scholarship. The historical geography of Syria and Palestine, contained in Carl Ritter's world-renowned "Erdkunde," is well known to scholars as the most thorough and exhaustive examination of the Holy Land in every respect that is needed by the requirements of the Biblical critic and commentator, and of all who are engaged in the study of the Divine oracles, that has ever been produced. The bulk of the work has hitherto been the chief obstacle to its translation. This, however, has been undertaken by an American scholar, Mr. W. L. Gage, who was an attendant of Ritter's course of lectures at the University of Berlin, and is already favorably known by versions of two of his minor works published by Messrs. Gould, Lincoln & Co. and Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co. Some condensation will be used in Mr. Gage's translation of the Palestine, but this will be more than compensated by the additions of the editor, who will add to the work the latest results of recent explorations among the sites of sacred history, now proceeding with much energy, from various sources. Mr. Gage's familiarity with continental literature and the geographers of Germany, as Kiepert, Petermann, etc., will give him great facilities for this task and enable him to bring forward much matter entirely new to English readers. The work will form four handsome volumes in octavo, and will be accompanied by maps drawn for the work by A. Keith Johnston. Mr. Gage has also in view, at no distant date, the publication of a life of Carl Ritter, with extracts from his correspondence, etc.; and, in fact, seems to have dedicated himself to the task of extending the fame of one of the great men who create a science and impress themselves ineffaceably on their age.

—Messrs. J. B. Lippincott & Co., of Philadelphia, announce the early appearance in this country, in conjunction with the English publishers, of Mr. Baker's important book of "Explorations at the Nile Sources," recently mentioned as forthcoming in London. They have just published, in elegant library style, the works of Philip Lindsley, D.D., late president of the University of Nashville, edited by Leroy J. Halsey, D.D., with introductory notices of his life and labors, in 3 vols. octavo, divided into "Educational, Religious, and Miscellaneous Discourses and Essays;" a new book by Dr. W. L. Plumer, "Jehovah Jireh, a Treatise on Providence;" the collection of hymns authorized by the House of Bishops, at the last general convention of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States; "The Student's Practical Chemistry," a text-book on chemical physics and inorganic and organic chemistry, by Henry Morton, Secretary of the Franklin Institute, and Albert R. Leeds; "Mosaics of Life," by Elizabeth A. Thurston; the "History of Usury," from the earliest period to the present time, with a statement of the conflict of laws in different States and countries and an examination into the policy and the effect of them on commerce, by J. B. C. Murray, and a large number of English books brought out conjointly with the London publishers.

—The interminable foreign copyright question has again come up before the Court of Queen's Bench in relation to the proprietorship of an opera by the German composer Nicolai, the owner of which sought to stop a surreptitious publication. Music and books are both subject to the same form of legal procedure; in fact, for many years the law of foreign copyright depended on a decision growing out of the contested right to publish Bellini's "Sonnambula." As it is a question of importance to a large class in the United States, we give the points relied on by the lawyer for the piratical defendant, that claimants from this country may see the technicalities required. "Mr. Coleridge said he was prepared to prove that there was no English copyright on the original works or any of them; and that, assuming there was such copyright, the plaintiff had not got it; and thirdly, that assuming there was an English copyright, and that it had been assigned to the plaintiff under the provisions of the act, he should, beside the entry of the assignment, make an entry of his proprietorship, and that he had made no such entry. Next, that the place of publishing the original was stated to be Berlin, but there were several places called Berlin. Next, that in the assignment the name of the assignee was stated, but not the place of abode, as required by the 13th section of the act. And, lastly, that the date of the original publication, within twelve months of which the registry should take place, had not been fixed." It will be seen by this that the objections are all founded on matters of detail, the principle of the late decision in "Law *vs.* Routledge," that foreigners *can* hold and transfer a copyright in England being distinctly recognized by all parties.

—Messrs. Thomas Nelson & Co., of Edinburgh, who have for many years conducted in this city, with marked success, an agency for the sale of their

publications, announce "that, in order more thoroughly to accommodate themselves to the requirements of the American trade," they are about to add to their business as importers that of manufacturers of books in this country as American publishers. They issue in England the writings of Mrs. Charles, the authoress of "Chronicles of the Schönberg-Cotta Family" and other works, whose sudden popularity among all classes of readers in this country now equals that of Mrs. H. B. Stowe in the palmy days of "Uncle Tom's Cabin." Messrs. Nelson are also publishers of the series of books by a lady who writes under the signature of "A. L. O. E.;" these, though perhaps not very familiar to the older branches of a family, find readers by the hundred thousand among the young, and take their place in every Sunday-school library in the land. They commence their career as American publishers by the issue of a new work by this "well-known and favorite writer," "Rescued from Egypt," in the present month.

—It is announced on competent authority that the entire mass of manuscripts left by Walter Savage Landor has been placed in the hands of John Forster, to be used at his discretion in the preparation of a memoir, etc., of the late venerable Nestor of English literature. The bulk of these materials, including journals, diaries, letters, etc., is so extensive as to fill ten large cases. The correspondence, in particular, is very ample; for though Landor passed a large portion of the later years of his life abroad, he never ceased to keep up his interest in, and connection with, his native country. Personal relations, probably, as well as fitness for the task, have directed the choice of a biographer. For many years past the communications, often wayward and erratic, of Walter Savage Landor have found an honored place in Mr. Forster's paper, the *Examiner*. It may be feared that a work of this nature may yet further retard the appearance of the "Life and Journals of Dean Swift," so long promised and so repeatedly delayed, from his pen, and also the library edition, enlarged and re-written, of the "Lives of the Statesmen of the Commonwealth," of which the recent biography of Sir John Eliot (2 vols. 8vo, 1864) may be taken as a sample of what they are to be in their improved state. Mr. Forster is now in the prime of a working literary life, somewhat past his fiftieth year, but he has, besides too great variety of occupation, two excellent excuses for procrastination—a lucrative public appointment as Commissioner of Lunacy, and a fine private fortune in right of his wife, who was the widow of Mr. Henry Colburn, the celebrated publisher.

—Mr. Murray has just published an elegant volume, with illustrations from the antique, "The Agamemnon of Æschylus and Bacchanals of Euripides," with passages from the lyric and later poets of Greece, translated by Henry Hart Milman, D.D., Dean of St. Paul's. It is just forty years since Dean Milman published the last of the poetical dramas, "Anna Boleyn," that constituted his titles to literary reputation in the early part of this century. Since that time he has taken rank among the first historians of the age by his standard works on the Jewish nation and early and Latin Christianity. The recurrence to former pursuits after so long an interval of severer studies, and at the advanced age of seventy-five years, is an interesting example of literary activity of mind and the persistence of early tastes through changes of time and object. Dr. Milman's versions are marked with the spirit and elegance that characterize all his productions, and display no symptoms of senility in the writer.

—An announcement of interest appears in Messrs. Longman & Co.'s last list of forthcoming publications: "Lord Macaulay's Works. Complete and Uniform Library Edition. Edited by his Sister, Lady Trevelyan. 8 vols. octavo, with Portrait." As no mention of any new unpublished matter accompanies the notice, it is probably in vain to expect at this time much accession to Lord Macaulay's acknowledged writings, though if the collection merely includes the works already published in so many different forms, it is not very apparent what need there can be for an editor at all. The next generation will probably be more familiar with the correspondence, etc., of Macaulay than the present, as it is easy to understand how a decorous reticence may keep back from publication much that may have been written by one so honest and thorough in his likings and dislikings of public men and measures, whether of past centuries or of the present day, and so unguarded in his expression of them. An intelligent search among the periodicals and the *Times* newspaper about the period of Macaulay's college career would undoubtedly be rewarded by some additions to his works. Only a portion of his papers in "Knight's Quarterly Review" has been reprinted. Mr. Bohn has preserved a clever election squib or *jeu d'esprit*, written in 1826, in his edition of "Lowndes's Bibliographer's Manual." An early volume of "Macmillan's Magazine" contained an elaborate critical estimate of Warburton's "Divine Legation of Moses," copied from the fly-leaves of a volume read by Macaulay for the first time, in India, and which was sold at the disposal of a portion of his library shortly after his decease. It was found, when too late to recover them, that many other of the books sacrificed at the same time were enriched in a similar manner with annotations; but as Macaulay, like most people who really use their books, was comparatively indifferent to their appearance and condition, a large part of his collection presented a very poor appearance to the eyes of a bibliomaniac, and this, without examination, was sapiently consigned to the auctioneer and irreparably scattered.

—A translation of Prof. Hagenbach's "Church History of the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries" is in progress, undertaken by Dr. B. H. Nadal and Rev. J. F. Hurst, whose "History of Rationalism" was lately published by Messrs. C. Scribner & Co. Contemporary history of any description is always the most difficult to obtain a correct knowledge of, and Dr. Hagenbach's work is perhaps the only accessible form in which the great spiritual movements that underlie much of the temporal and political history of the last century and a half can be studied. A portion of the book has been translated in Edinburgh, and published separately under the title of "History of German Rationalism." The whole will be included in Messrs. Nadal and Hurst's version, with copious indexes and other helps to facilitate its currency among American readers.

—Mr. George W. Carleton announces as in press and shortly to appear a number of new works, principally in the departments of light literature, of which his establishment has poured forth so ample a supply. Among them are, "The House by the Churchyard: a Novel," by J. Sheridan Le Fanu, we believe; "Josh Billings, his Book," a collection of the humorous writings of Mr. Henry W. Shaw, extensively circulated under that pseudonym; "Recommended to Mercy" and "Beyminstre," two new novels; a new illustrated edition of "The Culprit Fay," and "Jargal," one of Victor Hugo's early sensational romances, hitherto unpublished in this country. Mr. Carleton's "Artist in Cuba" furnished the public with some acceptable memoranda from his sketch-book of a visit last winter to the Queen of the Antilles. He has recently started on an excursion to Peru, and will, we hope, find exercise for his pencil among the belles and beaux of Lima and the Pacific coast. He will also issue later in the season a new edition, complete in one volume, of "Souvenirs of Travel," by Mme. Octavia Walton Le Vert; an uniform impression, in three volumes, of Mr. Newell's "Orpheus C. Kerr Papers," that are now puzzling the English critics in the cheap non-copyright reprints; and "Adrift in Dixie," by Edmund Kirke.

—A fair opportunity was lately afforded for the exercise of Dean Stanley's peculiar talent as a great historical word-painter, on an occasion that was well calculated to call out all his powers. On Thursday, December 28, last, he addressed a crowded and attentive audience on the *eight hundredth* anniversary of the inauguration of his own church, the building where his audience were that day assembled—the new Abbey of Westminster, rebuilt by Edward the Confessor on the 28th December, A.D. 1065, a few days before his own death and a few months only before the Battle of Hastings. Of course but little remains of the original fabric of the building in the present well-known structure. Enough, however, is preserved to satisfy the sense of unbroken identity and historical continuity. This was well applied in Dr. Stanley's discourse, in which, by a picturesque and brilliant historical survey, he impressed on his hearers the solemn sense of national continuity. He painfully brought before them the character of the pious but weak and mystic Confessor; the heavy pressure of doubt and gloom which hung over the nation in anticipation of his approaching decease as the first assembly gathered within those walls; the great crisis that so rapidly followed; and the whole grand stream of national life that was colored by influences then at work, till it mingled with the eddies and currents of the passing hour. Dr. Stanley's text referred to an earlier dedication, and was taken from John x, 22, 23, "And it was at Jerusalem the feast of the dedication, and it was winter, and Jesus walked in the temple in Solomon's porch." He drew a parallel of the feelings with which the Jews, and probably Christ himself, regarded the feast of a dedication of the one temple (not the original foundation, but a rebuilding by Judas Maccabeus), occurring in the same wintry season with those recalled by the history of the renowned building where he then spoke; and while enlarging eloquently on the faith and hope in which the great abbey was founded, and the charity it had dispensed in past days, did not omit to appeal for the charitable institutions of the present. The discourse is in press and will be published.

—In the brisk competition of trade, the influence of literature is accommodated to strange uses. An enterprising dealer in London announces a volume elegantly "got up," with beautiful vignette monograms, colored engravings, etc., entitled "Essay and Essence," containing a poem, "Odor of Hybla; or, Floral Sprites," and says that "the volume, besides its literary

and artistic attractions, contains within it a casket of new and choice perfumes appropriately called 'Floral Sprites.'" This beats the well-known boast of Warren, the blacking-maker, that "we keeps a poet," and it has been left for the present age to offer the public a sample of the intellectual and material wares of the manufacturer tastefully combined.

RELIGIOUS LIBERTY IN MASSACHUSETTS.*

THE popular knowledge of the religious history of Massachusetts begins, it may be safely asserted, with the landing of the Pilgrims, in 1620, and ends with the hanging of Mary Dyer, on Boston Common, some forty years afterward. When you have mentioned these two considerable enough events, there comes a general pause in the conversation—much as if "Connecticut" and "Blue-laws" had been suggested to the same company; nor is it quite certain that you, reader, or we, the present writer, could break the awkward silence except that Mr. Buck has written a book for the purpose of enlightening us, and there is no longer any excuse for our being ignorant on the subject. It is not a bulky volume, yet it covers the whole ground of ecclesiastical law. Moderate in text, it is copious in reference. The work of an Orthodox Congregationalist, it is unsectarian, and displays a wide familiarity with the tenets and internal experience of other denominations. The compromise between the lawyer and the historian is happily effected. The narrative flows along with a steady interest, with every now and then a ripple of humor that makes one forget the grave theological warfare—the bitterest and most implacable in which the human mind can indulge—that underlies this peaceful discussion.

The political enemies of Massachusetts have found it convenient to lash the men of this generation over the backs of their Puritan forefathers. The bloody intolerance shown towards the Quakers, though it lasted hardly a score of months, has been, *mutatis mutandis*, imputed in a right line to those whose real inheritance has been a love of liberty, of general education, and of honest industry. Contemptible as is this imputation, it is a tribute to the vitality of the Puritan influence, and so not altogether baseless. Indeed, this book will have few readers outside of the profession from which it emanates who will not be constantly and heartily surprised by the recent date of statutes, cases, and judicial decisions which seem to belong to the seventeenth rather than the nineteenth century. It is understood, of course, that the law was seldom the measure of religious freedom, which, in the periods when it slumbered, outgrew it; but this only made its awakening at the summons of litigation all the more formidable and all the stranger.

The religious welfare and instruction of the people, and their participation in the forms and burthens of divine worship, were as much a concern to the early colonists as their attention to civil obligations. There were, from 1693 to 1711, as many as fifty grants in aid of feeble churches. The statutes of 1800 contained exact and definite penalties for such towns as neglected to supply good preaching to their inhabitants. Indictments were not uncommon, especially in Essex County. Taxes were assessed and levied for the support of the Gospel as of the Government. All landholders, whether resident or non-resident, were subjected to this impost, albeit they might never have seen the minister nor entered the meeting-house. This rule was mitigated in 1811 for the latter class, who were taxed to support a minister of their own denomination, if such there was in the town. Corporations were taxed, like individuals, even as late as 1831, and the woollen factory and the nail factory were reckoned *pro rata* among the faithful. Statutes subsequent to the Bill of Rights (1780) permitted a man's tax to be paid to the minister of his own sect, provided he was a regular attendant on his service, but otherwise it must go to the Congregational preacher. The statute of 1799 authorized the town to omit taxing those who belonged to dissenting churches, or gave ministers leave to recover from the town treasurer the taxes derived from their parishioners. Not till 1811, the date of the "religious freedom act," might one leave, independently of scruples, the old established Congregational society for an Episcopal, Methodist, Baptist, or Universalist society in the same town, with the certainty that his tax would eventually reach his own minister. Meanwhile, no man could escape contributing. Walpole ordered in town meeting, in 1832, a tax for the support of the Gospel, and arrested a Mr. Fisher who refused to pay his portion. Neither could any citizen with impunity avoid going to meeting. The statute of 1791 fined all able-bodied men ten shillings for an absence of three months; and it was not repealed till 1835. Such was the force of tradition and custom that when the constitution was revised in 1820, and the Bill of Rights had been amended by inserting the enabling act of 1811, the people threw out the amendment by a large majority, and, by a still larger, voted that the overseers of Harvard College should not be taken from all denominations.

The nice discrimination of the man who could not be moved to tears by a pathetic discourse, because he was not the parson's parishioner, was an enviable quality "in good old colony times," and even later. Originally the parish was territorial, and a person who wanted to attend a different meeting had to be transferred, lands and all, to a new parish. In 1828, a member of the Orthodox society of Malden, having formally retired from it, applied for admittance at the First Parish, but was refused. Judge of the astonishment of the parish when it learned in court that it could not help itself—that everybody who could not show that he belonged elsewhere was presumably and *ex necessitate* a member of the oldest parish. But the question of membership was most alarmingly brought home in 1835, when it appeared that parishioners were individually liable for the debts of the parish; and owners of bank stock ran races with the sheriff, in haste to dissolve their membership before the hammer fell. But the Revised Statutes of the following year declared that no one could be a member of a religious society without his consent in writing.

Though the greatest reverence was formerly felt and manifested towards ministers in Massachusetts, they were not by the law regarded as a separate class. They were simply laymen exempt from watch and ward, and military and jury duty. Their tenure, unless specified in terms, was for life, and determinable only for some good and sufficient cause, or by the consent of both parties. Time has hardly lessened the legal difficulties in the way of getting rid of one who is resolved not to quit his pulpit except under constraint. As for settling a minister, the good people of the State reposed for two centuries in the delusion that no practice could be more firmly or uniformly established. Simultaneously, however, with that great political unsettlement called the Missouri Compromise, the religious world was visited with an upheaval with which heresy had only a casual connection, though reaping instant and singular advantages. It had been the custom from the beginning for church and parish to unite in settling the pastor, and the question of a schism had never come before the courts till 1818, when Dedham parish elected a Unitarian against a majority of quite two-thirds of the church members. In that year and the following, on appeal from the church, the pleadings and facts in the case were duly considered by judge and jury, and in 1820 it was argued before the full bench of the Supreme Court. The final decision, like the two first, was adverse to the petitioners, and declared that the church by seceding had lost its existence—having none, in fact, apart from the parish—and forfeited its property. Such was the law in "Puritan" Massachusetts, and the result of this memorable exposition was that half the towns in the eastern part of the State saw orthodox churches ejected from their meeting-houses. This, it may well be imagined, was a hardship grievous to be borne. It was attended with every degree of aggravation. In one instance, in 1830, the orthodox church and minister seceded, leaving only two male members behind; yet they had to abandon their house, records, and communion furniture. More intolerable than the loss of their possessions, or the breaking up of old associations, must have been the thought of the desecration of the sanctuary by the false faith by which they were extruded.

When no controversy raged between the church and the parish, sometimes the parish and the town were at loggerheads. Here the moot point was the ownership of the meeting-house, which was judicially decided to belong to the former. The town could not complain if the parish refused its house for municipal purposes, even the most patriotic, as to celebrate the Fourth of July. Nay, when the town had used and repaired the meeting-house during seventy years, it still was not allowed to have suffered wrong when the parish pulled the structure down about the municipal ears.

Reverting for a moment to the ministers and the respect accorded to them, it remains to be added that, by the colony laws, they were not permitted to solemnize marriages till 1695, and then co-ordinately with justices of the peace. The present statute confers the requisite authority on "any minister of the Gospel ordained according to the usages of *his* denomination, who resides within the State, and continues to perform the functions of *his* office;" and wherever reference is made to a minister in this capacity, *he* is the pronoun regularly employed. Since Mr. Buck's work has appeared, the question has curiously arisen whether, under this statute, a woman can lawfully perform the marriage ceremony. Miss Olympia Brown is the ordained and officiating pastor of the church at Weymouth Landing, and is said to have tied the matrimonial knot on more than one occasion. The doubts engendered by a strict interpretation of the law occasioned last month the introduction in the Massachusetts House of Representatives of an order instructing the Committee on the Judiciary to consider whether any legisla

* "Massachusetts Ecclesiastical Law. By Edward Buck, of the Suffolk Bar." Gould & Lincoln, Boston; Sheldon & Co., New York. Pp. 310. 1866.

tion was needed upon the subject. The committee unanimously reported to the contrary, and thus gave a generic instead of a sexual significance to the ambiguous part of speech.

The General Statutes of 1860 and 1865 exhibit perhaps most forcibly in the chapters on the observance of the Lord's Day the vigor of the Puritan tradition. Whoever should endeavor to obtain from them an accurate idea of the actual observance of that day would be not a little misled. They are, however, potentially operative, as the citizens of Boston became aware, not long since, under the administration of the new State Constable. But the annoyance to which their enforcement gave rise, and the ridicule which it brought upon the officials, practically soon put an end to the attempt to regulate the manners of to-day by the old-time restrictions. The business of the age, in demanding greater facilities for travel and wider opportunities for recreation, has enlarged so that they can never be restricted within their former proportions the liberties of the day of rest. The foreigner still remarks the funereal air of Boston when church bells are tolling and, in sombre procession, the black-robed citizens wend their way to the house of prayer. "A l'heure du prêche," says a writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, quoting from his diary of Dec. 11, 1864,—"à l'heure du prêche, les familles défilent en silence, la tête basse, habillées de noir, comme une procession d'enterrement. Cependant les églises sonnent les offices en volées lentes et tristes comme un glas funèbre." Yet the horse-car rumbles through the streets, while in Philadelphia, that never hanged a Quaker on any of its parks, the church and the suburbs alike must be reached on foot by whoever cannot command a carriage. Already it has been earnestly sought to open the reading-room of the Public Library on Sunday. These are but signs of the changes which public sentiment has undergone "dans la vieille colonie puritaine" in regard to "dimanche, jour lugubre."

In taking leave of this pleasant book, if we glance at the case of Abner Kneeland, 1834–38, it is only to remark that it is not possible that any person should be again imprisoned in Massachusetts for such "blasphemy" as was detected in his avowal:

"The Universalists believe in a God which I do not; but believe that their God, with all his moral attributes, aside from nature itself, is nothing more than a chimera of their own imagination."

In 1829 the Universalists were almost as obnoxious as their infidel critic, for their testimony was objected to in the courts, though without success. In 1848 atheists were excluded. But the law now suffers anybody to testify, with the understanding that his credibility may be affected if possible by a representation of his peculiar belief. Great steps have been taken by Massachusetts toward religious liberty in the interval bounded by the gibbet in 1660 and the open witness-stand in 1860. Instead of asking what obstacles to this progress must be attributed to the Puritan colonists, it would be wiser to enquire how so much progress could have been so prudently and quietly made without the Puritan obedience to conscience and to law. The society which they founded contained the germs of the nobler development we now admire: they were not borrowed from without. The bench they instituted gives tone to the judiciary of the country; their pulpit ministers to the Pacific coast.

MARTIN'S HISTORY OF FRANCE.*

It is now too late to offer any criticism, even if any were needed, on M. Martin's history. It has long since taken its place as the greatest, in fact we may say the first, history of France, and will probably hold it. The task of narrating the entire history of any country from the earliest period to our day is one from which writers every year shrink with greater and greater dread. The publication of private correspondence, discovery of fresh records, the closer and more careful examination of national archives, are constantly increasing the quantity of material available for the history of every civilized state. And as materials increase, the labor of sifting and arranging them increases also; the chances of mistakes and oversights multiply; and criticism becomes at the same time only more and more exacting. No man with the smallest regard for his reputation would now dare to write history as it was written a century ago. Anybody who in our day sits down to write the history of a nation has to make up his mind to devote his life to it, and, what is still harder, to familiarize himself with the chance of his life proving far too short for the task. And then he can rarely enter on it in youth. The judgment, the critical acumen, the lore, the knowledge of languages, of law, of men and manners and literature; the acquaintance with libraries, archives, and other great mines of authority, and the reputation necessary to gain access to them, come to few men before their working years are half over. Youthful historians of any mark are all but unknown. Consequently, as but few men are content with posthumous fame, and but few feel within themselves the courage to grapple with whole centuries of national life, the tendency of writers to restrict themselves to monographs on particular periods increases every year. We have abundance of histories of revolutions, of certain reigns, of short and interesting crises, but not many complete histories. M. Martin would, therefore, be likely to wear his laurels undisturbed, even if his claims to them were less indisputable.

It is therefore not his work, but Miss Booth's translation, that calls for any notice here. We confess we were not deterred from an examination of the manner in which she has executed her task, either by M. Martin's commendatory letter, or the scarcely less laudatory "opinions of the press" by which it is followed in the publishers' advertisement. M. Martin is himself hardly competent to say that the translation "is elegant without artificiality, vigorous without stiffness, and always clear," and the relations of the press with publishers are generally so enchantingly cordial that one is apt to take up "book-notices," both in the daily and weekly papers, with almost as much expectation of getting from them a true idea of the value of the works reviewed, as of getting a fair analysis of the character of the principal guest from the president of a public dinner. What we read may be all true, but then critics are so dreadfully good-natured.

Now we feel bound to say that Miss Booth's translation is most faithful and accurate, but, with all respect for M. Martin, it is unquestionably "stiff," and the French peeps out through the English very frequently with unpleasant plainness. It is for instance incorrect to say (p. 2, Vol. XV.) that the Duke of Orleans "had nothing that belongs to the leader of a party." Of course he had a great many things in common with the leader of a party. In accurate English this should be expressed, none of the distinguishing characteristics of a party leader. Nor is it correct to say that his "self-love was at stake," in the contest between him and the Duc du Maine. It was the power of the regency that was at stake; the self-love of the Duke of Orleans was "roused." Nor do we talk in "elegant" English of a man's being "possessed by a fixed idea, which he carried to monomania." The fixed idea produces monomania. Nor is it usual to say in decent English, "that we are seized with vertigo on thus contemplating the audacity," etc. (p. 54). This is a strictly French expression, which rendered literally in this way has a very comical sound. In idiomatic English one does not get beyond being amazed, confounded, astonished, or overwhelmed, or thunderstruck, by any amount of audacity. One never thinks of describing the physical accompaniments of his emotions, or, if he does, he simply says he "grows dizzy."

We might point out hundreds of blemishes of this sort, but they would be but slight blemishes after all. The translation is on the whole eminently faithful and accurate, and even the faults we have found with it might, on at least one theory of a translator's duties, be defended, we do not say successfully. The way in which the discussions of some of the financial and philosophical questions are rendered is a very remarkable example both of knowledge of French and command of English.

The two volumes before us are devoted to the most interesting period in French history—perhaps, we might even say, in the history of the civilized world—the decline of the monarchy beginning with the death of Louis XIV. and ending with the Revolution. There is no other such description of that "great awakening," and there is certainly no such description and analysis of French society as it existed immediately before the Revolution. When we quoted Montesquieu last summer as an authority upon the meaning of the phrase "republican form of government," as it was used by jurists and philosophers in the last century, and inserted in our Constitution, some sage writer in the Boston *Transcript* pooh-poohed him with the most amusing ignorance as a "Frenchman," and raved a good deal over our impiety in quoting him. If that luminous expounder of the Constitution still keeps his piercing eye on The Nation, let us recommend him to peruse faithfully M. Martin's chapter on the great French jurist and his influence. He will there find out what place Montesquieu occupied in the eyes of his contemporaries both in Europe and America, and why he occupied it, and why it is that there is no better authority than he for the sense in which every term of political science was used from the appearance of the *Esprit des Lois* until the close of the century.

* "History of France from the most Remote Period to 1789. By Henri Martin. Vols. XV. and XVI. *The Decline of the French Monarchy.* Translated from the fourth Paris edition by Mary L. Booth. Boston: Walker, Fuller & Co. 1866.

A NEST OF SINGING BIRDS.

At this inclement season, when all the influences of nature are averse to song, when the robins and larks and blue-birds have gone away to beguile the tedious moments of reconstruction to our Southern brethren, and when musical gentlemen and ladies plead sore-throats in all companies, we find our book-table vocal with poets, breaking into loud notes of treble and bass

It is a concert without which we could be happy, at moments; but, on the whole, we are not disposed to complain. The human organism becomes habituated to great degrees of suffering, and a new poet causes us comparatively little uneasiness. We take him up, and let him go through one or two of the little things he has arranged from Tennyson or Browning, and put him as softly down as we can. We trust we are not often harsh or unfriendly in our touch, for we aim always to be patient. If sometimes a frail wing is broken, or delicate plumage ruffled, we think it is the hard truth that is at fault, and we are sorry that there should be any truth in a world that poets live in.

Let us, however, putting sensibility aside, turn to our task, and attend to the singers accumulated since our last publication.

"Maromin"* is the name of a tale in verse, and of the lovely Indian maid who marries one of its army of heroes. The story is descriptive of pioneer life in Minnesota, of scenes in the rebellion, and in the massacre of the Minnesota settlers by the Sioux. We have read so far into the history of all this as to be in at the death of the wicked enemy whose wiles drove Richard Thornton away from Syracuse, in this State, to the far West, who pursued him thither, and who fell before the rifle of Uncle Darling, afterwards bushwhacked and slain in Kansas. We have also (having a perennial interest to know what becomes of people in romances) glanced at the close of the book, and learned that

"There comes a sound of marriage bells"

after much tumult of battle; but what are the incidents of the poem, we leave the reader to enquire for himself. The author will scarcely believe that we have for the most part found him very commonplace; but he will perhaps be persuaded that we think him by no means destitute of poetic feeling, that we like his boldness in seeking to poetize a theme of everyday life, and that we sincerely lament the want of culture which is partly to blame for his failure. He tells us in his preface that he is the commercial editor of one of the St. Louis journals, and he frankly confesses defects which are obvious enough. We willingly believe that he has of himself hit upon some æsthetic truths exemplified in the poetry of Wordsworth and Patmore, but we cannot help wishing he had sought in literature other sources of inspiration than the newspapers and "Harper's Magazine," and that he had tried to shape his utterance rather less according to the "progressive, individualizing ideas" of the West; for, after all, the use of the English tongue is something that all sections have in common.

"The late Park Benjamin," says a note in "Grondalla,"†—"the late Park Benjamin, whose literary taste and ability as a critic are well known," had the temerity to advise the publication of "Grondalla," having read it in manuscript, and found it "as interesting in narrative as Tennyson's late poems." The candor of this judgment we shall not impugn; but of its worth, and of the quality of "Grondalla," let the reader judge from the vivid interest of a passage taken at random from the book:

"During the time the words above were said,
Were two young ladies wandering alone.
'O Edith,' Clara said, 'one thing is sure,
That Ella loves young Dorset; 'tis for him
My brother is deserted; marked you not
How gentle were her words whene'er to him
They were addressed,—how very sweet her smile?
Far more so than such friendship would require.
All, all is manifest; I see it now;
She has been faithless to her early love
For a new suitor, who can never be
What Julian is and would have been to her.'

"'Stay, stay, dear Clara,' Edith did reply,
'Be not so hasty: recollect, my friend,
That Ella ne'er had seen young Dorset when
Thy brother's oft repeated letters came.
Thou hast forgotten; many months went by
Ere Dorset at Grondalla did arrive.'

"'Ah, so it was,' said Clara; 'viewing him
As but a near connexion, I did not
With care regard the circumstance, although
I recollect his interest at the dance;
Yet that, may be, was natural. But e'en so,
She surely loves him *now*; thou must, I think,
Have noticed what will lead thee to arrive
At that conclusion.'"

We do not, ourselves, find this cast of thing so interesting as Tennyson's late poems, and upon the whole we should prefer the quiet fable of the laureate's romances to the thrilling narrative of "Grondalla;" and if you come to poetic feeling and art, we think that he has again the advantage.

Mr. Robert Leighton‡ gives us "Musings" and "Sonnets," but no poems, so far as we have been able to learn, though his work has every external appearance of poetry. He is evidently a man of cultivation and good taste, and we have reason to think that he does not differ from some millions of other cultivated and refined people, but that he is "fed with the same food, hurt with the same weapons, subject to the same diseases, healed by the same means, warmed and cooled by the same winter and summer," as they; he apparently bleeds like them, being pricked, and laughs like them, being tickled. There is nothing to prove him born in Arcadia or created with a vocation to song. We suspect, however, that his verse is the worst thing about him; but this is terrible, being always diluted and respectable to the verge of Tupper and the "Country Parson," as the reader need not go further than the first page of the book to learn:

"The records of a life should be a poem;
We need not go abroad for stones to build
Our monumental glory; every soul
Has in it the material for its temple.
The universal beauty is our own;
We steep our thoughts in sunsets, and we hang
Our adoration on the morning star,
And yet from us they get that alchemy
Whereby they strangely move us. Nought is ours
But that which has gone from us. Therefore 'tis
That disappointments often tread upon
The toes of expectation. Things without
Are bare until we clothe them. Let us seek
Each one our gods in our immediate heaven:
There is no breathing for us in another;
But either is the air too coarse and weighs
Like nightmare on our thoughts, or 'tis too fine,
And, like the atmosphere of mountain tops,
Usurps the brain, and finds insidious way
Into its chambers, pressing out the soul,
Till death o'ercome us in the guise of sleep."

The badness of heart laid to the charge of him

"Who first wrote satire with no pity in it,"

cannot be justly attributed to the author of "The Omnibus,"* a poem in which the follies and vices of London town are touched with as little severity as we have ever known follies and vices to meet. The satirist mounts outside a London omnibus, and rides through the thronged thoroughfares, viewing the motley life of the capital, and noting boot-blacks, match-boys, and policemen, and chiefly the feeble sculptures exposed in Trafalgar Square; and then, descending from his perch, he listens to prominent preachers, and comments upon their opinions and ideas. The greater part of the satire is devoted to this discussion, and we learn with satisfaction that the author's feelings are in favor of liberal and progressive Christianity. In fact, we like his views much better than his wit, which we do not find very pungent, even when printed in italics, and pointed with marks of admiration. Occasionally, moreover, the heroic verse is not well managed, and the poem lacks finish as well as vigor.

Social Life of the Chinese. With some Account of their Religious, Governmental, Educational, and Business Customs and Opinions. With special but not exclusive reference to Fuhchau. By Rev. Justus Doolittle. Two vols. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—It cannot be said of this work as of a recent French publication (*Etudes sur la Chine contemporaine*, by M. Maurice Irisson), that it is "the most philosophical and most rigorously analytical work of which the Middle Kingdom has hitherto been the subject or the pretext;" nor of Mr. Doolittle's chapters as of these ten studies, that they are "linked in the strictest sequence (*enchaînées par un ordre sévère*)." In the first place, our American author, lacking the facilities of the secretary and interpreter of Gen. de Montauban, had a narrower field of observation, and honestly refrained from generalizations beyond his experience. Next, he preferred the *rôle* of narrator to that of philosopher, and was especially concerned to portray the "social and religious practices and sentiments of the Chinese," with which fourteen years of missionary life at Fuhchau had made him familiar. And, lastly, the contents of these two volumes first saw the day in the columns of a Hong Kong newspaper. The fact that in their original form they were so highly approved by English and American residents in China as to cause them to solicit the writer to collect and republish them, is Mr. Doolittle's best excuse for having done so without the leisure to re-write, re-arrange, and condense them. A tolerable literary man-of-all-work, however, could easily have accomplished this job, and might with advantage have been employed. While repetition and a want of order and conciseness thus fatigue the reader, and rob him of the full measure of his enjoyment, he will readily admit that he has made a considerable addition to his previous stock of information. Somewhat laboriously, indeed, he will have arrived at a pretty clear conception of that society in which filial piety seems almost the only virtue, and female infanticide the most prevalent vice not connected with popular superstitions; while the commonly peaceful and inoffensive Chinaman, if scratched (like your Russian, whose skin covers a Tartar, or your quondam Southern chevalier, a Legree below the cuticle), reveals the cruel and revolting barbarian. Mr. Doolittle's office is to preach, but he was wise enough to see that the moral of his narrative needed no lengthy pointing from him. He sets forth plainly the obstacles to the progress of Christian civilization, but we cannot wholly agree with his method of overcoming them. He protests, as every one must, against the opium traffic, seeing how infamous it was in its conception and how disastrous it is in its effects on the habits and character of the Chinese—how hostile, in short, to any effort for social reform and religious and political enlightenment. But

* "Maromin: A Rhythmical Romance of Minnesota, the Great Rebellion, and the Minnesota Massacre. By Myron Coloney." St. Louis: Published by the Author. 1866.

† "Grondalla. A Romance in Verse. By Idamore." New York: Sheldon & Co. 1866.

‡ "Poems by Robert Leighton." Liverpool: Edward Howell. 1866.

* "The Omnibus. A Satire." Trübner & Co., London.

when he asks (ii., 361): "Ought not Protestant Western Christians to be willing to spend as much money annually in the missionary work in China as is annually made by Protestant Western merchants in China from traffic in opium?" we are not ready with our affirmative. "A few hundred individuals," he adds (p. 362), "actuated by the love of Money, are annually doing very much more to demoralize and destroy the Chinese than all the millions of Christians in Christendom, constrained by the love of Jesus, are doing to benefit and save them." It seems to us that these unprincipled devotees of Mammon are, then, the first objects of missionary labor, and, after them, the governments of Great Britain and the United States, which protect their citizens in importing opium into China. The present competition between trade and the Bible is manifestly (if Mr. Doolittle's statement be true) unequal and, for the latter, almost hopeless.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Works of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. Revised Edition. Vol. IV. Little, Brown & Co., Boston.

A Noble Life. By the author of "John Halifax, Gentleman." Harper & Bros., New York.

Simplicity and Fascination. By Anne Beale. Second Edition. Loring, Boston. (O. S. Felt, New York.)

A Youth's History of the Rebellion. Fort Pillow to the End. By William M. Thayer. Walker, Fuller & Co., Boston. (A. D. F. Randolph, New York.)

Esperance. By Meta Lander. Sheldon & Co., New York.

The Lost Bride; or, The Astrologer's Prophecy Fulfilled. By T. S. Arthur. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

Mosaics of Human Life. By Elizabeth A. Thurston.—Jehovah Jireh: A Treatise on Providence. By William S. Plumer, D.D., LL.D.—Poems. By Annie E. Clark. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia. (Sheldon & Co.; James Miller, New York.)

The Shadow of Christianity; or, The Genesis of the Christian State. By the author of the "Apocatastasis." Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.

Military Measures of the United States Congress. 1861—1865. By Henry Wilson, Chairman of the Committee on Military Affairs. D. Van Nostrand, New York.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

Motions in plants have been long recognized, some of them by all who have taken the trouble to use their unaided eyes, and others only by such as have had recourse to the microscope. Among the latter movements are those of the spores or seeds of some of the lowest members of the vegetable kingdom, produced by means of slender, vibrating filaments—movements by which such spores are driven through the water, just as are many of the infusorial animals, for which even Ehrenberg mistook some of them. Among the motions visible to the naked eye are the infinitely various movements seen in the slow opening and closing of the petals of most flowers, or the quicker motions of the stamens of the bearberry, of the leaves of Venus's flytrap, or of the sensitive plant, which follow so readily the touch of an insect or of the point of a pin; and, finally, the truly wonderful motions of the *hedysarum*, an East India plant, the leaflets of which, sometimes slowly and sometimes quickly, according to their condition and exposure to light and heat, revolve in ellipses occasionally, as observed by De Candolle, as often as once in a second. One can hardly look at such a plant without the feeling that its activity is closely akin to that of a voluntary movement.

The motions of the tendrils of some of the vines was noticed by Dutrochet, Mohl, and other botanists, and have recently been studied by Professor Gray. Mr. Darwin, who justly ranks among the best and most trustworthy of living observers, was induced by the observations of this last-mentioned naturalist to make a series of experiments of his own, which have led to very remarkable results, not only in regard to tendrils, but to climbing plants in general, showing that they are endowed with properties strikingly analogous to, if not of the same kind as, certain qualities of animals.

First of all, it may be premised that climbing is effected by a real motion in the plant and not by a continued growing around a support, as commonly believed, and that these motions may have their seat either in the stem, the leaves, or the tendrils. Only a few examples of them can be given here, but for full details the reader is referred to Mr. Darwin's admirable memoir (Nos. 33 and 34, Vol. IX., o the Journal of the Linnæan Society; Section, Botany).

As an example of a stem-climber the common hop may be taken. When a young vine rises from the ground, or a new shoot pushes from a cut stem, the first three joints are straight and stationary; but the fourth, after attaining a certain size, begins to bend to one side, and then turns in succession to all points of the compass, moving with the sun, and describing a complete circle. The first motions are slow, but soon acquire greater speed, when an average revolution is completed in two hours and eight minutes. These motions are kept up for about five days, when the joint in which they began straightens up and becomes rigid. In the meantime other joints have been developed, and have in turn taken up the motion; and as long as the plant grows this process is repeated. Mr. Darwin has recorded his observations on more than forty species of stem-climbing plants, in which there is much variety, some moving slower and others quicker than the hop. A species of *phaseolus*, for example, finished its revolutions in one hour and seventeen minutes, while other species belonging to other genera required eight, ten, or even sixteen hours.

The most remarkable instance given of the distance traversed by a revolving stem was in a *cereopegia*. This was allowed to grow out free thirty-one inches from its support. Even after it had attained this length it continued to revolve at rates between five hours fifteen minutes and six hours forty-five minutes for each revolution. The tip thus described a circle more than five feet in diameter, or about sixteen feet in circumference. Assuming that the circuit was completed in six hours, it moved at the rate of about thirty-two inches per hour.

The end gained by these motions is as follows: The plant needs support; if it simply grew upwards it would soon bend by its own weight, and *might* fall upon what it needed, though the chances would be against its so doing; but by its revolutions it feels about, as it were, and thus secures the benefit of any support within a circle of which itself is the radius. While, however, its support may thus be secured, its motion onward is arrested; but the tendency to bend continues, and thus it is coiled around whatever it touches, somewhat as a rope swung in a circle coils about anything it strikes; only the plant coils through a property of the stem itself, and not by a momentum imparted to it from without, as in the rope.

The leaf-climbers, of which the different species of *clematis* are examples, not only have in some cases revolving stems, but, in addition, the leaf-stalk is irritable and moves when touched. Mr. Darwin found in one case that the pressure of a loop of thread weighing only the sixteenth of a grain was sufficient to excite it to activity. If the leaves come in contact with a support they immediately begin to bend so as to grasp it, and once they get hold, the leaf-stalk becomes rigid and thenceforth immovable. Thus we have here not only a revolving stem to increase the chances of contact, but pairs of leaves like outstretched arms, ready to seize upon anything which will serve to support the weight of the vine.

The tendril-climbers are the best known of all, since instances are to be found in many of our cultivated vines, as the pea, the grape, the Virginia creeper, etc. For the most part tendrils revolve in circles, ellipses, or spirals, always in search of a support; they have a high degree of irritability, contracting upon anything with which they come in contact, and always bending toward the touched side. All are familiar with the manner in which a tendril secures its hold by coiling its tip around whatever it touches. The motion, however, does not stop here, for it still continues to contract and is twisted into a close spiral which answers a double purpose, viz., to protect the vine by its spring against the effect of violent motions, and by its shortening to lift the vine, just as a man, in climbing, is raised by the bending of his arms.

In *bignonia speciosa*, Mr. Darwin observed a very remarkable movement, which, he rightly says, would be compared with the instinctive motions if it occurred in an animal. The tendrils of this plant continually feel about, as it were, in search of any dark hole into which they can thrust their tips. Into such holes they are sure to insert their tendrils, sometimes after having moved over a large surface. For this purpose the terminal portion, a half or a quarter of an inch in length, is bent at right angles on the barrel part very much as a man would crook his finger for a similar object. Sometimes he has seen a tendril withdraw from a hole it had occupied several hours, and seek and find a new one. While it appears from Mr. Darwin's observations that the light of the sun has some influence over the movements of plants, such as are noticed above, this influence is by no means so uniform as generally supposed, and certainly is not the immediate cause of them. Of about forty species of stem-climbers, more than two-thirds moved from left to right, or against the sun, while nearly all the others revolved in the opposite direction. One plant moved against the sun, while another of the same species moved with it. A species of *hibbertia*, on May 18, followed the sun, on the 19th and 20th moved against it, and on the 26th followed it for two-thirds of a circle, and then returned to its standing-point. In some cases the light seemed to retard, and in others to hasten, the movements. A *convolvulus* required fourteen minutes more to complete the half of its circle of revolution which was towards the light than that which was from it, while in an *ipomæa* the half of the revolution from the light required four hours and a half, and that towards it only an hour.

The tendrils of *bignonia capreolata* seem to have an aversion to light,

for if a dark surface was placed near them they turned to it, and when a plant, having three pairs of tendrils pointing in different directions, was placed in a box open only on one side, and that turned obliquely to the light, the tendrils all bent towards the darkest corner of the box. Mr. Darwin says: "Six tattered flags could not have pointed more truly from the wind than did these branched tendrils from the stream of light which entered the box."

—Much interest has been felt by chemists and meteorologists in the discussion of the many questions concerning the presence and functions of ozone in the atmosphere. Unfortunately, chemists are not all agreed about the trustworthiness of the tests which are used to determine the presence of ozone in the air. In spite of this uncertainty, however, systematic ozonometric observations are being rapidly multiplied. M. Le Verrier lately announced to the French Academy that the Minister of Public Instruction had authorized him to cause ozonometric observations to be made by all the meteorological commissioners of the department of France. Ozone is known to be destroyed by decomposing organic matters, and a large part of the interest which attaches to it is derived from its apparent antagonism to malaria and those insidious products of organic decomposition which are supposed to have something to do with epidemic diseases. Dr. Richardson, of London, has drawn up a list of "the most reliable facts known up to this time respecting ozone," which is interesting as presenting a physiologist's view of the matter, though many persons would demur at some of his statements. We make a brief abstract of his views, as follows:

Ozone is always present in minute proportions, say about one part in ten thousand, in natural air. It is destroyed in large towns, and with special rapidity in crowded, close, and filthy localities. When diffused through air in greater proportion than is natural, though still in minute quantity, it produces on inhalation distinct symptoms of acute catarrh—common cold. When animals are subjected to ozone in large quantities, at a temperature of 75°, the symptoms produced are those of inflammation of the throat and mucous membranes generally, and at last congestive bronchitis, which in carnivorous animals is often rapidly fatal. When animals are subjected for a long period to ozone in small proportions, the agent acts very differently on different animals. The carnivorous die after some hours, from disorganization of the blood; but the herbivora will live for weeks, and will suffer from no acute disease.

The question whether the presence of an unusual quantity of ozone in the air can produce actual disease, must be answered cautiously. Science has as yet no actual demonstrative evidence on the point. But the facts approach to demonstration that common cold—catarrh—is induced by this agent. All else is as yet speculative.

During periods of intense heat of weather, the ozone loses its active power. On dead organic matter undergoing putrefaction ozone acts rapidly; it entirely deodorizes it, and, at the same time, hastens the organic destruction.

There is an opposite condition of air in which the oxygen is rendered negative in its action, as compared with the air when it is charged with ozone. Air can be rendered thus negative by merely subjecting it, over and over again, to the respiration of animals. The purification of such air from carbonic acid and other tangible impurities, does not render it capable of supporting healthy life, but ozone restores the power. In this negative condition of air, the putrefaction of organic matter is greatly modified, and the offensive products are more abundant than is usual. Wounds become unhealthy and heal slowly in such negative air. There is no demonstrative evidence, as yet, that any diseases are actually caused by this negative condition of air, but the inference is fair that diseases which show a putrefactive tendency are influenced injuriously by a negative condition of the oxygen of the air. It is also probable that during this state decomposing, organic poisonous matters become more injurious. As ozone is used up in crowded localities, and as it is essential that this substance should be constantly supplied in order to effect the removal of decomposing substances and their products, Dr. Richardson urges that no mere attention to ventilation, or to other mechanical measures of a sanitary kind, can be fully effective unless the air introduced be made active by ozone. In his opinion, fever hospitals and other large buildings in towns should be artificially fed with ozonized air.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, February 10, 1866.

THE feature of the week has been a decline in foreign exchange. Bankers' sterling bills have fallen to 107¼ and 107½. They have not been as low as this since the dead-lock of 1861, when the approach of the war rendered exchange unsalable, and gold was imported from England. The par exchange between the United States and England is about 109⅜ for sterling bills. At 110 gold can be shipped without loss, but with small prospect of profit, except in the case of firms which pay no commissions and but little insurance. To import gold profitably from Great Britain, bankers calculate that they must buy bills here at 106 to 106¼. At this figure, allowing for loss of interest, commissions, and insurance, sovereigns may be imported. Twice within the past few years exchange has fallen to and below 106, and

on each occasion gold has been imported from Europe. But it has generally been re-exported "in the original package." Its mere appearance has had the effect of stiffening the exchange market to such an extent that it has been itself the best of all remittances. In the event of a continued decline in exchange, it remains to be seen whether the same result will follow now, or whether our enormous cotton supply will not make some difference. One thing is certain. When London hears of the decline in exchange, the alarm of January will be considerably increased. It will hardly then be claimed, even by the most besotted British prints, that the trouble arises from undue extension of credit to the United States. Our English friends will then realize the plain fact that the exchanges of the world are gradually tending in favor of the United States; that capital is flowing hither from Europe; and that henceforth New York is going to compete with London for the supremacy of the financial world. The practical results will be obvious. In view of the actual heavy drain of coin from England to India and of the probable drain from England to the United States, the Bank of England will probably advance the rate of interest—possibly as high as 10 to 12 per cent.—and all the loose parcels of 5-20s, Erie, etc., to be found in the London market will come here for sale. It is somewhat doubtful whether the latter will aggregate many millions. No *bona fide* holder of either 5-20s or Erie will sell his property for the sake of easing the London money market. The stronger our financial position becomes, the more firmly will Europeans hold their American investments. Such lots of bonds and stocks as may be held in bankers' or brokers' hands on speculation in London will, of course, be exported to this country; but they are not likely to amount to much. On the other hand, an advance in the Bank rate to 10 or 12 per cent. would prove efficacious if it succeeded forthwith in restoring the exchanges to the side of Great Britain. But if, by chance, the people of England continued to want of us more cotton and more 5-20s than they sent us dry goods and general merchandise, then the advance in the Bank rate would merely embarrass British trade and industry without altering the relative positions of the two countries in the commerce of the world, and would naturally, if prolonged for any length of time, drive to this country a considerable amount of British capital and labor.

Gold has fluctuated between 139 and 140¾, closing at 139 this evening. It has been maintained at this premium exclusively by the policy of the Secretary of the Treasury, who has now over $55,000,000 of gold in his vaults, absolutely dead to commerce. Gold has been worth from ¼ to ⅜ per cent. a day throughout the week, notwithstanding Government sales of $1,500,000 or thereabouts, yesterday and to-day.

Money has been easy throughout the week, the general rate for call loans being 6 per cent. Early in the week thirteen millions of greenbacks were sent from the Sub-Treasury in this city to the head office in Washington. Nothing has transpired with regard to the cause of this transfer. But as no heavy payments on any account are made at Washington, the theory has been started that these thirteen millions are to be cancelled at the Treasury Department, as a commencement of the policy of contraction. No progress has been made with the financial bill in Congress. It was to have been reported on the 8th, but did not make its appearance, owing, it is said, to radical differences of opinion among the members of the Ways and Means Committee.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	Feb. 3	Feb. 10.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	103¾	104⅝	⅝	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103	102⅝	....	⅜
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	102⅝	⅝	....
10-40 Bonds	94⅛	94⅜	⅜	....
7.30 Notes, second series	99⅛	99⅛	....	....
New York Central	87¾ ex d.	88⅛	⅜	....
Erie Railway	77	78	1	....
Hudson River	99¾	100	¼	....
Reading Railroad	99¼	100	¾	....
Michigan Southern	68¼	69	¾	....
Cleveland and Pittsburg	82	79¾	....	2¼
Chicago and North-western	27⅛	27¾	⅛	....
" " " Preferred	54¼	54⅝	¼	....
Chicago and Rock Island	99⅛	101¾	2¼	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	92¼	92	....	¼
Canton	43⅜	43⅛	....	....
Cumberland	44¼	44⅛	....	⅛
Mariposa	10⅜	12⅛	1⅝	....
American Gold	140	139	....	1
Bankers' Bills on London	108⅛	107¾	⅞	....
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

The stock market continues feverish and unsettled, but the course of prices during the week has been generally upward. A natural reaction has followed the universal decline of January. It is reported that some of the leading roads will show some improvement in their February traffic, and though public opinion in regard to the course of prices has undergone no change, the disposition to sell for the decline is temporarily checked. On the one hand, the failure of Congress to act upon the financial bill on the 8th inst., as announced, has led to surmises that contraction may not, after all, prove the policy of the day; and on the other, the excessive sales of the bears have tempted many speculators to embark in the fatal but seductive enterprise of a "corner." Michigan Southern has been manipulated by a clique, which at one time put up the price to 70¼. The earnings for February are said to promise rather better than those for January. But no dividend on the stock need be expected this year. Cleveland and Pittsburg has fallen. The clique in this concern now owns all or nearly all the floating shares, and their policy has been such that there is little or no short interest in the stock. On the one hand the bears are afraid to sell, and no one, in or out of Wall Street, is willing to buy. When the clique undertakes to "unload," a decline of 15 to 20 per cent. will be inevitable. New York Central has improved, on purchases for account of a party in connection with which Commodore Vanderbilt's name has been used. There is this to be said in favor of New York Central. It is a safe stock, which has always paid dividends to its stockholders, and, notwithstanding its recent decline in net earnings, an impression prevails that a stoppage of the leaks which existed under the Corning régime might result in a considerable increase in its income. Erie is somewhat higher. At one time during the week it sold as high as 79¼. The advance was mainly due to over-sales by the bears, which created an artificial scarcity of the stock on the 8th. It is pretty well understood that the clique have quite a large quantity of stock unsold, and that any advance will bring it out. Small lots of Erie are arriving per each steamer from England, and the export has for the moment been checked. The earnings of the road continue large, and were there any reason for expecting a decline in the expenses, the future prospect of dividends might be looked for hopefully. An active contest is going on in the stock of the Philadelphia and Reading Road. At one time during the week it sold down to 97. This figure brought the Philadelphians to the rescue, and their purchases, assisted by speculative operations based on the excessive short sales of the bears, carried up the price to 101. In Philadelphia the prospects of the road are considered very bright; and, indeed, there are but few roads in the country which can show $11,000,000 of gross earnings on a capital (including debt) of $28,000,000. Whether these earnings would continue in the event of a decline in the price of coal to the old average, is a problem. The Reading Road, however, is well managed. No money is thrown away. Every department is narrowly scrutinized; and the company may now, in fact, be said to control the anthracite coal trade of this country. This has not prevented one of the shrewdest operators of the Street from selling several thousand shares short on long options. Rock Island has improved, and has been taken in large amounts by a leading house. No reasonable doubt of the April dividend can be entertained, but it will be strange if, with the Mississippi open, the summer earnings should keep up to the average of the past year or two. We note a further advance in the stock of the Chicago and Alton, which is now quoted at 118 to 120. No securities are more popular with investors than really sound dividend-paying railway stocks.

An active movement in Pacific Mail is expected to result from the announcement of the opposition line to California, organized by Mr. William H. Aspinwall and his associates. The Pacific Company have sold their two idle boats—the *Baltic* and *Atlantic*—have increased their surplus to over a million dollars in cash, and are prepared, it is understood, to fight the newcomer from the start. On the other hand, Mr. Aspinwall and his associates are not men to be frightened off. There is thus a prospect that the rate of fare to San Francisco will be very much reduced this summer, and that the comforts of travellers on the route will be more carefully watched over than has been heretofore the case. A fall in Pacific Mail, which has been lately selling at 185 to 190, as against 300 a year ago, would likewise seem a probable incident of the fight.

Thirty-first Dividend

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET,

JANUARY 10, 1866.

The Directors have This Day declared a Semi-Annual Dividend of

SIX PER CENT.,

FREE OF U. S. TAX

(Reserving all unexpired premiums), payable on and after MONDAY, the 15th inst.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. J. D. STEELE, President.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

THE MERCANTILE MUTUAL
INSURANCE COMPANY.
OFFICE, 35 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Assets, January 1, 1866 . . . . . $1,366,699

ORGANIZED APRIL, 1844.

The Company has paid to its Customers, up to the present time, Losses amounting to over

EIGHTEEN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.

For the past nine years the cash dividends paid to Stockholders, made from ONE-THIRD of the net profits, have amounted in the aggregate to

ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-ONE AND A HALF PER CENT.

Instead of issuing a scrip dividend to dealers, based on the principle that all classes of risks are equally profitable, this Company will hereafter make such cash abatement or discount from the current rates, when premiums are paid, as the general experience of underwriters will warrant, and the net profits remaining at the close of the year will be divided to the stockholders.

This Company continues to make Insurance on Marine and Inland Navigation and Transportation Risks on the most favorable terms, including Risks on Merchandise of all kinds, Hulls, and Freight.

Policies issued making loss payable in Gold or Currency, at the Office in New York, or in Sterling, at the Office of Rathbone, Bros. & Co., in Liverpool.

TRUSTEES.

Joseph Walker, James Freeland, Samuel Willetts, Robert L. Taylor, William T. Frost, William Watt, Henry Eyre, Cornelius Grinnell, E. E. Morgan, Her. A. Schleicher, Joseph Slagg, Jas. D. Fish, Geo. W. Hennings, Francis Hathaway,
Aaron L. Reid, Ellwood Walter, D. Colden Murray, E. Haydock White, N. L. McCready, Daniel T. Willetts, L. Edgerton, Henry R. Kunhardt, John S. Williams, William Nelson, Jr., Charles Dimon, A. William Heye, Harold Dolner, Paul N. Spofford.

ELLWOOD WALTER, President.
CHAS. NEWCOMB, Vice-Prest.
C. J. DESPARD, Secretary.

Where I Can Ensure,
WHAT I CAN ENSURE AGAINST,
AND
WHAT IT WILL COST ME.

I CAN ENSURE IN THE
NATIONAL LIFE AND TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,
243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,
OPPOSITE CITY HALL PARK,
Authorized Capital, - - - Half a Million,

AGAINST EVERY DESCRIPTION OF ACCIDENTS that can happen to me on Sea or Land.

I can ensure my life on the purely Mutual Plan, either by an Endowment, or a Life Policy, or a Ten-year Non-forfeiture Policy.

$25 secures a General Accident Policy for $5,000, with a Weekly Compensation of $25.

$10 secures a Marine Policy for $10,000 for a voyage to any European port, covering loss of life at sea from accident.

$167 35 per annum secures an Endowment Policy for $5,000, with profits payable at the age of 50, or at death to a person 25 years of age.

$96 90 per annum secures a Life Policy for $5,000, with profits, to a person 25 years of age. A Loan of one-third of the Premium, or Life, or Endowment Policy will be given, if required, without note.

POLICIES ISSUED AT ONCE.

NO MEDICAL EXAMINATION REQUIRED for General Accident Policies.

GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CASH CAPITAL, - - - $1,400,000 00

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom, and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-ensuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies by receiving a note for one-half when the premium amounts to over $30.

THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

$912,342 00,

and

$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

$1,400,777 16.

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the policy holders.

COMPETENT AGENTS WANTED.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.
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FIRE INSURANCE
With Participation in Profits.

NORTH AMERICAN FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
OFFICE, 114 BROADWAY.
BRANCH OFFICE,
10 COOPER INSTITUTE, THIRD AVENUE.

INCORPORATED 1823.

CASH CAPITAL $500,000 00
SURPLUS 251,653 11

Cash Capital and Surplus, Jan. 1, 1866, $751,653 11.

Ensures Property against Loss or Damage by fire at usual rates, and the Assured participate in the Profits of the Business.

Policies issued and Losses paid at the Office of the Company, or at its various Agencies in the principal cities in the United States.

JAMES W. OTIS, President.
R. W. BLEECKER, Secretary.

THE
MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY
COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.
JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE
Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.
ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS		$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00	
Temporary Loans	92,630 00	
Real Estate	10,000 00	
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00	
Government Sec., value	144,514 00	
Cash on hand	18,042 34	
Interest due	3,085 58	
Premiums due	6,785 26	
PRESENT LIABILITIES		$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS		198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

ASHER TAYLOR, President.

H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.

PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865,	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

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Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

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A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, of body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

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Celebrated Gold Medal

GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

SCHOOL FURNITURE!

Lecture-Room and Sabbath-School Settees

IN EVERY STYLE,

MANUFACTURED BY

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24 GROVE STREET, NEW YORK.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.

THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

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GROVER & BAKER'S

SEWING MACHINES

WERE AWARDED THE HIGHEST PREMIUMS

At the State Fairs of

New York,	Illinois,	Virginia,
New Jersey,	Michigan,	N. Carolina,
Vermont,	Wisconsin,	Tennessee,
Pennsylvania,	Iowa,	Alabama,
Ohio,	Kentucky,	Oregon,
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And at numerous Institute and County Fairs, including all the Fairs at which they were exhibited the past three years.

The GROVER & BAKER ELASTIC-STITCH SEWING MACHINE is superior to all others, for the following reasons:

1. The seam is stronger and more elastic than any other.
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THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING TENSION. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. FOUR distinct Stitches.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

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Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale by all Dealers.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

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WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

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PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars

They are more fire-proof.

They are more burglar-proof.

They are perfectly dry.

They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.

Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PYLE'S SALERATUS. | PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
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Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

The Horace Waters

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We also WARRANT IT THE BEST and most durable Wringer made. Over 200,000 have been sold, and each family can testify to its superior merits.

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Money can be made rapidly selling them in every town.

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347 Broadway, New York.

Pacific Mail Steamship Company's

THROUGH LINE

TO CALIFORNIA,

TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,

AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street, at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, *via* Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

	FIRST CABIN,	SECOND CABIN,	STEERAGE,
ON STEAMERS....	$325.	$225.	$100.

Panama Railroad ticket invariably $25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, *via* HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

F. W. J. BELLOWS, AGENT.

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STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

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BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX.
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

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RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.

(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

Wareroom, 135 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

DECKER & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,

419 BROOME STREET,

One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

Bradbury's Pianos "the Best."

Pronounced "THE BEST" by the most renowned artists. SUPERIOR in tone, touch, power, DURABILITY, and elegance of finish." Warerooms 425 and 427 Broome Street, corner of Crosby. Call or send for circular.

WM. B. BRADBURY.

Light Biscuit made in fifteen minutes with T. B. BABBITT'S STAR YEAST POWDERS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y.

UNITED STATES STEEL PEN WORKS,

FACTORY, CAMDEN, N. J.

R. ESTERBROOK & CO.,

STEEL PEN MANUFACTURERS,

WAREHOUSES, { 403 ARCH STREET, Philadelphia. / 42 JOHN STREET, New York.

Samples and prices on application. Lots made to order of any pattern or stamp required.

CAUTION.

These Pens are of genuine American manufacture, and equal in finish, elasticity, and fineness of point to the best imported. They are, therefore, sure to gain the confidence of the American public. The fac-simile of our signature is sufficient security against foreign imitation.

R. ESTERBROOK & CO.

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S STEEL PENS.

OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Warranted.

or Descriptive Name, and Designating Number.
New Series, Good and Cheap, from No. 700 to No. 761.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Birmingham. With Designating Numbers.

For sale by

JOSEPH GILLOTT & SONS,
91 John Street, New York.

HENRY OWEN, Sole Agent.

STEINWAY & SONS'

GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT PIANO-FORTES

Have taken Thirty-two First Premiums, Gold and Silver Medals, at the Principal Fairs held in this country within the last ten years, and in addition thereto they were awarded a First Prize Medal at the Great International Exhibition in London, 1862, in competition with 269 Pianos from all parts of the World.

That the great superiority of these instruments is now universally conceded is abundantly proven by the FACT that Messrs. Steinways' "scales, improvements, and peculiarities of construction" have been copied by the great majority of the manufacturers of both hemispheres (AS CLOSELY AS COULD BE DONE WITHOUT INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT RIGHTS) and that their instruments are used by the most eminent pianists of Europe and America, who prefer them for their own public and private use, whenever accessible.

STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their

PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT,

which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that ALL their patrons may reap its benefits.

STEINWAY & SONS' PIANOS are the only American instruments exported to Europe in large numbers, and used in European concert-rooms.

WAREROOMS, 71 & 73 EAST FOURTEENTH ST., between Union Square and Irving Place, New York.

The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 34. THURSDAY, FEBRUARY 22, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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The Week.

MR. POLLARD has managed to procure from the President permission to resume publication of the Richmond *Examiner*, on promise of exceedingly good behavior. General Grant has, however, issued a general order directing the various commanding officers to keep their eyes on the Southern press, with the view of punishing such newspapers as are guilty of continued attempts to excite hatred of the Government and sow ill-will between North and South. This may, at the present juncture, seem a necessary precaution, but we doubt very much whether the muzzling of the press will do much towards putting the South in a good humor. The theory of despotic governments is that, by carefully preventing all public expression of disloyal feeling, the feeling itself will be at last extinguished, but the plan has never succeeded, though it has been tried in a dozen countries ever since the invention of printing. Nor will it succeed in the South. The only antidote that we know of for the raving of Southern zealots, is the maintenance of free speech by the strong hand in every part of the country. Let Southern editors say what they please, but give those who differ with them a chance of making themselves heard, also, with safety, if not with comfort. Mr. Pollard writes as he does, and his readers feel as they do, solely because for years before the rebellion no man dared to gainsay any of the teachings by which the country was at last plunged into civil war. Can the Reconstruction Committee and Congress not see that this must be the basis of all plans for the social or political regeneration of the South?

THE reports of the proceedings of Congress sound oddly occasionally as given in the daily press. Mr. Lawrence, of Ohio, for instance, is described as having introduced a bill "to provide punishment for throwing cars from railroad tracks," from which one might conclude that this was a species of amusement which was being carried a little too far, and which the law had to interfere to restrain. We believe, however, that it is in all the States a crime for individuals, and that impunity attends its commission only when corporations indulge in it. If Mr. Lawrence could provide for the appointment of inspectors of railroad tracks, who would be sure to do their duty, and care more for the public than for the companies, he might safely leave the punishment of throwing trains off the line to State laws.

WE recommend to the Citizen's Association the plan adopted by our Irish fellow-citizens who desire clean streets for their procession on St. Patrick's Day. They have sent in advance to the Mayor an exact description of the route they will take, with the request that he will see to clearing it of all unnecessary filth. No reply could have been more prompt or gracious than his Honor's, as no precaution could have been more thoughtful than this, which was taken a month in advance of the time. Now if Messrs. Hecker, Cooper, and Stewart will only give their employees a holiday, say on the 18th of March, on condition that they shall parade through the streets which our Irish benefactors avoid, and warn the Mayor betimes, we may get the whole city tolerably cleaned, and so far prepare it for the coming of the cholera.

GEN. LEE has made his appearance in Washington, for the first time since he deserted the United States army, and has given evidence before the sub-committee touching the state of Virginia. His reflections during his visit to the city must have been painful, and his expression of a wish that the Government "may endure for all time," was, if sincere, considering how he has spent the last four years, an act of humiliation that might satisfy a Dominican confessor. His account of the state of feeling in Virginia adds nothing to what we know already.

JOHN MITCHEL writes from Paris to congratulate Mr. O'Mahony on "having got rid of the title of president, and of the constitution, and of the senate." We trust that this magnificent contempt for the law and the authorities will not animate the "executive" after they get installed in Dublin. We recommend the Irish people to exact the most stringent guarantees from both Mitchel and O'Mahony before they let them drive the English out of the island. Mitchel is a desperate man, and if he were once allowed full discretion in dealing with the English, there is no knowing how he might behave to the republic afterwards. The agent of the Fenian finance department reports the investment of fifty dollars by an "intelligent darkey" in the bonds of the republic. The "darkey" in question must not only be "intelligent," but of a highly speculative turn, and a person of considerable means.

THE New York *Times's* correspondent sends that paper an account of the state of society in Texas which is so horrible as to be almost amusing. He calculates that out of 14,000 inhabitants of Galveston, 2,000 are "murderers, vagabonds, and thieves." Murders and murderous assaults are the order both of the day and night, and the inhabitants begin to talk of a vigilance committee. The Germans through the State feel very bitterly over the treatment experienced by them during the war. Large numbers—larger than we have any idea of here—were murdered for refusal or unwillingness to join the Confederate army.

THE iron-clads at League Island are either ice-bound or stranded, and in either event most uncomfortably situated either for preservation or for use. The gift of that mud-bank to the nation for a navy yard is one on which Philadelphians pride themselves, but it had best be looked in the mouth before it is accepted. The site could be made tenable only at great cost; it is not readily accessible at all seasons; is deficient in depth of water; exposed to floating ice; of doubtful healthfulness, and its fresh water seems to be its only recommendation. But there is no point of the comparison between it and New London in which it has any advantage, while in many it is vastly inferior, and especially in this of serving as a haven for laid-up iron-clads. The harbor on the Thames is highly sheltered, the river never freezes, and communication with the sea is always open. The experience of this winter ought to hasten the action of Congress, which is already familiar with the merits of these rival stations from the reports of various naval committees.

THE Chamber of Commerce of Charleston met last week for the first time, we believe, since the war, and Mr. George Trenholm, on moving

a set of resolutions, spoke magniloquently of the service the South had rendered the negroes during the existence of slavery. He said "it had educated them; took them barbarians, and returned them civilized and Christian to those from whom we received them." He added that the Southerners "could give no better evidence of the manner in which they had acquitted themselves of those duties than is afforded by the judgment of others as to the qualifications for citizenship of our emancipated slaves." Mr. Trenholm is evidently a little of a wag and a good deal of a sophist.

Apropos of the remarks on another page about wasting the President's time with objectless or unnecessary calls, a Washington correspondent relates that a company of ten New York Congressmen called one evening last week on Mr. Johnson "for a friendly consultation." "They came away," it is added, "without being able to draw him into conversation." The fact deserves to be recorded in that article which is now a favorite selection with country newspapers—"remarkable escapes of great men."

A person named Fleming has announced in the papers that he was the person whom Senator Wade accused of an attempt to assassinate him, but that the whole foundation of the story was that he took out a jack-knife in Mr. Wade's presence, cut off a "chew" of tobacco, and spat in the fire. After the performance of these harmless and genteel acts, finding Mr. Wade cold in his manner and absorbed in a newspaper, he wished him good evening and left the room, and he boldly insinuates that the attempt to assassinate and the kicking down stairs only took place in Mr. Wade's imagination. The public had, however, only begun to enjoy the relief caused by this explanation when the senator announced that Fleming was not the man, and thus we are again plunged in gloom and uncertainty.

The internal revenue returns for the last year have brought out the fact that the five Eastern States have contributed nearly three times as much to the national coffers as the Western. On the other hand, the West, we believe, contributed a larger proportion of fighting men during the war, but the revenue returns from some of the Western States seem suspiciously small. It is an odd thing that Illinois should pay little over one-half as much taxes as Ohio.

Mr. Timothy G. Churchill, the treasurer of the Lincoln Monument Fund, writes to us to say that the sum now on hand is $15,000, invested in United States seven-thirty bonds, and that, with a view of "securing at an early day" such additions to the fund as may be necessary to complete the monument, the committee has been enlarged by the addition of the one appointed by the Union League Club. The committee is now composed of twelve prominent citizens of New York. We do not know what the nature of the monument is to be, but we fear that there is a good deal of work still to be done in raising money if the scheme is to be worthily carried out.

One cannot help censuring the Speaker of the Tennessee House for joining in Saturday's debate without leaving his chair, and for using such unparliamentary language toward a member as "d——d old liar," "lying scoundrel," etc. But for merely "accompanying the words with his mallet, which he hurled with considerable force at the head of Mr. Mullens," who straightway drew a pistol on him, some praise may even be accorded. When two Southern men fall out and only one proves to be armed with a deadly weapon, it is a sign that the old-style civilization is giving way to something better. In the present case it were much to be wished that Mullens had retorted with his inkstand.

The sub-committee deputed by the Committee on Reconstruction to consider the case of Tennessee has reported a bill admitting that State to the Union and fixing her representatives at eight until another apportionment of the representation according to actual enumeration. The full committee, however, require the insertion of a clause in her constitution providing for the equality of her people, and the repudiation of the rebel debt. But if Tennessee has now to be declared by law a State of the Union, what has been her position during the last four years?

The long-talked-of race between the *Winooski* and *Algonquin*, or, as one might say, between Mr. Isherwood, of the Navy Department, and Mr. Dickerson, took place on the Sound on Tuesday and Wednesday of last week. We suppose it was "just her luck," but the *Algonquin* was fearfully distanced; steered wildly; broke part of her machinery, and went through her usual chapter of accidents. It is thought now that the controversy is settled, and we observe that the reporters for the press who have danced attendance on the two vessels heartily pray that it may be so. But the defeated party chose in advance to decline the issue of speed for that of economy, and we do not despair of further and very lusty wrangling.

The Fenian excitement continues in Ireland, and is, if anything, on the increase. It is, of course, fed by the organization in this country, and will probably not die out until the Brotherhood here have really tried their luck in arms on some spot of British territory. What the result of any such attempt would be, it is, of course, easy to predict. In the meantime, the agitation is doing some good by shaming even English conservatives into a calm and serious consideration of the "Irish difficulty." The *Saturday Review* has at last been driven to acknowledge that there is behind the Fenians something which the Fenians can neither belittle nor make ridiculous; that the condition of Ireland is a disgrace to Great Britain, and that all means taken to change it hitherto have been next to worthless. Some of the liberal journals acknowledge, with a half shudder, that it seems as if nothing but the transfer of the land to the tenantry, in fee, would be sufficient to solve the problem. Mr. Mill has declared that this is perhaps the only possible solution, and the effect of the spoliation of the aristocracy in France on the physical condition of the French people would seem to be a strong argument for it. But then this would be a social revolution, and what English minister dare propose it?

Mr. Peabody has increased his donation for the benefit of the London poor by £100,000, making in all a quarter of a million of pounds sterling. Whether this is in consequence of the failure of the original outlay to reach the class for which it was intended—*i. e.*, the very poor—or because Mr. Peabody is satisfied with what has been done, we cannot say. His gift, even if rightly applied, could relieve but a small proportion of those who are either homeless, or unwilling inmates of tenement-houses. The London *Times* is unspeakably astonished at his liberality, which is, indeed, without a parallel.

The *Eco del Pais* describes the appearance of Prim's insurgent army at Bodonal, on the Portuguese frontier, as that of great dejection and exhaustion. The general had not quite a thousand men with him. All were eager to reach the border, and none anxious to contest its passage with the Queen's troops. Some boys at Bodonal fully responded to the cry of the troops, "Long live General Prim; hurrah for freedom; down with the imposts!" and one citizen joined his voice to theirs. "Oh yes," said the general bitterly, "you hurrah me, but you do not follow me with your weapons in your hands, to fight for liberty and the good I would win you." A peasant working in the fields, by the road along which the insurgents passed, came out, and, taking Prim's horse by the bridle, asked him what ends he proposed to achieve. The general answered him: "Liberty; the happiness of the people; the reduction of the imposts; four years' service for the soldiers who follow me, and the suppression of the town-dues." But it appears, from his present course, that General Prim proposes to himself to do all this good thing in Portugal rather than in Spain. We cordially invite him to come here and open a regenerate kingdom in this city. He must have enough money left to pay the rent of a furnished house for two or three years and get bonds printed.

Mr. Cassius M. Clay recently visited Moscow and was given a banquet by the leading merchants of the ancient Russian capital. It came out, in the after-dinner speeches, that America and Russia had

always been great friends, and would always remain such, since they had no conflicting interests; just as at international banquets in England it appears that both people have a common ancestry and both speak the language of Shakespeare and Milton. The dinner, of course, had no political importance.

THE domiciliary treatment of the sick and infirm of the poor in Paris is growing in favor with men of science. The report, recently made, of the director of the *Assistance Publique*, declares that the larger number of recoveries takes place when invalids are allowed to remain with their families, and that the superior care of hospital attendance is counterbalanced by the encouraging influences of familiar scenes.

A CONFLICT between the Prussian Crown and Parliament has already arisen. A pestilent deputy has asked to know how Lauenburg came to be united to the crown at a time when Parliament was not in session, and in spite of the constitutional provision declaring that the King cannot become sovereign of foreign states without the consent of the Chambers. Von Bismark has made no reply whatever to this demand.

A FACT significant of a friendlier feeling than has heretofore existed between the Italian and Austrian courts is, that Francis Joseph has ordered mourning for twelve days as a token of regret for the death of the Duke of Monferrato, son of Victor Emanuel.

THE *Italie* denies that the Pope has accorded an amnesty to the political convicts in the pontifical prisons. His Holiness has not even forgiven the offenders born in the Romagna and the other territories united to Italy in 1860, who happened, at the time of the union, to be in the galleys at Civita Vecchia. The Pope is sick, but he is not yet a saint.

AN Imperial edict addressed to the Czar's lieutenant at Warsaw orders the establishment of public schools in Poland, in which the Russian and Polish languages and the histories of the two countries shall be taught indifferently.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 17, 1866.

THE debate upon the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation still continues at great length in the Senate. The vote will probably be taken upon it during the coming week. Meanwhile another important constitutional amendment has been reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, the discussion of which will be commenced in the House as soon as sundry election cases and appropriation bills are considered. This second proposed amendment lays the foundation for a direct regulation of civil rights in the States by the federal Government, but does not touch the question of suffrage. The committee is divided in opinion as to the present expediency of a radical measure extending the elective franchise to men of all races and colors, and it is not probable that such an amendment will be recommended at the present session of Congress.

It is understood that the Joint Committee agreed to report early next week in favor of a "recognition" by Congress of the loyal State government now organized in Tennessee, as asked for in a memorial presented the other day in the Senate from four of the eight representatives elect from that State. It is important to explain that this step is not, as might otherwise be supposed, in entire consonance with the President's wishes and policy, and Mr. Patterson, senator elect from Tennessee, and a son-in-law of President Johnson, declined signing the memorial to Congress. The President's theory is that Tennessee, like the other rebel States, has never been out of the Union in any sense, and that, consequently, no recognition or re-admission of it as a State is proper at the hands of Congress, whose sole duty in the premises consists in the immediate admission of its chosen senators and representatives. The memorial of Mr. Horace Maynard and his colleagues, and the report of the Joint Committee of Fifteen, on the other hand, assume the right in Congress to recognize or reject the State government organized in Tennessee. The memorial goes further, and asks that Congress will not only recognize it as "the true and proper government" of the State, but will "guarantee its perpetuity." Now, there are only two ways in which Congress can guarantee the perpetuity of Gov. Brownlow's government. One is, by sending enough United States troops to the State (and keeping them there) to maintain the loyalists against the disloyal majority, which, by the united evidence of trusty witnesses, including the governor himself, still exists there. But is this a republican form of government? The other way is for the black population to be invested with the elective franchise. It is a knotty question, and the report of the Joint Committee upon the recognition or re-admission of Tennessee will be the entering wedge to a discussion which will probably outlast all the rest, and will open up difficulties which are very likely to prevent any precedent of reconstruction being established at the present session.

The petitions just presented in the Senate from Virginia loyalists, praying Congress to resume control of the government of that State, on the ground of the utter disloyalty of the majority as represented by the existing Legislature, afford a pregnant lesson to the hasty reconstructionists. When even the President, whose magnanimous policy was summed up in the watch-word, "We must trust the South," finds it necessary to suppress newspapers and nullify laws by military edict, in a State lying within sight of the national Capitol, is it not fair to conclude that his theory of the indefeasible rights of the "restored" States is subject to pretty wide exceptions?

The general bankrupt act reported by Mr. Jenckes, of Rhode Island, in the last Congress, and amended in much detail by the House at the present session, encountered an unexpected obstruction to its passage (previously regarded as certain) by a single concise sentence from Thaddeus Stevens. He said: "This is not the time, when all rebeldom is indebted to us, to pass a law to free them from their debts."

The appointment of a Select Committee of Seven, in the House of Representatives, to consider and report upon the subject of a National Bureau of Education, is a noteworthy sign of the tendency of the times. Gen. J. A. Garfield is chairman of the committee, and its other members are Messrs. Patterson, Boutwell, Donnelly, Randall, Moulton, and Goodyear. This is a strong committee, but the bill referred to them, providing for the organization of the bureau, is not a very strong measure. It merely provides for a National Commissioner of Education, with sundry clerks, under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, whose duty it shall be to collect and diffuse facts and information regarding popular education and the conduct of schools throughout the States and Territories.

DIARY.

Monday, Feb. 12, 1866.—The two Houses of Congress met in joint session in the hall of the House of Representatives, in commemoration of the late President Lincoln, this being the anniversary of his birth. A memorial oration was pronounced by George Bancroft. No business was transacted by either House.

February 13.—In the Senate, Mr. Morgan presented the credentials of Lewis E. Parsons as a senator from Alabama. Laid on the table. Mr. Wilson's bill to increase and fix the military peace establishment was passed to a second reading. Mr. Fessenden, from the Joint Committee of Fifteen, reported the following proposed amendment of the Constitution: "The Congress shall have power to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper to secure to the citizens of each State all privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States; and to all persons in the several States equal protection in the rights of life, liberty, and property." Laid on the table. The Committee on Commerce were instructed to enquire what legislation is needed by Congress to protect life from danger by explosion of tubular boilers. The naval appropriation bill passed by the House was referred. Mr. Sprague's motion to reconsider the passing of the bonded warehouse bill came up, when he opposed the bill as intended to regulate prices, and as giving the foreign importer unfair advantages over the domestic manufacturer. The constitutional amendment, regulating the basis of representation, was taken up. Mr. Sumner offered an amendment to it, exempting from taxation all persons excluded from the right of suffrage on account of race or color.

In the House, a resolution declaring against the French protectorate in Mexico, and looking to an alliance of all the republics on this continent, was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs. A motion to admit to the privileges of the floor Col. T. M. Johnson, claimant of a seat from Arkansas, was defeated—yeas, 70; nays, 78. The Joint Committee of Fifteen reported to the House the constitutional amendment already cited in the Senate proceedings. Recommitted, with leave to report at any time. The rest of the day was consumed in a Michigan contested election case.

February 14.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented a petition from women, asking an amendment of the Constitution to prohibit any State from disfranchising any their citizens on account of sex. Mr. Sumner remarked that he did not think this

proper time for the consideration of this question. Many petitions were presented praying for universal suffrage. Mr. Grimes presented a memorial from Horace Maynard and three other representatives elect from Tennessee to the House of Representatives, asking that the present loyal State government of Tennessee may be recognized by Congress, and its perpetuity guaranteed as the true and proper government of that State. Referred to the Joint Committee of Fifteen. Bills were passed to incorporate the Metropolitan Insurance Co. of the District of Columbia, and to grant public lands to the State of Wisconsin to aid in connecting the waters of Green Bay with Lake Michigan. The Senate resumed the special order, being the constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Henderson spoke at length against it and in support of his amendment prohibiting the States from disfranchising citizens on the ground of color. He said the amendment of the Committee of Fifteen was a compromise, which surrendered the rights of the negro out of the hands of the general Government into the hands of States not fit to be entrusted with them. Mr. Clark advocated the amendment, on the ground that it was virtually granting to all the people of the country, both white and black, the right of suffrage. He held that the rebellious States had forfeited their political rights, and it would not now be safe to restore them to the Union.

In the House, the bill granting the use of United States vessels to the Commissioners of Quarantine was passed. Mr. Garfield offered a bill to establish a National Bureau of Education. Referred to a Select Committee. A bill was passed increasing the clerical force in the Post-office Department. A joint resolution was passed authorizing a commission to be appointed to select a site for a Post-office and United States Courts in New York city, and to report the cost to the Postmaster-General and Secretary of the Interior. The Senate bill to authorize the sale of postage stamps on credit in the Southern States was discussed, without result. The Michigan contested election case was resumed, the question turning upon the validity of soldiers' votes, given in camp in the South, in pursuance of an act of the Legislature of Michigan. The House affirmed the validity of the election of the sitting member, Mr. Trowbridge (Rep.), by a vote of 108 to 30. The consideration of the bankrupt bill was resumed. Mr. Stevens opposed it on the ground that "all rebeldom is in debt to us, and this is not the time to free them from their debts."

February 15.—Mr. Wade presented the petition of 500 colored soldiers in the regular army, praying for the same rights as are accorded to white men. Referred. Also a memorial of the Friends' Association, of Philadelphia, praying that the right of suffrage be conferred without distinction of color. Referred. Also resolutions of the Legislature of Ohio against the assumption of the war debts of the States by the general Government. Mr. Sumner presented the memorial of George T. Downing, Fred. Douglass, and other colored citizens of the United States, protesting against the constitutional amendment now pending, as introducing, for the first time, into the Constitution a grant to disfranchise men on the ground of race or color. Laid on the table. The bill to increase and fix the military peace establishment was taken up, but, without acting upon it, the Senate resumed the order of the day, being the constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Williams, of Oregon, argued in favor of it as the best measure before the Senate. He was for proceeding slowly in the work of reconstruction, and thought the President had pardoned far too many rebels. He did not think the negro now fit to vote, nor his master either. The Senate passed a bill to prevent and punish kidnapping of the freedmen, by a fine of from $500 to $5,000, and imprisonment not exceeding five years.

In the House, the miscellaneous appropriation bill, to meet deficiencies of the current fiscal year, was considered and amended. Messrs. Newell, Strouse, and Defrees made speeches upon reconstruction.

February 16.—In the Senate, Mr. Howard presented the memorial of 175 citizens of Alexandria (Va.), and eleven other petitions from that State, in favor of the establishment of a territorial government for that State. Referred. A bill was reported granting lands to the Iron Mountain RR. Co., of Missouri. The Senate passed the bill to extend the benefits of the pension laws to artificers in the service of the United States. Also the bill relating to the Court of Claims, and providing for an appeal to the Supreme Court in certain cases. The Committee on Commerce reported a bill granting to the International Ocean Telegraph Company the exclusive right for twenty-five years to lay and operate telegraphic cables from the United States to the West India Islands. Laid over. The proposed constitutional amendment was taken up. Mr. Hendricks opposed it, arguing that the proposition did not rest the right of representation upon population, nor upon property, nor upon voters; that it was a proposition to perpetuate the power of the Republican party, and intended as a punishment to the Southern States. Adjourned to February 19.

In the House, a bill was offered and referred to punish the crime of throwing trains from railroad tracks. Also, to punish larcenies and robberies of securities and other property belonging to the United States. Also, a bill to establish United States revenue courts. Also, a bill to reimburse the loyal States for debts contracted in support of the war. A resolution was passed to enquire into the expediency of making an appropriation for a medical and surgical history of the rebellion, to be compiled by the Surgeon-General of the United States. A bill to establish a uniform system of sewerage in the city of Washington was referred. The rest of the day was consumed upon the contested election case of Koontz *vs.* Coffroth, each claiming to represent the sixteenth Pennsylvania District.

February 17.—The Senate was not in session.

In the House no business was transacted, but speeches on reconstruction were made by Messrs. Cook, Lawrence, and Cullom. Adjourned to February 19.

THE FREEDMEN.

Gen. Swayne reports from Alabama that the prompt arrest of men, in various counties, for plundering and otherwise abusing negroes has had an excellent effect. He joins with his fellow assistant commissioners in protesting emphatically against the removal of the troops, and urges the superior advantages afforded by cavalry over infantry garrisons. Gov. Patton has manifested his determination to co-operate heartily with the Bureau by vetoing numerous objectionable bills sent him by the State Legislature. That body has appropriated one million dollars, contingent, for the relief of destitute inhabitants. The United States will assist with a limited number of rations. The State is quieting down, and if loyal sentiment is not decidedly on the increase, there is an abatement in what the agents of the Bureau feel bound to repress. The commingling of the freed people during the holidays caused a spread of contagious diseases, especially small-pox, but their progress has been everywhere stayed by the exertions of the medical officer.

Gen. W. P. Richardson, commanding the military district of eastern South Carolina, has exercised a very happy influence on the relations between the planters and the freedmen, taking as his guide the views promulgated by Gen. Howard in his Charleston letter of Oct. 24.

The January report for the District of Columbia shows that there are forty-five colored schools now in operation, with one hundred and six teachers and fifty-five hundred and eighty-eight pupils.

—More than four thousand colored persons, of both sexes and all ages, are attending day and night schools in Macon, Georgia. The *Messenger*, of that city, reports the freedmen of Crawford County to be working well and seemingly contented. There are no troops in the county, and the agent of the Bureau is one of the citizens.

—The minimum wages for freedmen in Texas are said to be fifteen dollars in specie per month, besides their board. Along the rivers colored laborers are working on shares, sometimes for half the crop after all expenses have been paid. The Germans are hiring them in small sets. Some planters offer a bonus of twenty dollars for good colored men. The testimony of a negro was recently admitted in a Galveston court, to convict a white man accused of having murdered a stage-driver. The attorney-general argued that the slave-code which would have excluded him had perished with slavery.

—Gen. Palmer writes to the Louisville *Journal* that, after the most careful enquiries, he has been unable to hear of a single instance in which the civil authorities have punished the authors of outrages on negroes in any part of Kentucky. He knows of the murder of two negroes by white men who are beyond the reach of justice because of the legal incompetency of colored persons as witnesses. Gen. Fisk is said to have received by a single mail letters reporting fifty-two distinct outrages on freedmen in that State. The accounts were wholly from citizens of Kentucky, men of respectability and standing, who were appointed agents of the Bureau on the recommendation of members of the Legislature.

—It appears that the rumor concerning the assault on Rev. Horace James, in Washington, North Carolina, was without foundation. Gov. Graham has written a letter favoring the admission of negroes to the courts "on the higher ground of right." The House of Commons, which had voted to deny them this right, reversed their action, after a very full and interesting debate, by a vote of 56 to 47.

—Gen. Howard delivered an address on the freedmen at the Cooper Institute in this city on Saturday evening, under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association. It was a dispassionate, unbiased review of the task imposed upon the Bureau as soon as it was established, of its subsequent well-rewarded efforts to restore the material prosperity of the South by encouraging the freedmen in the ways of thrift and industry, and of the present attitude of the Southern people toward their late slaves. His humane and philanthropic remarks were fully responded to by the audience. Mr. Greeley gave a fitting close to the meeting in a few words of exhortation not to suffer the great work of elevating and protecting the freedmen to fail, whatever might be the fate of the Bureau or of any other favorite instrumentality.

Minor Topics.

Four columns of the *National Intelligencer* of February 8 were occupied by a letter dated November 25, 1865, from Dr. J. C. Nott, M.D., of Mobile, to Gen. Howard, written to prove that the negroes have always been, are, and will always be, an inferior race. The first position

of the Southerner is always on high moral grounds; Dr. Nott therefore calls the attention of Gen. Howard to the gross injustice of the establishment of the Freedmen's Bureau, of calling upon the South to educate and support the blacks whom we have turned loose upon them, of a burthen thrown by us upon their shoulders, exhausted as they are by a war waged against them by us. "By what moral right do you impose such terms upon us?" he asks, and states that the Bureau is the most mischievous institution ever established in this country, a remark which, he rather unnecessarily adds, surprised Gen. Howard when he heard it from the doctor's lips in Mobile. Indeed, we infer from the conversation with the general, which he reports, that he must have surprised him very often. "You remarked to me, among other things, that you had never seen a people more anxious for education than the 'people of Alabama.' There was something in your manner that struck me, and I asked you if you meant by the 'people of Alabama' the negroes of Alabama.' You hesitated, and replied, 'I said the people of Alabama.' I rejoined, 'Let me understand you; do you mean by the *people of Alabama* the freedmen of Alabama?' To which you replied, 'I do.'" This Dr. Nott says was an insult, and it is certainly easy to understand his difficulty in believing that the white people of Alabama were desirous of education. He had lived too long in the State to credit such a report.

The historical and physiological arguments on which Dr. Nott relies are, first, that the negroes have always been an inferior and degraded race, hence that they must leave the country or be reduced to slavery; second, that they have much smaller brains than the Caucasians, hence that their inferiority is stamped upon them for ever. The late Dr. Morton, of Philadelphia, collected about a thousand skulls, measured them carefully, and arrived at certain results as to the average size of the brain of different races. Only two of these measurements we think it is worth while to give:

	Mean cubic inches.
Negroes,	83
Ancient Egyptians,	80
Cubic inches in favor of the negro,	03

Now these three inches the negro may waste, if he please, in the posterior part of the brain, which he is said to be in the habit of doing, and still have as much brain as the ancient Egyptian, a race whose high state of civilization Dr. Nott insists upon. The only want of logic apparent in this craniometry is in taking the mean as test. Let us rather apply it to the individual. For instance, let there be in every county in the South a craniometer; let every one over twenty-one years of age be forced to report himself for measurement. If he falls below say eighty-four inches, be he Malay, Tartar, Negro, Fellah, Mongol, or Taltecan, let him be labelled servant; let those who can boast of eighty-four and upwards be masters. This scheme affords an easy method of utilizing that hitherto useless, idle, and thriftless part of our population, the idiots; they would probably be found in most instances to fall below the standard, or the law might by presumption assume incontrovertibly that the idiot's brain was always less than eighty-four inches, and thus time and money now thrown away in attempting to educate and elevate this irretrievably ignorant class (which has never in the history of man risen to any dignified position) would be saved. Happy, they would till the soil and sing the joyful song of the slave.

It would be as well to deduct always the cubic contents of the posterior lobes; thus, if the total be eighty-four inches, but those lobes should measure six inches, seventy-eight would be the true register. If this method should be thought too rude, a more perfect scheme would be to prescribe a certain number of classes—six might be found sufficient—the first, from the ninety inch up, to be the priestly and political class; the second, eighty-eight to ninety inch, to be the legal and medicinal; the third, eighty-seven to eighty-eight inch, the merchants; and so on down to eighty-three and under, the agriculturists. A registration office for foreigners should be established, lest confusion should arise, and we should have eighty-three inch emigrants going into the church, or eighty-seven inch ones attempting law.

Dr. Nott makes some statements so new and important that they deserve attention. He says that the colored preachers are the worst class in the South; that the negro who cannot read and write is more moral than one who can; that the recent Jamaica troubles were caused by the colored preachers; that Frederick Douglass is a pestilent fellow and spits out the venom of a blackguard; that the negroes make their nearest approach to civilization in slavery; that they do not take care of each other in sickness and that parents neglect their children; that the white people of the South profess the same religion as those of the North. This last we do not understand at all; Christianity, without reference to race or color, is the religion of the North.

The conclusion is, that the Freedmen's Bureau and United State troops (particularly blacks) must be removed as speedily as possible from the South, and the relations between the races be left to settle themselves—and then the Southerners must be assisted in feeding and clothing colored paupers. It is only fair to state that Dr. Nott is an emancipationist at heart, but believes liberty for the blacks in the United States is such a curse that he has always opposed it.

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, with that thirst for knowledge for which he has always been distinguished, enquired last week, in the Senate, if anybody knew what authority there was for calling negroes "colored" people. The authority is usage, and there is none better. The term is a euphemism into which people have been gradually drifting in order to avoid the tinge of contemptuousness which the term "nigger" has gradually communicated to that in itself perfectly proper term, negro. The process by which the change has been effected is one which may be witnessed in the case of many other terms. How few people live in houses; how many "reside" in "residences" or "mansions." How few schools there are left; how many "academies," and "institutes," and "establishments." The race of women is nearly extinct, while "ladies" swarm all over the land. Such a thing as a fowl is now hardly ever seen on a dinner-table; the oldest cock that is ever served up is sure to be a "chicken." Mutton, too, is becoming scarcer and scarcer, "lamb" more plentiful. There has not been for many a day such a thing in the United States as a storekeeper or shopkeeper; the smallest pedlar is now a "merchant." We hardly ever hear of anybody in the newspapers, not a day laborer, who does not "move in the very best society" and who does not boast "fine talents and dignified manners." Nobody now delivers a speech or an address on any set occasion; he delivers an "oration." The President is fast ceasing to be President, having been promoted to the office of "Our Chief Magistrate." There are even very few men of moderate attainments; most men who lay claim to anything beyond a common school education, and are not actually engaged in business, are spoken of as "ripe scholars," and if they at the same time do not spit or chew, and abstain from morning "drinks," they become "accomplished gentlemen." If anybody advocates negro suffrage, he "takes his stand on the platform of the brotherhood of man." Stewed oysters and chicken salad are neither a supper nor a lunch, but an "elegant collation." Sermons are nearly all—or at least all those that are considered worth speaking of—"powerful discourses." Even wives are gradually disappearing; men write themselves down in the hotel books as being accompanied by their "ladies," whatever that may mean. In most parts of the West even "academies" and "institutes" bid fair to become extinct, their places being taken by "universities." No girl now ever leaves school; she "graduates." Inns and taverns have disappeared long ago; we find nothing but "hotels" in all directions. There are even signs that bar-rooms will soon be superseded by "sample-rooms." The process has already begun in New York. People do not teach things now; they are "professors" of them. Corn-doctors are "chiropodists." Barbers are not to be found in any of the large cities, while "hair-dressers" abound. Members of Congress and politicians even are becoming somewhat rare. They are gradually becoming "statesmen." Some people think we are falling off in our manners, but in our language at least the "high polite" was never more successfully cultivated.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significan of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE FOR STATE CONVENTIONS.

THERE is an old story to the effect that a number of philosophers disputed vehemently as to the reason why a tub of water with a fish in it weighed no more than a like quantity of water *without* any fish. They argued the matter orally, in writing, and in print. There were at least seven distinct theories upon the subject, each of which was ably maintained and bitterly opposed. Long was the contest and doubtful the result, until, at last, a simple-minded man suggested that none of the disputants had ever weighed the two tubs, and that it might be well to do so before carrying the argument further. The advice, though at first received with scorn, was ultimately followed. The philosophers assembled in conclave. Two tubs were produced, filled with water, placed in the scales, and their weight equalized to a hair. With careful hand the simple man placed a large fish in one of the tubs, when lo! instantly the scale descended, and the cause of controversy was found to have no existence.

The moral of this story has had a thousand applications, and will bear yet another. The great controversy upon the question of suffrage in the Southern States has been conducted throughout upon the same principle as that which governed the philosophers in dealing with the fish question. It has been quietly assumed, as the very basis of argument on all sides, that free American citizens of African descent had no right to vote at any election whatever in any of the so-called Confederate States, unless such right should be conferred upon them by the express authority of the United States. Or, at the very least, it has been taken for granted that they could not be deemed voters under any circumstances so long as the constitutions and laws of these States, as they existed in 1860, remained in force. Not only has this been the basis of President Johnson's action, but even Senator Sumner has accepted it without question. All the argument upon the subject has been either in favor of or against *conferring* suffrage upon the negro. No statesman has even seemed to think that the constitutions of 1860 can be recognized, and yet the negro have any right to vote.

Against such a weight of authority it requires some courage to hint that the powers that be have not looked into the foundation of their arguments, or, to revert to our story, have not "weighed their fish." Yet such appears to be the fact. Both sides have overlooked a consideration vital to the case.

President Johnson has acted upon the theory that the States in rebellion did not lose their corporate existence thereby, but that all their acts since the ordinances of secession were passed have been utterly void. He has, therefore, directed each State to start from the point of secession, as though all the intervening time had been a blank; and he has assumed that the constitutions and laws then in force are still existing. He disclaims any right upon his part to add to the number of voters in these States, though he has excluded many from voting.

Let us, for the purpose of this argument, accept every one of these acts and doctrines of the President. Let us assume that his proclamations were correct in every detail. Bearing in mind that the people of each State were summoned to elect not a governor, not a legislature, but simply *delegates to a constitutional convention*, let us enquire who, under these proclamations, were entitled to vote:

1. It must be taken for granted, in this discussion, that free colored persons of American birth are American citizens. The Federal Government has explicitly and solemnly recognized them as such. The Attorney-General has given his formal opinion to that effect, and the Secretary of State has issued passports accordingly.

2. It must be further assumed that all the colored people of the lately rebellious States have been free for a long time past. The Executive Department so declared them in 1863, and has ever since maintained the validity of that declaration.

3. In no one of these States was there, at the time of its revolt, any regulation concerning the qualifications of electors for *delegates to a State convention* either in its constitution or statutes. Whenever heretofore a State convention has been called, it has been by a special statute, prescribing the qualifications of electors for that occasion only, and expiring with that occasion. We do not believe that there is a general law upon the subject in any State, and we are certain that there is none such in any of the "seceded" States.

In North and South Carolina and Georgia the constitutions (in 1860) did not declare the qualifications of electors for any offices other than governor and legislature. The right of suffrage for inferior officers has been regulated purely by statutes.

In Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, and some other States, the constitutions declare that certain persons shall be "qualified electors," and that certain officers shall be chosen by these electors. But these constitutions do not in terms undertake to regulate elections for delegates to State conventions, and, for reasons which, we shall presently show, cannot be extended thereto by implication.

4. The theory of government upon which all the States have acted since 1776 is, that no constitution, charter, or law can fetter the right of the people of each State by the action of a convention to frame their fundamental law anew from time to time at their discretion. The constitution of this State, adopted in 1821, provided a single method of amendment, which, by all rules of legal interpretation, excluded amendment in any other mode. Yet the people entirely disregarded this provision, and in 1846 summoned and held a convention, which framed a new constitution. Some conservatives insisted that this action was unconstitutional, and so, as a matter of fact, it was. But the old constitution had no power to restrain the action of the people, and was rightfully disregarded. Some State constitutions have even gone so far as to prohibit the holding of conventions except at specified times, but these restrictions have been uniformly disregarded.

The principle upon which all these proceedings are based is, that the *people* are supreme over all laws, organic or otherwise. So long as the people act through a legislature, they act *under* the constitution, and are bound by it. But when they act through a convention, they are *above* the constitution, and meet for the very purpose of abrogating it. The convention is, in short, the embodiment of the people in the exercise of their right of revolution, and this *is* the revolution to which the American doctrine of government asserts the popular right.

This doctrine is explicitly asserted by the constitutions of most of the Western and Southern States, including Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas.

5. If we are correct thus far, it follows (and is, we think, indisputable) that the election of a State convention is not controlled by the State constitution, as to the time or manner of election, the qualifications of electors, or the qualifications of members. In short, the members of a convention are not officers under the constitution, but are altogether above it; and the people, in choosing them, are equally free from its restrictions.

6. There being no law of any kind in force in any Southern State regulating the right of suffrage for a convention, it remains to be asked by what right free colored men were excluded from voting at the elections recently held. No legislature, national or local, authorized it. Even usage cannot justify their exclusion in North Carolina, Tennessee, and Georgia, for they voted there for delegates to the conventions which framed the constitutions existing in 1860. Besides, a usage which should have such a tremendous effect must be a universal and immemorial one, whereas colored men have always had a right to vote in seven States, and had originally such right in nearly all the old thirteen States. It appears, then, that this exclusion was the act of the provisional governors—officers unknown to the law and invested with no shadow of authority over the subject.

7. The sum of the whole matter is, that if the proclamations of President Johnson had been properly interpreted, all male citizens of sound mind, twenty-one years of age, and permanent residents of the State, would have been allowed to vote, upon taking the prescribed oath.

8. For examples which show that the doctrines here presented are not new, except in their application to the colored race, we cite the discussions in the Dorr controversy of 1842, the Michigan case in 1836,

the Lecompton case in 1858, the Topeka case in 1856, and, above all, the action of California in 1850. California had laws regulating the manner of electing public officers which were in force in 1849. Yet a State convention was elected by the votes of men nine-tenths of whom had no right to vote under those laws, nor would have had, if the existing laws of California had then been in force. Nevertheless, the action of the convention thus elected was sustained by the people and by Congress, and is now the foundation of California's existence as a State.

9. The exclusion of colored men from voting in Georgia was a usurpation of peculiar magnitude. The constitution of that State, as it existed in 1860, did not exclude colored citizens from the right of suffrage for any office whatever. Yet they were not allowed to vote at the recent elections.

We have thus briefly gone over the main branches of our argument. It might be amplified by illustrations from the history of several States, and by citations from eminent authorities. But it is unnecessary to add more until that which is already stated has been controverted. Nor will we at present undertake to define the probable result of the practical enforcement of these doctrines. They might partially fail to accomplish the desired result. Conventions thus elected might impose restrictions upon their constituents. But whether they should do too much or too little cannot affect the question of absolute right which is involved. And if the conservatives of the North are really anxious to abstain from tampering with the suffrage, and to leave it to be regulated by the existing law, here is a path of unquestionable legality upon which all honest conservatives and radicals may agree.

It may be said that our argument is of little importance now that new constitutions have been adopted in all the Southern States. But as long as Congress refuses to consider these constitutions as satisfactory, and refuses to re-admit the revolted States under them, and has not decided the conditions on which they may be admitted, everthing which might ever be done, may still be done, or, at all events, ought to be considered, if the Committee on Reconstruction are ever to agree upon any general plan.

MR. BANCROFT'S EULOGY.

Mr. Bancroft delivered in due course the funeral oration at the memorial services in honor of Abraham Lincoln, at Washington, last week. The greatest fault of the address is that there was very little in it about Lincoln. One or two facts about his birth, parentage, and education; a few sentences about his journey to Washington in 1861, and his inauguration; a brief analysis of his character at the close—in short, about two-fifths of the speech is all that has any more bearing on the life and official career of the late President than on those of Andrew Johnson or General Grant. There is no public ceremonial connected with the war, from the celebration of an anniversary to the interment of a hero, for which the remainder of the address might not be made to serve with perfect appropriateness.

We fear, therefore, that a large body of persons who are now tolerably familiar with the origin of the republic, and with the influences which have presided over its growth; with the causes of slavery and the feelings which the fathers entertained towards it, and who have got an inkling, since the outbreak of the war, of the manner in which England and France conducted themselves towards us during its progress, will wish that the orator had expended a little more of his analysis and description on Mr. Lincoln, and a little less on the condition of the civilized world during the century preceding his birth. One of the most singular of the social phenomena of our day is, that the reluctance of orators and writers to give the public credit for being tolerably well informed seems to grow in the direct ratio of the diffusion of education. There is, probably, no country in the world in which so intimate a knowledge, at least of their own history, may be safely imputed, even to a popular audience, as in this; but there is, perhaps, none in which most speakers more lovingly hug the assumption that they cannot safely discourse on any theme without starting either from Plymouth Rock or the Declaration of Independence. We doubt if there be anybody in the United States capable of reading the English language, who does not possess a fair acquaintance with the circumstances which led to the American Revolution and the formation of the present Government, as well as with those which made the election of Mr. Lincoln the signal for the outbreak of the rebellion; and even if there be any such person, we think the nature of the occasion would have justified Mr. Bancroft in ignoring his existence.

For much the same reason we doubt the propriety of repeating to the city and the world the indictment against France and England. It was every word of it true, too true; but there are occasions when the time may be better spent than in reading it over. Neither France nor England appreciated Mr. Lincoln during his life; but Mr. Lincoln would certainly have been none the better of their doing so, and their failure to do so certainly exercised no influence on his character or conduct. It was just on this very point that he showed his immense superiority to most of his admirers. There was nothing in which the greatness of his soul, that moral dignity of his which made him not only the foremost man of his age but one of its truest gentlemen, was better illustrated than in the wonderful abstinence from railing which he displayed during the whole period of his administration, and under circumstances, too, of unheard-of provocation. He had his private opinion, we believe, of France and England, and it was not complimentary to either of them; but he never spread it out in his state papers. The insensate abuse of their press, and the insensate prophecies and admonitions of their statesmen, never wrung from him a single indication of anger or even of pique. And we cannot help believing that if it were permitted to him to be present at his own funeral rites, there could hardly be any feature of the proceedings less grateful to him than such a "scathing" exposure of the misdeeds of his enemies as that to which Mr. Bancroft treated the public.

Nor can we say we consider the comparison with Lord Palmerston very happy. Comparisons are always odious, and they are doubly odious in a funeral eulogy. Lincoln was so rich in glory that he could well afford to dispense with that infinitesimal addition that Mr. Bancroft made to it, by showing how far short Palmerston fell of reaching his moral level. In fact, we do not know what there was in the position or career of the two men to suggest the comparison except that both lived about the same time, and both occupied the highest positions in the government of their respective countries, and both died within the same year and had public funerals. Palmerston, it is true, was greatly admired by the English people, but he certainly was not reverenced; and, in order to make him a proper object of comparison with Lincoln, he ought to have been charged with the duty of carrying England through a period of revolution, and have either succeeded or failed in it. That he would have failed in it, we have no sort of doubt. Nations do not fling themselves in their agony on natures as cold and shallow as his; but if he had had to encounter the ordeal, he would certainly have furnished stronger proofs than Mr. Bancroft was able to cull from his singularly tame and spiritless existence, of the immense superiority in all the higher qualities of the statesman's character possessed by the poor Illinois rail-splitter. As it is, Mr. Lincoln might as well have been compared to anybody who was premier in England for the last sixty years. To bring out the great lines of his career in full relief, he has to be set side by side with Cromwell, or Napoleon, or Cavour, or Washington, or, let us add, Jefferson Davis. It is only when there is something common to two men, either in their circumstances or history, that there is any profit to be got from contrasting them. There might be a very fine contrast drawn between Marshal Radetzki and Garibaldi, but what would it prove?

Criticism of a funeral oration is always an ungrateful, and generally an unnecessary, task, and if Mr. Bancroft's address had been simply this funeral oration, we should have been very well content to have refrained from comment on it. But in reality his address was rather a sketch of American history during the last eighty years, interspersed with digressions upon the polity and condition of neighboring nations, than what it professed to be—an official expression of American feeling over the grave of one who was, save Washington, the best beloved and most sorely tried of our Presidents. The result has been that it cannot, we think, be pronounced a success, either as a funeral oration or as a historical study. There is neither feeling nor concentration enough in it for the one, nor accuracy nor impartiality enough in it for the other. Of Lincoln we only get a dim glimpse through a mist of disquisition and invective, and of the history of slavery and of the war we only get a rough, though gaudy, sketch. That Mr. Bancroft is disposed

to be thankful for "sma' mercies," we infer from the fact that he dwells with magniloquent satisfaction on the circumstance that Prince Kung of China testified his sympathy with our Government by shutting out the rebel privateers from the imperial ports. We confess we should take greater comfort in this mark of esteem if we had the smallest assurance that Prince Kung had the least idea what our war was about, cared one straw which side won, and was not ready to acknowledge whichever got the upper hand as the legitimate power, with both solar and lunar impartiality. Prince Kung's adhesion to our cause we judge to have been of about the same value to us as that of the "father-in-law of Prince Metternich," whose approval of President Lincoln was announced in leaded type two years ago by the daily papers, though the silence which was preserved with regard to the sentiments of his Highness's mother-in-law leads us to fear that our lamented President died in the shadow of that lady's displeasure.

THE FUTURE OF GREAT CITIES.

The immense proportions which great cities are assuming in all civilized countries promises to make the arrangement and management of them the most important of all the problems of social science. It is a problem, too, which the experience of mankind offers little or no help in solving. The population of the most famous cities of the ancient world has dwindled, in spite of the romancing of the old writers and modern novelists, into what we consider insignificance, under the hammer of modern criticism. Even ancient Rome would, in number of inhabitants, make in our day only a city of the third order. Magnificent as were its appliances for the supply of water and for drainage, its engineers had no such demands made on their skill and ingenuity as those of the great modern capitals have to meet.

The proportions to which London, New York, and Paris have already attained must be ascribed mainly to the increased facilities for locomotion and for the transmission of news afforded by steam and the telegraph; and yet we are only just beginning to see what railways and steamboats may be made to accomplish. They have built up great cities, and are building them up with a rapidity which is almost appalling, by simply giving persons greater liberty in the choice of their place of residence, and enabling goods to be distributed over wide tracts of country from one or two great depots instead of a dozen.

This tendency to concentration in commerce is accompanied by a corresponding tendency in society, especially amongst the wealthy classes. All over the world people who can afford it, or can compass it in any way, are moving into the great cities, and the country is being more and more abandoned to the poorer classes. There was in most European countries even half a century ago what was called "good society" in every county and province, composed of gentry resident on their estates throughout the year, and rarely visiting the capital. No such thing is now to be met with. Country life in England for the few families who still cling to it has become insufferably dull, except in the hunting season. In France it no longer exists at all. Wealth, fashion, intellect, and industry all crowd into the capital.

In America the distaste for country life seems to increase with every generation. This distaste has been so often commented on, explained, and deplored that we need only mention it. Every farmer's son and daughter, many farmers themselves, want to get to New York, and are willing to strive there for social preferment in almost any capacity. We heard, the other day, of a man sixty years old selling his paternal acres on the Hudson, an excellent farm, including the old house in which he was born, and coming to this city to fill the place of conductor on one of the street railroads. Nor is there the slightest probability that this tendency will not rather increase than diminish.

The responsibility of making the necessary provision in advance for this state of things, seems not to be felt in the slightest degree. On the contrary, with regard to nearly all questions of city improvement, the most indolent, the most careless, the most temporizing policy generally rules. The engineers employed to plan our city improvements are, nine times out of ten, loafing politicians, both unwilling and incompetent to devise anything original, comprehensive, and forereaching. We are not even beginning to meet the most obvious demands of our present population. The means provided for getting rid of municipal filth, for instance, are, in every American city, but most of all in the largest, perfectly contemptible. They do not meet the necessities of the case in the present day as well as those in use fifty years ago met the necessities of that day. What is before us is better seen in London and Paris than anywhere else. Large parts of both of these cities are being completely reconstructed, at an expense of many millions, to remedy faults in their original laying out. Yet these same faults and far worse faults may be found in the streets now being laid out in New York, Chicago, and San Francisco.

The number of fares collected on the street railroads and omnibuses of New York last year was much more than the number of the inhabitants of the United States, yet the accommodation of vehicles was cruelly inadequate to the demand, and the whole arrangements were supremely inefficient, slow, and to the last degree uncomfortable. Various projects are discussed for increasing the amount of accommodation, none for improving its comfort, and none of the schemes yet proposed contemplate any considerable increase in the demand. Yet before the least of them can be carried out this demand is likely to be nearly doubled.

The most serious problem of all connected with city life is undoubtedly the provision of dwellings for the working classes in the neighborhood of their work. Supposing ever so many railroads or boats to be provided, there will always be in every large city an immense number of persons whose means will not permit them, even if their occupations do, to live far from the scene of their daily toil. And even if they possess the means, they will not possess the time to go into the country. Two hours, even, taken out of a working-man's leisure for travelling to and fro, and thus lost to social enjoyment, would be a serious blow to his comfort, and this is, nevertheless, the very least space of time which it must be expected to take to reach the suburbs of any great city hereafter, from the business centres, and get back again.

Consequently it seems plain that the plan of covering an immense area with separate houses, and giving each family a large number of feet from the earth up to the sky, must ere long be abandoned, if not by all, by nearly all. We must go up into the air more than we do now. Families must live above or below each other, and not next door. In other words, we must give up owning "houses and lots," and fall back on the system of "flats" so long in use in France and Scotland. The great objection to it is the common staircase, but an ingenious suggestion has been made that we should have streets in the air—that houses should be built immensely high, and that iron galleries should run along each story, bridging the streets between the blocks, forming a thoroughfare on which each family might have an outside door, and on which there might even be stores, and on which people might saunter, shop, and promenade, leaving the noisy earth to the vehicles and more ponderous kinds of business. There might be omnibus elevators also at certain intervals to carry people up and down. The plan is well worth studying by those who are interested in the welfare, both moral and physical, of the unborn as well as the living millions who are fated for weal or woe to live and die in the great cities, and who must find their health and happiness far away from green fields or purling brooks. One thing is certain, that the streets of New York or London will present a century hence an appearance widely different from that with which the present generation is familiar.

TOO MUCH OF A GOOD THING.

Making due allowance for the motives of those whose visits to the White House are now daily chronicled for whom it may concern, we think that they are guilty of no little imposition on the President and the public. Not that his accessibility is in itself to be deprecated. It is of too recent a date to be lightly given up, and, besides, it has its uses. Six years and more ago, indeed, a citizen jealous of his good repute might well have hesitated to be known as having called on what was by courtesy styled the head of the nation; for, as advice must have been thrown away on one who was only nominally a ruler, he would have incurred the suspicion of friendship or complicity, which was no slight matter in the case of a Buchanan or a

Pierce. And, fortunately, if honest men desired to avoid having anything to do with these functionaries, they were favored by the natural exclusiveness of an Executive controlled by a slaveholding aristocracy, not less than by his powerlessness in a time of peace. But on the accession of Mr. Lincoln all this was changed. Democracy had at last elected its candidate. In the crisis which ensued there was safety in the multitude of counsellors. The absolute authority with which the President was invested could neither have been so effectively exercised nor with so little odium if he had refused to listen to the instructions, the complaints, and even the menaces from every quarter. That the privilege accorded was incessantly abused by the impertinent, was to be expected; that it was the safety-valve of a vast amount of conceit and self-importance, we all know; that it has come to be looked upon as a popular prerogative, though in quite an altered condition of affairs, the present Administration is witness.

It must be admitted that, apart from the peculiar circumstances of his promotion, President Johnson is responsible for a considerable share of the visitations which have consumed his leisure. Had he promptly surrendered to Congress the task of re-organizing the society which rebellion had disintegrated, men would not have been so solicitous to press their opinions and grievances upon him. He would have escaped promulgating a policy sure to produce contention at the North, and to subject him to "elderings" from one party and adulation from the opposite. As it is, the not unwelcome delegations which paid their respects to him immediately after the assassination, have been followed by an almost steady stream of visitors, beginning with the host of pardon-seekers, and ending (we use the expression relatively) with the varied calls of the past fortnight.

We appeal to the "distinguished senators" who hold conversations with Mr. Johnson, to the Master Cokers who sing their little songs to him, to the citizens of this or that ambitious Territory, to the members of dissatisfied churches, to our colored friends themselves, who all and several manage to take up a good deal of his time, and to get his remarks, apothegms, and speeches transmitted by electric telegraph all over the Union,—we appeal, we say, to these individuals and committees to have some consideration alike for him and for the community at large. Let them remember that in these days of the Associated Press, often made a semi-official medium during the past five years, there is nothing hidden which shall not be revealed. Since the President has so willed it, his words are anxiously listened for by the millions of the North and South, and if spoken they will be overheard and repeated throughout the nation. Of all the gossip for which our newspapers expend their capital, that from the White House is most certain of being read. Coming at proper intervals it would have a piquant flavor, but retailed every week, and almost every day, it begins to be somewhat of an infliction.

We are aware these gentry to whom we address our reproaches may retort that again the President is at fault; that even if they are long-winded, he might, without offence, indulge in optional brevity. This does not excuse them. With no disrespect to Mr. Johnson, we cannot withhold the only too common observation, that he lacks the happy faculty possessed by his predecessor in so eminent a degree—whose sayings were ever terse, pithy, and compact, and compare with those of the Tennesseean much as did his immortal speech at Gettysburg with Mr. Everett's oration. When the new-made President assured and reassured the representatives of the loyal States that treason was a crime that must be punished as a crime, there was strength and inspiration in the repetition. Latterly his iteration has got to be excessive. It is enough to be told once—we were all but going to say, too much—that he is opposed to negro suffrage in the District of Columbia, that he has always been a friend of the colored man, that he anticipates a war of races, that he has reached the pinnacle of his ambition, etc., etc. We do not blame him for being prolix, but we do expostulate with those who, knowing his weakness, tempt him to so frequent an exhibition of it. It is appalling to estimate the amount of trouble this causes—to your reporter, who takes down his every word; to the President himself, if he cares to revise what he has said; to the telegraphic operators, a hundred or more; to the night editors and the printers; and, last but by no means least, to the readers of the newspapers, who must ponder the entire document if only to discover that it does not weigh an idea more than the last previous utterance from the same source.

All these processes require time, from the principal actors downward; and time costs more than money at this juncture. Congress could not for ever be taking recesses in honor of successful generals who are introduced there, and neither can the President be interrupted without a loss to the nation beside which his personal annoyance is of little account. If he has duties, it is plain he cannot attend to them faithfully. If he has powers—and he has some of the highest—he may be led to exercise them without the necessary deliberation. When so many interests hang upon his most trivial declarations, it is important that these should not be crude and ill-digested, as they are apt to be when unexpectedly elicited from him. Great harm may follow from a chance indiscretion on his part, and at all events he is constantly exposed to the awkward disadvantage apparent in his interview with the colored deputation, whose well-written reply contrasted too palpably with his confused and rambling delivery. As far as possible, therefore, he has a right to be protected from slips of the tongue. He and the people will be gainers if he writes ten messages for every speech likely to transpire, and if bores, well-intentioned and otherwise, will give him time to study his proper domain, arrange his thoughts strictly and concisely, and bend all his magnificent energies to the restoration of the Republic.

THE APPLAUSE FROM THE OTHER SIDE.

Philosophers of all generations, from Confucius to Rochefoucauld, have cautioned mankind against overlooking the wholesome lessons to be drawn from the praise of their foes.

At a time when the line between difficult justice and facile expediency is more than ever confused and blurred; a time when the instincts of politicians are prompting them to avail of the languor which follows exertion—to trade on the generosity which is begotten of victory—through coalitions which shall ensure their own advancement to power; a time when the very grandeur of the national achievement is so dazzling to our eyes that we may fail to see, or see but imperfectly, the duty and the means of reaping its legitimate and most righteous fruits—at such a time it becomes instructive in a high degree to observe the tone of those English organs of opinion which, whether on one side or the other, were such earnestly interested spectators of, and commentators upon, our civil war.

These organs may have been, in some instances, mistaken in their facts. At a period of great excitement, when partizanship respecting our quarrel ran high, and its bearing upon or analogies to English domestic questions were perhaps somewhat exaggerated, it was natural that wishes should often father thoughts, and that a false expectation touching ultimate results should correspond, in general acceptance, with the superior numbers or influence of those who were opposed to the national cause. Discriminating Americans make fair allowances for this, and remember with gratitude how far great earnestness and, it may be added, sheer intellectual force went towards counterbalancing the serious disadvantages under which our English friends labored. But however it may have been with details or with prophecies, the zeal of the advocates was great on both sides. There could not be a doubt as to the depth of their convictions regarding the rights of the question or the ardor of their desires as respected its settlement.

Such convictions and desires were inseparably associated in their minds with principles which they deemed of paramount importance; the association, as has been suggested, may have been carried too far; but it existed, and was perhaps inevitable. The termination of our struggle, disappointing to many, did not, however, involve any change of theories, any surcease of principles whereof the disappointed ones were advocates. Facts might no longer be strained or distorted in their support, but the theories and principles are as faithfully upheld as before; and in the expression of this fidelity is found the instruction to which we refer.

Mr. Roebuck, in a public speech made at Sheffield, and which was reported in the London *Times* of June 10, ult., said: "My reason for desiring the acknowledgment of the South was this: I wanted the

great republic of America to be split in two. I honestly and openly confess it; and if it had been so, it would have been better for us." This flagrant declaration was merely a concise and explicit epitome of the feelings which too many of the orator's countrymen had cherished, but which they were not, in general, disposed so bluntly to avow. They desired to see the United States broken into fragments, and they dwelt with force and sympathy upon what would substantially conduce to that end. They are not without hope that, in spite of our late triumph, the seeds of disintegration are still alive, if dormant, in our political soil, and that by judicious manuring and fostering they may yet fructify to our ruin. The same instincts which led to their warm espousal of the Southern cause still exist, and whatever is promulgated through their organs respecting affairs in this country is presumably faithful to them.

When we find, then, that all the leading journals of London which opposed us most bitterly in the late struggle are now equally unanimous in their view of the most important problems which we have to determine as its consequences, is it not the part of wisdom thoroughly to consider such a circumstance, to weigh carefully and to sift to the bottom all the probabilities and inferences suggested by it? It would be too sweeping and ungenerous, for example, to draw a conclusion unfavorable to President Johnson's patriotism, because all the newspapers which advocated secession now advocate what is styled his policy of reconstruction, but surely the coincidence is worthy of our careful attention. Still more significant and deserving of reflection is the circumstance that every newspaper and every man of any note in England who steadily and pertinaciously stood our friend through the hard fight is now daily expressing apprehension and anxiety with regard to our future. It is plain that those long-tried and staunch supporters of the cause which we and they thought so just are filled to-day with an honest dread lest the nation should be deprived of the tangible and only valuable results of its victory.

Now, there is a large class of persons among us who have been most unsparing and violent in their denunciations of the *Times* and *Saturday Review* for their hostile tone towards this country during the war, but who seem at present to be quite gratified and comforted to find that those presses have become the hearty endorsers of President Johnson and his policy. Such persons, and the prints which are their exponents, appear to think that the leopard may change his spots; that there is a diametric change in opinion, and yet no inconsistency, on the part of our quondam foes; that at worst there is nothing in their conduct more sinister than the mere everyday and commonplace baseness of truckling to success. Such persons, too, were ever ready to quote the *Spectator* when it combated in our behalf what time the strife was sorest, but they altogether omit to refer to the accents of grave warning and solicitude in which that publication has discussed our prospects since its definitive close.

It is, of course, quite within the bounds of possibility that British admirers of Mr. Johnson should not be absolutely inimical to the perpetuation of the Union; but surely neither they nor any one else can complain if we find a suspiciousness in the fact that avowed enemies of the Union during its battle for life should so universally step forth as eulogists of its present Chief Magistrate and his peculiar line of policy or set of principles to-day. It is conceivable that our devoted English friends may be frightened at shadows; but the unanimity of their sentiments entitles them to respect, if former services do not. We at least know that they never wished our country harm—which cannot be said of their political opponents.

Generally speaking, it is safe to believe that few radical changes of conviction have taken place in the hearts of those who command leadership on either side of the ocean. The couples may have changed places in the quadrille, but they have still the same relative situation, still the same *vis-a-vis*. They may go through all manner of bewildering evolutions, but they will still preserve the same juxtaposition and cherish the same affinity. And they are to be recognized, classed, and trusted in two categories: the one which *fears* and the other which *hopes* that the name and painted image of Liberty shall, in the greatest civil convulsion known to history, have been fought for and gained, without its spirit and essence; the one which, from its very nature, must worship always at the simple shrine of justice; the other which, from a law equally immutable, must to the end of the chapter burn incense on the sophisticate altar of policy.

FRANCE AND AMERICA.

THE following extract from a private letter recently received from M. de Beaumont, the life-long friend of M. de Tocqueville, and his companion during his first tour in this country, is interesting as expressing the opinion upon our affairs, at the present juncture, of a class of Frenchmen whose influence on the affairs of their own country we hope to see some day regain its legitimate power:

I reproach myself for having so long delayed acknowledging the two works sent me through the American Minister, "The Story of the Great March," and the report on the sufferings of your prisoners in the hands of the Confederates.

If I have deferred thanking you, I have not delayed reading them, and once opened, I continued their perusal without allowing myself to be interrupted until I had finished them. I value them much, and shall preserve them with care. The journal of Sherman's campaign is more interesting than any romance could be, although it is simply history. If there could be collected something analogous to it relative to each of the great military operations of which America has been the theatre during the war, what a magnificent history one could write from it! and how the historian who could truly describe these combats of giants, and bring into bold relief the heroic deeds and civil virtues of your heroes, would distance the epics of antiquity and all the records of mere slaughters, ancient or modern!

I confess that if I were ten years younger, and were not intimidated by the grandeur of the enterprise, its beauty would tempt me to undertake it. But for such audacity it needs a younger hand than mine. I must limit myself to offering my best wishes to the more able historian who may take up this grand subject and immortalize himself with it.

I do not doubt that this work will be done by some one worthy of it, who will comprehend that he has not alone to recount the battles, marches, and victories, but the motives under which the war was made by a free people, the sentiments which animated them, and the passions which supported it. Assuredly what has enlisted my entire sympathy and enthusiasm in this struggle and this victory has been the triumph of the cause of humanity in the abolition of slavery; but there is one thing which has perhaps inspired even greater admiration and joy—it is that you have escaped the great danger of military usurpation, and that the day of victory has also been that of the resumption of your civil rights. All the future of American liberty, and, indeed, of the liberty of the world, centred there!

You can hardly form an idea of the grief and disappointment which the friends of absolutism in Europe feel now after having counted upon your coming under the yoke of a dictator!

Thanks to you, not merely the republican but the liberal cause still exists, and from your shores its reflection reaches ours!

How much, after the sufferings and anxieties of such a war, you must now enjoy peace and victory!

Why cannot I, by a magician's wand, be restored in 1866 to my condition in 1831 when I visited America! How I should fly to your shores, and with what happiness should I see your fine and great country and the men who to-day illustrate its honor and glory!

In the midst of all the joy and sympathy which I feel regarding your country I cannot, however, help experiencing a certain anxiety in regard to the effect of these events upon our Mexican situation, in thinking of what may happen in that quarter—in spite of the wishes of our two nations and of their governments—to produce dangerous complications. I am convinced of two things: 1st, that Napoleon, who got engaged in this enterprise in opposition to the universal sentiment of France and even of his own counsellors, sees his mistake and bitterly regrets it; 2d, his speech to the Corps Législatif signifies, I am preparing to quit Mexico—*let me only have time to do so honorably!*

What seems to me equally plain is that neither Mr. Johnson nor Mr. Seward means, by any ill-advised proceedings, to precipitate a war which neither France nor the Emperor desires; and that your Government, which has enough else to do besides fighting in Mexico, is well disposed to accept the pacific solution thus offered; but what I fear is, the passions of the American people and that intoxication so natural after such splendid victories. I feel that never was there a time when the united efforts of all your wise men were so necessary as now to prevent a conflict so full of sadness which would ensue between two nations whose true interests are to be friends, and yet who, once engaged in strife, would each only see its flag. May the gods avert such a future!

THE LIGHT-HOUSE.

O'ER waves that murmur ever nigh
My window opening towards the deep,
The light-house with its wakeful eye
Looks into mine, that shuts to sleep.

I lose myself in idle dreams,
And wake in smiles or sighs or fright,
According to my visions' themes,
And see it shining in the night.

For ever there and still the same
While many more besides me mark—
On various course, with various aim—
That light that shineth in the dark.

It draws my heart towards those who roam
Unknown, nor to be known, by me;
I see it and am glad, at home,
They see it and are safe at sea.

On slumberous or on watching eyes
It shines through all the dangerous night
Until at length the day doth rise,
And light is swallowed up of light.

Light of the world, incarnate Word,
So shin'st Thou through our night of time,
Whom freemen love to call their Lord;
O beacon steadfast and sublime!

In temporal things—grief, joy, or care—
Enrapt we dream, but turn to thee,
And straightway where and what we are
By thine unfailing radiance see.

Some see thee from life's sheltered shore;
Some watch thee, doomed to sail life's deep,
Whose cruel waters rage and roar,
Or o'er sharp reefs in ambush creep.

And men of every land and speech,
If but they have thee in their sight,
Are bound to thee, and each to each,
Through thee, by countless threads of light.

E. Foxton.

THE FOOL'S PARADISE.

The subject of railroad accommodations and refreshments must be, in great part, treated speculatively, for, in great part, railroad accommodations and refreshments exist only in the abstract. As far as this want of reality relates to accommodations, it is the fault of the railroad management; but as far as it relates to refreshments, we fear it is the fault of the public. It seems scarcely possible that a nation, not bent upon indigestion, could long endure the present arrangements for the promotion of delicate health, at the stations where the trains stop "fifteen minutes for refreshments!"—and we imagine that a change will take place as soon as it is actually demanded by a contrite public appetite.

The other day an acquaintance had the mi ortune to go to Boston—Boston is well enough, but the going thither is the evil—and he ran into a restaurant, near the station, to get a bite and gulp of breakfast, before setting out on that perilous journey. He secured his bite and gulp, and had a moment's leisure to attend to the fellow-sinner at his elbow, while that impenitent gave his order. In a place where he might have had steak or chop, or, at the worst, cold, choking chicken, he demanded, "A cup of coffee and a piece of apple-pie!" A human being, born in the nineteenth century of the Christian era, thought it just to offer his system a breakfast of coffee and apple-pie! As in this world many innocent persons suffer from the sins committed by others, such depravity reacts upon the whole community, corrupting the restaurateurs and debauching and destroying their customers; and we have heard of one gentleman who suffered from the evil principle of coffee and pie, for breakfast and lunch, to an almost incredible degree. He stopped at one of the appointed places for refreshment, on the Shore Line to Boston, and found that coffee and pie were the sole restoratives to be had; there was not meat, hot or cold; there were no sandwiches, there was no bread, there was, in fine, not even any water; there was but coffee and pie!

On the way to Boston you stop twenty minutes for refreshments at Springfield, and you find on either hand two small cabins, erected within the station, containing the ticket-offices, the waiting-room, and the lunching-rooms. It is because these are rather good of their kind that we speak of them, though we do not speak of them to praise them. It is true that you are there waited upon with something like civility and promptness, and that the young ladies who preside over the coffee-pot, the tea-urn, the pie, the cake, and the fruit, are singularly free from that crushing *hauteur* of manner characteristic of young ladies in public employments. But though you have twenty minutes for refreshments, you are denied the privilege of sitting down in these moments of restoration, and are forced to refresh yourself at a counter in the midst of a tumult of refreshment. As for the viands, they are much like the things provided everywhere for the weary traveller, and they present a variety certainly passing the standard fixed at the refreshment stations on the Shore Line We suppose that all this is as the travelling public desires to have it, or the travelling public would have it different. But as we stood edgewise before that counter at Springfield the other day, and ate some oysters, fried each in five times his bulk of flour-batter, and washed down the repast with something that neither looked nor tasted like coffee, but was, nevertheless, so called (jocosely, it is possible, as, in cheap restaurants, pork and beans are called "woodcock"); and as we meditated the purchase of a desiccated sandwich, a vision of better things stole over us, softening and subduing us. It was the memory of a little station, somewhere on the road between Paris and St. Michel, where we stopped fifteen minutes for breakfast, one winter morning. The guards of the train cried out the time of the halt several times distinctly, and did not leave it to the intuitions of the passengers, as the conductor does in this country; and so we all got down, and went into a warm room, prettily appointed with tables to seat each four persons, and with flasks of dark wine, delicate bread, and clean napkins beside every plate. Did you care merely for coffee? They served you such coffee as might have grown on the uplands of Paradise. Did you wish something yet more satisfying? There was *bouillon*, bright as honey, clear as amber. Our appetite being for solids, they gave us a dainty cutlet, served in some delicious sauce, if it was sauce, or gravy, if it was gravy; and opened for us a flask of the dark wine, and filled us a bowl of the creamy coffee for the parting benison. There was abundant time, for the people at the station were as well prepared to receive us as if they had been making ready for us ever since we left America; as if they had grown the grape and bottled the wine expressly against our coming, and had known, to a second, when to pop the cutlet on the fire for us. It was more than satisfactory, it was flattering; and, in this way, travel is expected and complimented throughout France. The cause is plain: the French nation will not suffer outrage, and famine, and indigestion at the hands which are paid to feed it well and courteously. As soon as we make up our minds to have justice, we shall have it. We now have famine, and outrage, and indigestion because we want them. There is no sadder error than the delusion that French cooks and cooking came of themselves. The enlightened public taste created them, as with us the popular will could call something just as good into existence.

That our travelling community does not desire wholesome and savory provision against its hunger, is manifest in the sort of stuff which is brought into the cars to sell. There is no reason why the boy who relieves the tedious routine of offering magazines and illustrated newspapers to the passengers by offering them candy and tobacco in packages should not also have something besides these dainties with which to tempt appetite. Why, then, should unhappy travel have nothing else submitted to it? Unhappy travel, if candid, would confess that it wants nothing else, unless it be pop-corn, which it gets; pop-corn, which fills without satisfying, and makes you feel like a sack of chaff, which is the emptiest and merest of vanities. We know, of course, that flying boys appear and disappear, at the way stations, with baskets of tarts and cakes; but are they not merely a part of the great system of coffee and pie in the restaurants?

Possibly, a vague idea that journeying by railroad is a kind of festivity inspires us to live on sweetmeats and dessert, and holiday fare, while upon our travels. If this be the case, it seems to us that we are mistaken in our notions of jollity. Such mortal gaiety as properly belongs to the dance of death likewise belongs to railroad travel, but it is in no other sense festive. On the contrary, it is work, cruelly hard and extremely dangerous, not only to life and limb, but to health; and it should be a matter of serious thought before setting out on a journey whether or not the end to be accomplished justifies the means. Sometimes, however, people must travel, and as it is no longer possible to travel in stage-coaches, and as in winter it is not always practicable to journey by water, they must go by rail. A voyage to Liverpool, by sea, is rather less uncomfortable and perilous than a journey to Chicago by land; but then you cannot take a Cunard steamer to Chicago; and there are many other places inland which you can reach only by rail.

In the first place, the waiting-room of the station is an outrage to those who have known better things. The simplicity of its appointments is as severe as those of a state apartment on the stage. Around its dingy wall goes an obdurate benching, cut into sections to contain each one person, whom wooden bars defend from encroachment and forbid to encroach. There are no chairs, and if you wish to warm your feet you must stand before the stove (a flaming monster in the middle of the room) on one leg, as the

stranger did, who sought to surprise the Athenians, and burn one boot at a time. In this chamber of desolation there is nothing to eat, nothing to drink, nothing to smoke. There is nothing with which to divert your mind but the long slender advertisements of rival railroad lines, printed on cardboard and framed in gilt, and hung upon the wall side by side, and flanked by the announcements of the accidental insurance companies.

In Italy, which we complacently look upon as a country far behind our own in the comforts and elegancies of civilized life, you would find as good accommodations for the peasants, in the third-class waiting-rooms of the railroad stations, as you find for ladies in our dépôts. As for the second-class and first-class *salles d'attente*, we have nothing in the whole length and breadth of the republic to compare with them; for these rooms in Italy abound in cushioned seats, and are well warmed and lighted, and have a pretty *caffè* attached. In France it is all as comfortable, and in Germany, and in almost any country but our own. Even in Egypt and Spain the travellers by railway are better cared for than in America, where they are, for the time, treated like outcasts and abandoned persons.

The car in which we leave the station is heated by a stove near either door. It is hot to suffocation when you enter, but the motion of the train cools it directly, and presently the only warm men in the car are the men who sit before the stoves and put their legs on them. Or if the gentlemanly and obliging brakeman consents to stoke and keep the fire alight, the tops of the passengers' heads receive the greater part of the heat, and their feet freeze, while champion draughts meet and fight over their devoted legs. The floor of our car is bare and stained with deluges of tobacco-juice. It may happen, too, that it has been newly splashed with water, and that the ice formed upon it remains unthawed during the whole journey; and a gentleman who had the pleasure to travel with his family in such a car from New Haven to Hartford, assured us that they all remembered the journey in coughs and rheumatism for a month.

At the end of the journey you find the same absence of all persons connected with the service of the road which you have possibly observed before setting out, and while upon the way. At the station there is only the baggage-master, a man of austere and commanding address, who forbiddingly gives and takes checks, but who is far from being a porter; and the brakemen of the trains are as little to be approached with a heavy carpet-sack or an angular package as the conductor himself. In fact, there are no servants of the company to wait upon the passengers, whom all the gentlemanly officials, from the conductor down to the newsboy of the train, snub with the utmost severity.

Far be it from us to point out a remedy for these things. As we have said, we believe that the travelling public likes to have its stomach insulted and abused; and it is barely possible that it is somewhat responsible for the other personal discomforts it suffers. In no other country are such long journeys made by railroad, and in no other country is there such wretched provision for passengers. The restaurants are horrible; the waiting-rooms little better than cattle-pens; the cars uncomfortable in plan and cruel in construction, without any appointments for relaxation or repose. Take into account, with these things, the perils of broken rails, of collisions, of feeble bridges and misplaced switches, and it must be confessed that travel, in our country at least, has been well called "the fool's paradise."

ON PAINTING ROOM WALLS.

It is generally more expensive to paint room walls than to paper them. We purpose in the present article to enquire under what circumstances paint is rather to be used than paper, in spite of its higher cost.

It is not to be used on the walls of rooms which are required to look "stylish" only, a plain, light tint of oil-color being thought more elegant than a pretty harmony of colors on paper. A few years ago this weighty reason determined the question in favor of paint, whenever the house-owner felt himself rich enough and found his walls good enough. Defective plastering and a shallow purse were the only inducements sufficiently strong to lead any one to use paper-hangings instead of the cold grey, raw yellow, or other colorless color which the house-painters stood ready to apply. Now, if a house-owner be determined to have a perfectly plain, unvaried color on his room walls, he can still do better by using paper than paint. Very pretty flat tints of bright and of subdued colors are for sale in cheap kinds of wall paper. If the plastered wall be thoroughly well prepared, colored washes, indeed, look as well as the paper and are cheaper still, but these rub off easily and soil everything that touches them. Painting, whether in oil-color, as universally in times gone by a generation or so, or whether in water-color, as now becoming general, is more costly, and it is hard to give any reason for using it rather than paper. But whatever else is adopted or rejected, let common oil-painting be entirely rejected and put out of the question. Its ugly gloss and unpleasant no-surface, all ridges and bristle marks, make it the worst wall decoration yet discovered.

Further, paint is not to be used on the walls of rooms too lowly in altitude or in importance to receive a somewhat elaborate style of decoration. What such decoration may be and ought to be, we shall see further on in our discussion; but, for the present, observe that any simple pattern, offering harmonious combination of colors in flat tints only, can be nearly as well produced on the surface of paper as on the best fresco ground. Any of those patterns which we briefly described in treating of wall papers, two weeks ago, look as well on the papers as they could be made to look in painting on plaster as it is practised by the artisans in the decorators' employ. And some of those patterns would be very costly and troublesome to execute in painting, particularly those in which much gold is used. There is a splendid pattern on paper covering a wall in Paris which may be easily described, and is as follows: Ground of pale purple, almost like the modern color mauve; bands, nearly half an inch wide and five inches apart, cross each other obliquely all over the ground, dividing it into lozenges or diamonds; these bands are deep red with dots all along them, of the ground color, which are twice as large at the crossing of the bands as elsewhere. In each lozenge of pale purple comes a smaller lozenge of dark purple, and in it a flower-de-luce of the ground color, the lighter purple; and outside the dark lozenge, between it and the red band, is a line of the dark purple. If the reader will draw this pattern, he or she will see that it is very fine. But it is only the background. The real pattern covers it in gold, printed on without any regard to the lozenges and *fleurs-de-lys*—circles fourteen inches in diameter, with quatre-foils and beautiful Gothic flower patterns within them. It is splendid as a decoration in flat pattern of the walls of a large room. Any one who has had any good wall painting done can give a shrewd guess as to whether it would be costly or not to have this design produced in modern dry fresco or in any other way of hand-work or stencil painting. But it would not be an unreasonably high-priced paper, if printed like the one from which we describe. Even at the present rates, such a paper could be put upon the walls of a room for about three dollars a roll; so that the walls of a large room—say a billiard-room of the proper size, eighteen by twenty-four feet and fifteen feet high—would take about sixty dollars' worth of such paper, and perhaps forty dollars' worth of gilt mouldings. It would be very simple dry fresco painting of the same walls that would cost only five times as much.

The actual beauty of fresco painting is, indeed, superior to that of wall-paper. The surface of carefully laid dry fresco is much more beautiful than the surface of the best printed paper. But the use of painting is to do what no machine-made or block-printed fabric can, except under unusual circumstances and at heavy cost—adapt itself perfectly to a particular place and fit it with a decoration which would not be suitable elsewhere. This is true of its simplest application, but the simplest form of mural painting leads insensibly to higher and higher developments of the art, until historical fresco painting is reached. The best thing in wall-paper that the manufacturer can make to-day from a skilful architect's design is as good, or very nearly as good, in all essential particulars as he will ever make. But the best dry fresco painting of to-day on some wealthy gentleman's library ceiling or billiard-room walls is a step towards infinite and as yet unimagined splendor of art by-and-bye.

It is recognized by all those who have in any spirit of thoroughness and truth studied the arts of design, that modern painting is terribly astray in its almost complete divorce from mural painting and from decorative application. A generation of cabinet pictures is but an inglorious and perishable era; it is little more than vanity, and nothing comes of it in the end but vexation of spirit and quarrels of connoisseurs. But a generation of fresco painting is a part of the history of the world, and the cabinet pictures which such an age produces as play amid its serious work share in its glory and its worth. It is recognized as one of the necessary steps in the revival of art to get back to wall-painting again. In those countries where the revival of art has made any progress the leaders feel their highest achievements to be the few mural paintings they have successfully achieved. And of these—though some are in oil, as, for instance, the famous "Hemicycle de l'Ecole des Beaux Arts," by Paul Delaroche—the greater number in France, in Germany, and in England are in fresco or some form of painting akin to fresco. Now, the difficulty with all these works has been the exceeding strangeness of the material to the artists who were suddenly called on to paint in it gigantic pictures of historical or religious subjects. Modern German art is, in general, cold enough in color; but no one can suppose that the great frescoes in Munich and Dresden would have been so valueless in this respect if fresco painting had not been in a great measure a "lost art," revived by the very

men who had to paint, at royal command, the "Last Judgment" and the Nibelungen story and the acres of pseudo-classic decoration in loggie and cabinets. Modern English art is, in general, unorganized and undisciplined enough, and its works of little permanent value; but things would have been better if it had not been necessary to experiment and blunder and grope in the dark after a medium of painting sufficiently enduring to resist damp and to preserve the historico-legendary imaginings of Dyce, Maclise, Herbert, and Ward until their children could see them.

It will be long enough before there is any demand for mural fresco paintings in our cities; long enough for us all to learn how to use water-color on wet plaster and on dry, and to invent a host of processes as good as, or better than, stereochromy. It will be well if all the decorative painters, "bosses" and journeymen, get to understand all kinds of painting on plaster, and if all the "artists," popularly so called, learn the processes from them, that when our Leys or Watts comes to paint our history for us on the walls of some future capitol, which shall be to the present one what great art would be to the scene-painting now in honor there, he will find assistants ready to his hand, and a thoroughly understood and trustworthy process ready for use.

For ordinary purposes of in-door decoration dry fresco is sufficient—*fresco secco*, or painting on a surface of hardened plaster, which is wet piece by piece as the color is to be applied. True fresco, or painting on a freshly spread surface of plaster, remains as yet unrivalled for brilliancy and purity of tone. By either process, properly carried out, a colored surface is produced which is hardly to be injured by water, is almost indestructible except by dampness, which permeates the whole substance of the wall, and is far more beautiful than the surface of an oil-colored wall. We shall be safe, then, if we decorate our large and handsome drawing-room or billiard-room or hall with dry fresco. Of what character, next, should be the designs, and what sort of patterns are at our disposal, easily to be obtained from the workmen we have?

The designs most easily to be obtained, those, namely, which the workmen have at their fingers' ends, and will execute for you without instructions or explanations, are very commonly of one character, and that a very bad character indeed. The few houses in our great cities which a real estate broker would call "decorated" are all treated within to a sort of scene-painting which seeks to assert something quite false and, indeed, incredible about the make and surface of the walls and ceilings. The application of these histrionic effects seems to be universal. The ideal perfection of them is to be seen only in the drop-scenes of our larger theatres, which have sometimes quite a deceptive appearance of being what they are not, as stone, or marble, or panelled wood walls, pierced with windows and decorated with arcades. But more or less successful imitation of the same kind is common in our more expensive houses, and is not unknown in our churches.

The semblance of masonry of any kind is popular, however, only in the churches and great halls of meeting, and in the entries and vestibules and other half out-of-door parts of a house. It is not thought suitable for more private apartments. For these the favorite decoration is an affectation of a construction peculiar to wood-work, namely, panelling. It is not necessary to this that there should be direct imitation of wood; the color and grain of the wood may be imitated or may not be. Libraries are often painted completely in sham black walnut, and dining-rooms in pretended oak; but the drawing-room walls and ceilings have, oftener, the look of the wooden construction without the look of the wood. No material is imitated; the material is confessed as plaster, painted pale pink, or pale blue, or French grey, or of two or more such faint shades of color. But relief is imitated, and the huge panels are supposed to be sunken two or three inches below the level of the surrounding wall, the edge of the projection heavily moulded. That is the type; there are many ways of varying it and enriching it. Sometimes the mouldings seem to be carved with varied ornaments, and picked out with brighter colors and gilded, bouquets are put into the corners of the panels or festoons hung across them, or wreaths hung up in the middle of them. One panel within another is a common contrivance, which would, indeed, be expensive enough in reality, and would involve the necessity of a very thick wall, but is easily compassed in deceptive painting. The highest achievement of this system of ornament is reached when a female figure, somewhere between a dancing-girl and a nymph or goddess, occupies the middle of every panel, with gauzy crimson or blue robes that complete the chord of color.

The walnut-finished libraries and the oak-finished dining-rooms and offices are better and worse. Better, because consistent in wrong-doing, because sticking to one imitation; worse, because more nearly deceptive and more evidently intended for deception. There is considerable boldness in the way these latter humbugs give the lie to what we know is true about them; there is also skill to help to keep in countenance the brazen imitation Possibly the long reign of this particular piece of self-contradiction is partly due to the skill with which it has been managed; possibly the sheepish quality in human nature which leads men to follow each other blindly, would not alone have sufficed to perpetuate it. It still keeps good company. Not, however, as good company as it once kept. All these imitations of costly materials have lost some of their importance. Their enemies have prevailed against them so far as to banish them from the best society. When Sir Walter Scott would found a baronial family and build a family seat, and Abbotsford resulted from his study of mediævalism and Melrose Abbey, he never suspected that his work was not thoroughly Gothic and thoroughly good, but much of the inner decoration of that building to which he gave such loving study was mere imitation of oak and of marble. The use of the deceptive painting was so naïve and unconscious that some part of the sin of such work is taken from it; but, also, all the beauty the interior might have had is taken from it, and discredit is cast upon all the antiquarian treasures with which the building is filled. Some friend sent to Scott beautiful oak wainscoting of the fourteenth century; there was not enough of it to line the whole room, it was eked out with plaster disguised by the painter's and grainer's brush and fingers. The ceilings of some of the principal rooms are still, to the careless eye, all of old oak, the heavy frame-work of massive carved beams exposed, and decorated with armorial shields, also of oak, all dark and venerable with time; it is only a careful look that detects the plaster surface and the brush marks. Flat stones were laid to pave a passage—laid as carefully and the edges adjusted as accurately as possible; then the surface was painted in imitation of marble, the painted joints quite independent of the hidden real ones. In this latter case "the stones cried out against him," as Scott himself said. The real slabs dislocated the false joints by insisting on their own.

If Sir Walter Scott were to build Abbotsford now, he would not err in that way. We are confident, too, that if the trustees of the British Museum were to build a new building to contain the treasures in their charge, they would not, in their main hall of entrance and on their principal stairway, contrast with real, enduring, adamantine red granite from Egypt a pretty imitation of it. That is to say, decoration by delusions has lost something of its good reputation. But with us in America it holds its own. We are not at all sure that in a new Astor Library building the mistake of the present one would be avoided, and the marble coping of the entrance stairway no longer disgraced by a plaster-and-paint semblance of itself. If Boston were to build a new City Hall, the hollow wooden columns on the stairway to look pretty, with the slender iron ones inside them to do the work, would probably be perpetuated. The bodies of our carriages will for a long time yet be disfigured by basket work of split cane, or by an imitation of it, put on with thick projecting color, where even real basket-work would be meaningless and a sham. And, in like manner, we can see no reason to suppose that fewer rich men will have their dining-rooms "panelled in oak" this year than last.

In considering how we ought to decorate by painting, let us stick to our billiard-room. Let us assume that there is a wooden wainscoting three feet high, in order that chairs and other movable furniture may be pushed back, if at all, against woodwork rather than against breakable plaster. Let us also suppose, to soften the angle between walls and ceiling, a cornice of some material, no matter whether wood or plaster, stamped metal or terra cotta, *papier mâché* or vulcanized rubber, but small, not more than eight inches high and a foot on the ceiling. Now there must be a border, a frieze, a broad band of the richest decoration and the brightest color, used along the top of the wall. There is no really successful design without it. We did not advise it in papering rooms, only because there are no pretty borders in paper to be had. From the days of the Panathenaic bas-reliefs, belted around the cella wall of the Parthenon, to the modern Polynesian savage, whose skilful carving of his paddle, which shames modern civilization, has for its first principle a border within which all the main design is contained, all true decorators have felt this need. The border may, perhaps, be an arcade—not in relief, not with shadow, but in pure flat color. Suppose, for instance, a row of semi-circles like arches, just bands of color an inch wide, alternately red and blue, and so interlaced that they continually make pointed arches half red and half blue. Suppose that each meeting of two red or two blue semi-circular arches is upon a floral similitude of a capital of the arch-blue and a little orange, and the *quasi* capital above a spiral hint at a shaft of the arch-red and a little green. Suppose that all this is on a pale buff ground; all perfectly shadowless and flat; the whole breadth of the band so designed about two and a half feet—that, or something like that, would make an excellent border.

The color, and something of the pattern of this, ought to be repeated, in a narrow band about six inches wide, just above the wainscot. There are

left nearly eight feet in height of wall between this latter narrow band and the border. This, the principal wall surface, is to be the simplest in pattern in our room decorated with flat decoration only. A design quite like a good design for paper will be good here; one unit or two or three units of design often repeated. Or, if the whole is divided into high and narrow panels (to use an inaccurate but customary word), every panel may have a different design within it, and will be better so if they somewhat agree in character and harmonize in color.

Space fails us, but the subject remains hardly touched upon. We hope to revert to it at another time.

THE "GERMAN" AS A SCHOOL OF MANNERS.

When Ethiopian serenaders first entranced the public in England, and crowded houses nightly attested the attractions of Jim Crow and his million of successors; when Lady Clementina practised "Villikins and his Dinah," while Capt. George listened admiringly—*Punch* described Ethiopia as a district consisting of six or twelve chairs, situated on a platform behind footlights, and inhabited by creatures with lamp-black faces, who sang absurd songs and made very stupid jokes. Just so to-day, when one reads the heading of this article, every intelligent mind understands that this is no attack upon an innocent nation or individual peaceably given to smoke and beer, but it has reference to another collection "of six or twelve chairs," inhabited by the best society, robed in tulle, silk, and broadcloth.

We all are aware that towards the close of a ball, when chaperons are greedy for bed, there comes a lull which the uninitiated might suppose meant a general breaking up. The knowing ones know better. Chairs emerge from corners and quarters unsuspected and range themselves around the room. Sandwiches of young men and young women are seen to occupy these chairs; first "a youth," then "a maiden," until the magic circle is complete and the business of the evening begun.

The scene is harmonious, to all appearance; faces shine brightly with anticipation; and the tired mammas prop themselves against the wall and pray for patience. No matter what is the figure with which the leader chooses to open the ballet, it is sure to be pretty and graceful. The male dancers and the *coryphées* are ready, and, holding the *première danseuse* well in hand, he whirls off.

"Do n't take out Julia Jones," whispers the divinity in scarlet roses; "she wants to come into our set, and she sha' n't."

Her partner nods assent, and then unceremoniously catches up a half-dozen beauties and ranges them in accordance with the half-dozen gentlemen whom the fair persecutor of Julia Jones has already manœuvred into place. The word is passed from lip to ear, and Julia Jones has a sombre time of it. She sits, as it were, apart from the crowd, and, until her "turn" comes, might as well have gone home an hour before. And she is not the only victim. There are more Julia Joneses than one in so large an assemblage, and not a few feminine natures are made to feel the pin-pricks of girlish rivalries.

What says Aytoun?

> "Men hate, because in act or strife
> They cross each other's path.
> Short is the space for jealousy,
> And fierce the hour of wrath.
> But woman's hate runs deeper far,
> Though shallower at the spring.
> . . . . . .
> A fairer face—a higher place—
> More worship—more applause—
> Will make a woman hate her friend
> Without a deadlier cause."

And hating her, whether friend, foe, or stranger, what field like the German for exercising the delights of vengeance?

One method we have just noted; another is to arrange matters in the figure so as to force Louisa to dance with Charles, whom she refused yesterday, or with Laurence, who jilted her last summer. But then what right has Louisa to look so fresh and wear such a lovely dress, when she, Jane, is conscious of a *toilette manquée* or *soupçon* of rouge? With the male inveterates, taking it for granted that there lurks "a deadlier cause," the results are pretty much the same. The Carlyles cut Tom Perkins at their last ball; here is the occasion for Tom to lame Bob Carlyle, as innocently as possible, just by bringing his heel unconsciously down upon Bob's patent-leather toes; and as for Mary Carlyle, how easy it is to pause long enough before her to make her half rise and hold out her hand, expectantly, while Tom looks surprised and gives his to the lady next door! All these small incidents, and dozens like them, are enacted with smiling cheeks and smooth brows. And they are so many lessons taught to govern the days of one's life. You observe that disdain, envy, malice, and revenge have their pretty, petty triumphs, and the little tiger-cubs of both sexes taste the blood on which they mean to live and fatten.

We saw, the other evening, a German conducted on the best principles, offensive and defensive. A great, wide, brilliant circle. Ex-soldiers in late uniforms; generals, still in the service, gold-laced and gilt-buttoned; gentlemen, not military, in black and white; handsome women rustling in *ruches* and ribbons; stylish women stunning in strange devices of costume and coloring; plain women smiling in spite of fate, and doing their best to make one forgive their neglect of what somebody sets forth as a woman's duty, "Will I, will I—look pretty?" The *mise en scène* was really perfect—flags upon the wall, wreaths upon the ceiling, draped chandeliers, flowers, and a waxed floor. The German was inaugurated! Lightly sprang to their feet, at the call of the leader, a dozen dancers. Variegated scarfs floated from their uplifted arms, and then pink danced with pink, and blue with blue, until the seven couples were mated, made their giddy round, and the airy mantles fell on other shoulders. Had we been an ordinary mortal, this would have been all that our eyes and ears could discover; but, gifted with that power that one assumes with the pen, we saw and heard the by-play which kept even pace with the plot. We noticed that, having begun at the extreme end of the room, all the fun continued there. Again and again the same dancers took the floor and kept it. Patiently the scores of sitters sat on, fringing the dowagers against the wall like gay stripes upon a sober-hued Balmoral. Unweariedly the leader and the ladies, with the partners thereof, got up and waved the bright scarfs, and made momentary tableaux, and floated around. Green skirts and blue, white skirts and yellow, swam and sprawled, and somebody said to somebody else, "It must be dull for those over there."

"Who cares?" asked a sweet voice, and a gay laugh rang out defiantly.

At length, half tired of the sport, one gentleman ventured to choose a dancer who was waiting for her turn "afar off." The queens of the ballet consented, and the outsiders were gradually taken in because mesdames the *premières danseuses* wanted rest.

And now we watched a little woman, a stranger, whose bright glances had steadily followed the manœuvres of the German. Her lithe figure, supple yet robust, and the graceful play of arms and waist, could show the most unpractised eye that she was a dancer. Evidently, also, she was there *to* dance. Her dress, in exquisite taste, had attracted much attention—too much, perhaps, for arrayed against her now was the sense of feminine jealousy.

"What business had she there at such a time?"—we had long seen a spirit of impatience "ride sparkling" in her imperious eyes—an hour had passed since she took her seat to dance the German, and she had never yet moved.

A stray gentleman, leading the figure, the eternal scarfs dangling from his hand, drew near—and passed on, singling out her neighbor. Another and another, right and left, they were finally permitted to use their stiffened limbs, but no relief came to this beleaguered sentinel.

Then we saw her rise and take her partner's arm—a stranger like herself—and make her way to her chaperon, who was dancing, and *had been dancing*, with one of the managers of the ball. "I am going home," she said curtly. "So soon! Are you tired of the German?" "Very—of looking on. I have sat for one hour and twenty minutes watching a performance in which I have been permitted to take no part. It does not amuse me to see the young ladies' ankles, and, having no daughter to look after, I have not the fortitude of the sleepy matrons who have daughters. It does not suit me to wait another hour for the privilege of thrusting a scarf into the unaspiring hand of some one of these gentlemen, who have with commendable unanimity declined including me in a dance which I presumed was open to all present."

"I suppose your being a stranger—"

"Pardon me, because I *am* a stranger would, in the country from which I come, be a claim upon civility, not a barrier to it. Were you to take your seat in a German there, you would be singled out repeatedly, from the fact that good manners inculcate, as they spring from, consideration of the feelings and rights of others."

She courtesied low, and we saw her sweep from the hall. "Consideration for the feelings and rights of others." A grave deduction from so light a subject. It is the moral of this German.

AMERICAN CATTLE.

Some account having been given in a previous number of the importations of short-horns and the effect they have had in improving the common stock of the country, it remains to consider the importation of other breeds and to point out how far they have influenced the cattle of the United States.

We have alluded to the effort of the Hon. Henry Clay to introduce the Herefords into Kentucky in the year 1817. That, as we have seen, was in the early days of the short-horns, and before their unrivalled merits were fully understood. In 1824, Admiral Coffin, of the Royal Navy, sent a superior Hereford male and heifer to the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture. These animals were kept at Northampton, in the Connecticut Valley, and left a numerous progeny, which was highly esteemed in that neighborhood, where distinct traces of it may be seen to the present day.

But the largest importation of this breed was made by Messrs. Corning and Sotham, of Albany, N. Y., in the year 1840. This lot consisted of five males and seventeen females. Other additions were made to this herd in subsequent years, and a considerable part of it is still in the hands of Mr. Sotham, we believe. Hon. L. A. Dowley, formerly of Boston, now of New York, also imported several fine specimens of Herefords, which were kept at Brattleboro', Vt. A part of this herd went afterwards to the State Farm at Westboro', Mass., and from there into the hands of Merryman, the bridge-burner, of Baltimore Co., Md. The Herefords are not adapted to the wants of a section of comparatively small dairy farms. They are not adapted to New England, except, perhaps, to small localities devoted to grazing, which are limited in that part of the country. In point of symmetry and beauty of form they may be classed with the improved short-horns, though they are, perhaps, a little slower in coming to maturity. Still they take on fat with remarkable rapidity, and their beef is of higher quality than that of the short-horns, and brings a correspondingly higher price in the Smithfield market. It is a curious fact that the "cuts" for the rich in England come from the Herefords, the Devons, or the West Highlanders; while those for the people come from the short-horns or other classes.

The North Devons have been introduced into this country in greater numbers. There are many who are inclined to think they laid the foundation of the common stock of New England, and that the prevailing color of New England cattle, which is red, is an evidence of this. As a race the Devon dates much further back than its history can be traced; but the modern improvements, as in other breeds, are of comparatively recent origin. However much it may have been given to milk in its earlier history, it is now bred almost exclusively for beef. The oxen, when broken to labor, excel all others in quickness, docility, and beauty. They are rather numerous in the vicinity of Baltimore, Md., where Mr. Patterson has bred them for many years with special reference to the dairy, and has developed or preserved whatever milking qualities they originally possessed; but the result is a very different animal from the modern improved Devon, as it is commonly accepted in England and this country.

The Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture also imported a herd of North Devons some years ago. They were kept together a few years and then disposed of. The milking qualities of this breed not proving satisfactory, it has never become a general favorite in New England. The production of beef being an entirely secondary object, any imported breed must have other qualities to recommend it. They are good as working oxen, to be sure, on account of their quickness and ease of motion, but the New England farmer has an almost equally good stock for this purpose in his "natives." They give rich milk, but the Jerseys give richer. It must be admitted, however, that the Devons have been extensively crossed with the common stock of the country, and that they have exerted a powerful influence upon it.

The Ayrshires were imported into this country many years ago, and have proved a success in regions of small farms devoted to the dairy, particularly where the production of milk is an object of pursuit or where cheese-making prevails. The Ayrshires, crossed with the common stock of New England, have proved also to be remarkably good, and well adapted to the circumstances in which they are placed. One of the cows of this breed, originally imported by the late John P. Cushing, of Watertown, near Boston, gave in one year 3,864 quarts of milk, beer measure, or over ten quarts a day for the year, an average much larger than that of the common stock of the neighborhood at that time. The first Ayrshire cow imported by the Massachusetts Society for Promoting Agriculture yielded sixteen pounds of butter a week for several weeks in succession on grass-feed alone, while a cow imported by H. H. Peters, of Southboro', Massachusetts, in 1858, gave an average of 49 lbs. 3 oz. of milk per day for 114 days, beginning on the 1st of June, 1862. In three days in July her milk yielded 6 lbs. 3 oz. of butter.

These are rather rare and exceptional cases, it is true, but they serve to show the characteristics of the breed; and when it is considered that the animal is hardy, of small size, and yields a greater amount of milk in proportion to the food consumed than any other distinct breed, it will naturally be inferred that this cow is admirably adapted to the majority of farms in that part of the country where, it must be borne in mind, the demand for milk, for consumption in the numerous cities and factory villages which line the course of every stream, is very great and constantly increasing. Indeed, the Ayrshire may be taken as the type of the New England cow, as the short-horn may be regarded as that of the Kentucky or Western cow.

The Ayrshire has, therefore, been pretty extensively imported into the Eastern States, where it has been kept and bred in small herds, from which it has gone out into the hands of dairy farmers and been extensively crossed with the common stock, which it has almost invariably elevated and improved. But it is not in New England alone that the Ayrshire has been widely introduced and exerted a strongly marked influence. It has gone into New York, and some of the leading breeders of this class of stock are to be found there devoting their attention with great enthusiasm to the improvement of their herds. Many of the finest Ayrshires in the country have been bred around Baltimore, a section admirably adapted to them.

It remains to speak of the Jerseys, another favorite dairy breed which has had a wide influence within the last few years upon the stock of the northern and middle Atlantic States, and is destined, on account of its rising popularity, to become one of the leading breeds of these sections. The Jersey is the gentleman's cow. No animal surpasses it in richness of milk and the high color and delicious flavor of its butter. Where a man keeps but one or two cows for the purpose of supplying his family with milk and butter, where quality is more of an object than quantity, this is the cow of all others, and hence it is fast increasing in numbers around the large cities, at the fashionable watering-places, and the favorite summer country resorts of gentlemen from the city.

The Jerseys have been imported in great numbers within the last fifteen years not only into New England, but into New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Maryland. Not unfrequently a specimen or two will be found at the homesteads of the great short-horn breeders of Kentucky and the West, and if any surprise is manifested, as if they were out of place, the reply will be that they must have something to furnish a little milk and butter for the family.

To show how far this favorite breed has increased within a very recent period, it may be mentioned that in 1853 there were but about seventy-five pure-bred Jerseys in Massachusetts. They are now numbered by the thousand in that State, while since that date the price has increased more than a hundred per cent., and the supply at the present moment is far below the demand. The same is true, to nearly as great an extent, in the other Atlantic States where the breed is known.

Though quite out of place even on a dairy farm devoted to the production of milk for sale, in those localities where butter is extensively made, the Jersey is an important addition to the herd, either in the form of one or more pure-bred animals, or in a mixture of the strain of Jersey blood through the dairy herd. In either case the improvement is quite remarkable. One or two pure Jerseys in a herd of twenty will exert a marked influence on the quantity and quality, the color and flavor, of the butter.

The milk of the Jersey is different in mechanical or chemical composition from that of the Ayrshire. The butter particles rise through it with greater facility. It contains less caseine. In the attempt to make cheese from it, as compared with the milk of the Ayrshire, the farmer would find it to be a failure; not that a very rich cheese cannot be made from it, but that the quantity would not bear comparison.

This difference is apparent even to the naked eye, for if we take two specimens of milk, one from the pure Ayrshire, the other from the pure Jersey, and set them in favorable conditions for the cream to rise, for the requisite time, say twelve to eighteen hours, and then skim the two, we shall find the former will give us less rich cream than the latter; but the skimmed milk will still be comparatively thick and white, the color being due to the caseine which surrounds the butter particles and holds them in suspension, while the skimmed milk of the Jersey will be blue, thin, and watery. In other words, the one is still rich, and would make a very fair skimmed-milk cheese, the other of very poor quality.

To consume in its natural form, as milk, we regard the product of the Ayrshire the better of the two—more nutritive and more wholesome. This is evident from the fact that the Ayrshire milk contains a larger proportion of caseine than Jersey milk; for it is to the caseine, chiefly, that we are to look for nutritive elements, the butter or oily constituents adding flavor and delicacy, what we call richness, to the taste. The flesh and muscle forming

constituents are to be found in the caseine. This is a nitrogenous substance very nearly analogous in composition to fibrine, gluten, and albumen, and almost identical in chemical constitution with flesh. It is one of the most important elements of nutrition, in fact, and it is well known that cheese, which is the product of the caseine in milk, is one of the most nutritive of substances, more nutritive, even, than butcher's meat. The Jersey milk will make a rich cheese, but it will not make so much as that from Ayrshire milk.

There are some other European breeds that have been introduced into this country to a limited extent, but no others that have exerted anything like the widespread influence of those already mentioned upon our common stock. Among them the Dutch may be mentioned as one of the most prominent. These cattle are large in size, the prevailing color black, with more or less white, either in patches over the body or one great sheet of white extending over the back. They are usually great milkers and great consumers, but their milk is thin and of rather poor quality. They are also difficult to fatten off for the butcher after their milking days are over, more so than any of the breeds upon which we have dwelt. The proportion of food required to bring them into condition is altogether out of proportion to the results. As a breed it was at one time rather popular in England, but it has almost entirely lost its hold upon the estimation of dairymen and others there, and it will soon cease to be regarded as of any account in comparison with other and more profitable breeds in that country.

The number of pure-bred Dutch cattle, and of any other recognized breeds, is so small in comparison with those above alluded to, and the influence they have exerted upon our stock is so slight, that it is not necessary to dwell upon them further.

If, now, we take a casual glance at the improved stock of the country, we shall find that the beef and dairy breeds have been distributed in sections where we should naturally expect to find them—the former, most largely represented by the short-horns, having taken possession of the fertile plains of the great West, Kentucky, Ohio, Illinois, and other grazing and corn-growing districts still further West and beyond the Mississippi, while the latter have been more generally, though, of course, not strictly, confined to the older Atlantic States. There are a few successful breeders of short-horns even in New England; but they look rather to a distant than a home market, with the exception of a few well-defined localities which may be regarded as adapted to this large breed.

New York also has the credit of possessing some of the finest short-horn herds in the country, few breeders anywhere having a wider or more enviable reputation than Col. Thorne, of Washington Hollow, and several others that might be named, whose efforts are an honor to the country. The breeding of this class of stock has, for the most part, been confined to enterprising persons who are able to keep pretty large herds, and who make it a specialty to a great extent, and they bring to it great skill and judgment, and conduct it with a degree of system which ensures success. The owners of Jerseys, on the other hand, have hitherto made the breeding of stock rather a secondary object of pursuit, subsidiary to the practical purposes of the butter dairy, or of supplying themselves with milk and butter. Hence these cattle are more seldom found in large herds, but are kept in small numbers by a large number of people. Within a range of twenty-five miles of Boston or New York, for instance, hundreds of gentlemen might be named who keep one, two, or three pure-bred Jerseys, while there are very few large herds where the object is to supply the demand of the public for these choice cows.

The same is true, to nearly as great an extent, of the Ayrshires. And yet no one can deny that it would be of great public advantage to have certain large breeding establishments, each devoted exclusively to some one pure-bred class, where a gentleman could go with entire confidence in the quality and the purity of the stock he wishes to obtain.

There are, in nearly every State, certain public establishments, like the State almshouses, the lunatic hospitals, and other public charitable institutions, having farms connected with them as a part of the system. In a large proportion of these institutions extensive herds of cows must be kept for the purpose of supplying the wants of the inmates. It is the duty of all such public institutions to keep only the breed of cows best adapted to supply them with milk, and adapted also to the farms in their respective neighborhoods. They would, by so doing, accomplish two great public objects instead of one. They would produce an equal amount of milk, and at the same time become great breeding establishments, where a high class of stock would be raised, and they would exercise a widespread and elevating influence upon the cattle of a large extent of country. In what way could they serve the public more directly and practically?

If we are permitted to look to Europe for examples of liberal public spirit, we shall find that very many of the governing classes have adopted the system of establishing large breeding herds of pure stock for the purpose of developing and improving the neat cattle of their respective countries, under the impression that this branch of agriculture really lies at the foundation of all rural prosperity. The late Prince Albert, for instance, established a magnificent herd of two hundred short-horns at the Home Farm, near Windsor Castle; another of ninety pure-bred Herefords at the Flemish Farm, two miles away; another of a hundred pure-bred Devons on an adjoining estate called the Norfolk Farm; and all those herds were bred with extraordinary care.

The late King William of Würtemberg began as early as 1824 to import and breed short-horns with the conviction that they would be the means of developing a taste for farming pursuits in his subjects and of improving the stock of his country. His example was soon imitated by the emperors of both Russia and Austria, and subsequently by the unfortunate Louis Philippe of France, and by Napoleon III., who has not only bought extensively and at enormous prices, but hired celebrated males from the famous herd of Booth, of Warlaby.

The King of Sardinia has done the same; while Spain has more recently made the attempt to build up and improve her Andalusian cattle by similar means. Other examples of public spirit in this direction might be named, all going to show that it is regarded as of great public importance that such efforts should be made to improve the stock of the farm. In this country we have nobody to undertake these great enterprises for us, and there is the more reason why we should undertake them ourselves. There is no place so appropriate as upon the farms connected with our public institutions. The expense would be too trifling to constitute any objection. In fact, after the herd were once well established, it might be made a source of actual profit to the institutions. It costs no more to raise a pure-bred animal than it does a scrub; while, after it is old enough to sell, it will bring a far larger sum.

At a recent public sale of two herds, one of Ayrshires and another of Jerseys, in the State of Connecticut, the calves of the former breed averaged over $70 a piece, those of the latter $85. The Ayrshire cows sold at an average price of $193, and the Jersey cows at an average of $293. When it is considered that one of these herds, the Ayrshires, was sold under very unfavorable circumstances, being for the most part in very low condition, it will be apparent that cows of either breed must be more profitable to raise than such as are commonly kept at our public institutions.

But the question of profit, though worthy of consideration, is entirely secondary to the main object which these establishments should have in view so far as their farming operations are concerned, which is the good of the public and the elevation and improvement of the stock of their respective localities. A branch of farming which involves so vast an amount of capital as that of the stock interest of this country cannot be regarded as of small importance, nor is its development unworthy to command the highest intelligence and the most consummate skill. The rewards of success are ample and encouraging, whether they may belong to public institutions or to private enterprise.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, January 26, 1866.

THE new "season" may now be fairly regarded as begun, the first of the state balls, given every winter at the Tuileries, having just taken place. The enemies of crinoline will be sorry to learn that the prospect of the downfall of that obnoxious institution seems to be further off than ever, as the display of skirts at the ball in question was greater than ever, thus settling the "vexed question" of "to be" or "not to be" inflated for the next twelvemonth. The hooped petticoat is now made very small at the top, almost resting on the hips of the wearer, and falling straight in front, so as to do little more than keep the superimposed draperies from actually touching the knees, but forming a train behind far more extensive and comet-like than anything heretofore attempted in the way of "tails." The cage thus prepared and extended now receives a second "tail," fastened on behind about a foot from the bottom of the skirt, and forming a train that projects fully a couple of feet beyond the furthest extremity of the cage itself. This supplementary tail comes quite down to the ground, on which it drags as the wearer moves. The object of this latest achievement of petticoat engineering is to enable its wearer to display a "train" of silk, satin, velvet, or tulle, of from three to four feet. Above it is worn a flounced skirt, so long as to stream out a little way beyond the outermost wire of the crinoline—ladies of particularly insatiable vanity often wearing two, three, and four of these upper skirts, each longer and fuller than the one below it. Upon this ponderous framework is displayed the skirt of the dress, cut rather short in front and at the sides, but streaming

out behind like a meteor. This skirt is gored from top to bottom, some of the breadths being sloped on both sides, others on one side only. It is enormously full at the bottom, while diminished so much at the top as to form but a few plaits. The front breadth is often made without any plait, being sloped so as to lie flat across the body.

One favorite style of dress, the "robe princesse," is made entirely without plaits, each breadth being gored so as to fit the substructure of skirts (the latter being gored in like manner) without any fulness. Flounces are not much in favor at present, preference being given to flat trimmings, of some according or contrasting color, sewn upon the bottom of the skirt, and trimmed with gold, silver, glass, spangles, or feathers. In some cases the *corsage* is made quite plain, in others a drapery is worn much resembling the "Greek folds" of twenty years ago.

Glass beads are "a rage" at present; glass fringe in the drapery, long double or treble rows of large glass beads on the neck and arms, and glass beads in the hair. These beads, especially the colorless ones, of crystal, which shine and sparkle very brilliantly under lustres and chandeliers, though very cheap, are worn by the grandest dames, who, like Princess Metternich, will go to the Tuileries one night loaded with more of these cheap ornaments than would content an Indian squaw, and the next will dazzle beholders with a couple of millions of francs' worth of diamonds.

Gold and silver cord, spangles, zecchins, white jet, Cluny lace, covered with imitation pearls, which are sewed thickly upon it, so that the lace seems almost to be made of pearls; ribbons with patterns of gold or silver, fringes made of gold, silver, steel, or glass beads, or pearls, are the favorite trimmings. Garlands and bouquets of flowers are still used, and bands composed of black or colored feathers. Satins are decidedly in favor, velvet being now considered only as *demi-toilette*. Striped silks are more in favor than patterns; but for ball dresses, gauzes, organdies, and other transparent tissues, with bouquets or spots scattered over the transparent white ground, are in great request. For *demi-toilette*, zouaves and other styles of jacket are fashionable; and basquines are coming in again, with high bodies.

The hair is worn much higher at the back of the head, and covered with little close curls, in the style of the First Empire and of Louis XIV. These curls are not very costly; they are sewed on narrow bands of ribbon, and sold at so much per yard. For fifteen or twenty francs one has enough to impart to the head the desired resemblance to the fur of a Newfoundland dog. Bands of ribbon, or gold, are wound about the head, over these curls, and often produce a very pretty effect. The fashionable wreaths for the hair are now made long enough to hang down behind and pass round the neck under the chin, to the other side of the head. Chains of jet are also wound about the head and neck in similar fashion; but this new style being inconvenient and unbecoming, is hardly likely to become general. Masses of false curls, false braids, and false *chignons* are still worn; but hair-dressers affirm that the present fashion of loading the head with false hair must, ere long, be brought to an end by the impossibility of procuring the necessary supplies of hair. Already the difficulty of obtaining hair has brought certain enterprising "hair-hunters" (as they are technically termed) into trouble, as has been shown by an incident that occurred a few days ago, on the Boulevard Montmartre, where a young girl was found by a policeman, weeping so bitterly as to excite the inquisitive pity of that functionary. Questioned by the guardian of public order as to the cause of her tears, the girl replied that she was an orphan, that both her parents had recently died of cholera, leaving her in the utmost poverty, and that having made the acquaintance of a certain D. he had offered to place her with his wife as a housemaid; that she had accepted this offer, and had gone with D. to his house, but had seen nothing of his wife, who was, he said, gone into the country for a day or two; that D., on pretext that she might be hungry, had given her a piece of bread and a glass of wine, which latter had "got into her head" in a very strange way, and had caused her to become unconscious for an hour or two; that, on coming to herself, she found that her hair, which was jet black and very luxuriant, had been cut off while she had been asleep; and that D., on finding her awake, had ordered her to go away, telling her she had no business to be there, and had pushed her out into the street, telling her, in answer to her reproaches for the theft of her hair, that she was a drunken jade, and that he did not know what she was talking about. The policeman, having heard the girl's story, which she confirmed by taking off her cap and showing him that her hair was cut off close to the roots, gave information to his chiefs of the assault that D. had committed, and proceeded, with a couple of his brethren, to the house indicated by the girl. Through their investigations it was ascertained that D., who is a hair-dresser, is also a dealer in hair, and that he has obtained large quantities of this article by frequenting the public balls, making acquaintance with the women he meets there, and contriving, by the offer of small sums of money, to induce them to sell him their locks. Latterly, the demand for hair increasing, and the supply falling off, this zealous caterer to the folly of the hour has adopted the violent mode of proceeding which has brought him into uncomfortable contact with the arm of the law. It seems that he has latterly been in the habit of prowling about the lowest quarters of the capital, where he watches for any girls whose appearance betokens poverty and friendlessness, and having inveigled them to his lodgings, contrives, either by the offer of a trifling sum of money, or, if that is rejected, by violence, to possess himself of their hair. A great number of curious letters were found at D.'s lodgings. One of these billets ran thus:

"Monsieur, you are a scoundrel. You have stolen my hair, and left me to starve. You know well enough that, up to this hour, you have not paid me one *sou*. ERNESTINE."

A certain countess writes as follows:

"Monsieur, you have not acted honestly. The hair you have sold me is doubly false, for it is dyed, and stains my neck. I warn you that, if you do not change it, I shall summon you before the tribunal for deception in regard to the quality of the goods you have sold to me."

Another correspondent addressed the hair embellisher in these words:

"Infamous brigand, you nearly strangled me while cutting off my hair by force, and you leave me without a farthing. If, by six o'clock this evening, you have not sent me two Napoleons, I will denounce your villany to the police. [illegible] TH."

The evidence against the too enterprising "hair-hunter" [illegible] seemed conclusive, D. was sent to prison, where he now is to await [illegible]

But, to return from this digression. Bonnets are worn [illegible] ller than before. The "Empire" is the "rage" of the moment, a[illegible] es to hide the ears and the top of the head. Birds, flowers, cha[illegible] cameo-buttons, and rows of beads are the principal elements of t[illegible] little ornaments (modern bonnets are really nothing else!), satin an[illegible] being the two most fashionable materials. An attempt is being m[illegible] curtail still further the already minute proportions of ladies' head-g[illegible] suppressing that part of the bonnet which covers the ears; the bonnet [illegible] consisting merely of a tiny crown, which lies upon the top of the *chign* (the latter now being worn on a level with the top of the head), and of a shallow rounded rim, the whole only sufficing to cover a few inches of the upper part of the head. This last absurd invention of Parisian eccentricity is styled "the Pamela bonnet;" but the *houris* of the boulevards not yet having adopted it, its success is by no means certain.

Cloaks are worn very short, generally fitting the shape. Fur trimmings, and imitations of astracan in curled worsted, black or grey, are worn on the edges, and round the armholes and pockets. Collars and sleeves are still worn very small, the former being usually a sort of Vandyke affair, with two long points in front.

The ambassadors from Morocco, who have been lionized at grand official dinners, at which they sat smiling, and evidently delighted, but refusing to taste anything but a little tea, have just left us, enchanted with all the wonders they have seen. One of the lionesses at the circus gave birth to three fine cubs, a couple of nights ago, during the performance, the male lions being with difficulty prevented from devouring the interesting infants, which, when rescued by the keepers, and held up to the view of the two-legged spectators, were by them saluted with enthusiastic *vivats*. The baby-lions seemed as wide awake and as collected as though being born were an everyday thing to them; and being confided to a large Newfoundland bitch which had been provided as wet-nurse in waiting to her feline majesty, the three little creatures began sucking with a zest and vigor that were audible throughout the building.

A great excitement was created, a few days ago, at the Garden of Plants by the discovery that one of the bears was on fire. Some mischievous rascal had thrown down into the pit where the bears are kept one of those dangerous toys called "Pharaoh's Serpents;" the serpent lodged in Bruin's fur, and the terrified animal was instantly in a blaze. The guardians went down into the pit, and succeeded, though not without difficulty, in putting an end to the conflagration by tumbling Bruin into the water-tank that serves the bears as a drinking-trough. STELLA.

PARTIES IN ITALY.

CHAMBER OF DEPUTIES, FLORENCE, Jan. 22, 1866.

THE deputies' benches and the public galleries are crowded to hear the financial statement of the new Minister of Finance, Signor Scialoja, and while the "verification of powers" is going on we shall have time for a glance at the physiognomy of the new House of Parliament, which met for the first time on 19th November, 1865, overthrew the Ministry on a question of detail on 19th December, then voted a fortnight's Christmas holidays,

which the Government prolonged by another week, and is now re-assembled to verify the new elections and proceed to the business of the session. When the House was prorogued about eighty colleges remained vacant; some of these are filled, others remain to be balloted for, but the result alters scarcely at all the relative position of parties in the House. At the time of the presidential (or speaker's) election the "left" boasted that they could cast 130 compact votes; the right about the same number; the remainder belonging to the centre, left centre, third party or Ratazzians, who enjoy the privilege of turning the scales in favor of whichever side they prefer. As, then, the late elections have given six members to the right and half-a-dozen to the left, it becomes a question of life or death to conservatives and *progressisti* to win over this party to their side. The Ratazzians or third party were the liberals in the Piedmontese chamber when Cavour, then Minister of the Navy, shocked his premier, the conservative but patriotic D'Azeglio, by holding out to them the hand of fellowship. They accepted it, and worked with the great statesman till his death, when the compact and well-ordered ranks of the moderate party split into fractions, and called themselves "Ratazzians," "Ricasolians," "Lamarmorians," etc., each in turn taking their lease of power, doing their utmost to upset each other, only combining when the dread spectre of the red shirt rose before their eyes. In that first Italian parliament the "left" can scarcely be said to have had a collective existence. At the elections of 1861 the radicals were far more anxious for a summons from Caprera than for an arm-chair in *Palazzo Madarua*. Some twenty or thirty radicals did take the oath to the "King, his heirs, and the constitution;" but they were undisciplined and disorganized, did some good service as *bersaglieri*, and no more.

But Sarnico and Aspromonte seem to have taught the members of the liberal party that the *plebescite*, while it imposed on the King the duty of freeing Rome and Venice, gave him also the right to choose his own time; that hence, as war can only be proclaimed by his government, the speediest way of making war is to seize the reins of that government. If we except two or three ultra republicans who deem monarchical unity fatal to Italy, all the prominent men of the party of action echoed the cry "To the urn—to the urn!" Mazzini urged his friends to choose members who would insist on immediate war for Venice; Garibaldi *item;* the nation answered their appeal, and our left benches are now thronged with men who, in exile, prison, or on the field, have worked for their country's liberation. Twenty-three Garibaldian officers are there; I see a handful at the extreme left—Colonels Corte, Guastalla, Pianciani, and Chiassi, and Majors Guerzani and Cairoli—who will give their moderate leaders a mint of trouble ere they allow them to celebrate the proposed marriage with the left centre. This, however, is the formal programme of Crispi and Mordini; excluding Ratazzi as the minister during Aspromonte, they invite the Piedmontese faction and the remnants of the third party to join them, and together ascend to power. No answer has as yet been vouchsafed; but if it is given in the affirmative, the hours of the present Ministry are counted. As it is, Lamarmora is looked on with no favorable eyes; it was his menace, "to dissolve the House if necessary," that led to the late crisis; and his remaining in office is unhesitatingly attributed to the negotiations with Austria for something more than commercial concessions, and to fresh overtures from the Pope, in consequence of which the bills for the suppression of seminaries, proposed by Natoli, and the bill for the suppression of monastic orders and the administration of ecclesiastical property, brought in by Cortese, are, it is said, to be withdrawn. In any case the present Ministry does not possess the elements of success; and if the proposed coalition of left and left centre is carried into effect, we shall have a radical Ministry before the end of the session. I, for one, shall deeply regret such a premature event; the members of the left are chiefly new to parliamentary life, and of administrative routine they are totally ignorant. It may be said that Mordini and Crispi had some experience during Garibaldi's dictatorship, but that would avail them little as ministers of a united Italy, with an empty treasury, for the solution of the question of Venice, or the how to get Rome and yet keep faith with the signers of the convention of September 15. Like all *ultra* parties, the radicals are in too great a hurry; they have no decisive financial programme; no war programme; no well-organized system of internal reform, so necessary in this transition state, where administrative and legislative unification demands that the best laws of each state shall be extended to the whole.

The ministers have just taken their seats. Lamarmora reads over the names of the members of the cabinet, and Scialoja rises to make his financial statement, of which, at the close, I must give you such a report as can be drawn up in this ill-conditioned reporters' gallery, where only one word in six reaches the ear. Scialoja commenced his speech by assuring the House that the rumors of a new loan were false, that such a measure would be most unadvisable under present circumstances and unnecessary, since it is his opinion that the close of 1866 may be reached without recourse to any extraordinary expedients. He stated that the deficit of 1866 would amount to 266,000,000f.; that, avoiding all empirical remedies, the Ministry proposes two schemes for balancing revenue and expenditure, *i. e.*, the augmentation of the former, the reduction of the latter. As to the 443,491,000f. of public debt, that cannot for the present be touched, as nations can no more fail than individuals in their engagements; neither can the 7,932,000f. for pensions, half-pay, etc., nor the 21,714,000f. for prisons, galleys, etc., be reduced. The necessary expenses he divided thus: 230,000,000f. for the army and navy, 166,000,000f. for all the other branches of the administration. On comparing the balance of 1864 with that of 1866, we find a reduction of expenditure amounting to 150,000,000f., but the nation has not felt the benefit thereof. Between the war and navy, and other offices, another 57,000,000f. may be saved by means of organic reforms; 2,300,000f. are to be saved by changes in the treasury service; 2,500,000f. in the foreign office; 2,084,000f. in the home office; 2,168,000f. by the abolition of the sub-prefectures; 300,000f. by re-organization of the civil engineering service; 1,500,000f. in the post-office and telegraphic departments; 30,000,000f. in the war and navy departments. These economies, amounting in all to 57,000,000f., would reduce the deficit to 211,000,000f., which must be provided for by other means than by a loan. As for existing taxes, it would be difficult to augment them, though by a better and juster distribution they may be made more profitable. Our three chief taxes are property, or, strictly speaking, land tax, income tax, and stamp tax. The land tax would be rendered more productive by being organized on the latest *catasto* (or census of landed property), the income tax must be reduced from 15 to 10 per cent., the window tax, proposed by Sella, withdrawn, but all the others are approved and are expected to produce 20,000,000f. A new tax on wine is to produce 40,000,000f.; minor taxes, 35,000,000f.; Sella's famous tax on the grinding of corn *macinato* is not to be rejected without a hearing, and thus the deficit is to be reduced to 80,000,000f. if the measures proposed be adopted without delay. Such is a faithful, though brief, report of Scialoja's speech, which terminated with an appeal to all parties to unite against the greatest present enemy of Italy—the *deficit*.

The death of the poor little deformed Prince Oddone was announced, in consequence of which the House is to be closed to-morrow. J. W.

Correspondence.

WHO WAS DON QUIXOTE?

To the Editor of The Nation:

Readers of Cervantes' immortal novel who have any acquaintance with the peculiarities of Romanist doctrine cannot have failed to observe therein a great deal of sly allusion which at least smells strongly of heresy, and are quite willing to believe the tradition that he once observed that his book should have been twice as good were it not for the Inquisition. Whether he had not a more peculiar and personal aim is a question to consider.

It is to be noted that the mental condition of his hero is undecided. Cervantes affirms him to be mad; but whether a physician would not pronounce him as sane as St. Theresa or Francis of Assisi is not clear. His creator was fond of telling anecdotes about madmen, and evidently knew the external signs of lunacy well, but has given him no unmistakable feature thereof. All his delusions might be explained by supposing him subject to hallucination, like Swedenborg and Colonel Gardiner, men universally considered sane. Coleridge pronounces him not mad, but one in whom the imaginative faculty had acquired a tyrannous mastery over the perceptive powers. In short, he is a visionary enthusiast to the utmost extreme of sanity, and perhaps beyond it.

We are apt to overlook the influence exercised over great minds by the political and theological events of their time, even in literary matters; perhaps it may come of our slight understanding thereof. But Cervantes was a Spaniard to the core, intensely interested in what was of important concern to his nation. Indeed, there is in all the novel an undertone of sorrowful disappointment—a sense of failure not merely in his own life but in his nation's. When he was young, Spain was in her very pride of place. He himself had been in the great sea-fight that finally thrust back the Turk; and after that it seemed as if not only Spain and Portugal, but France, England, Holland, and Italy, would all be ruled from Madrid. All this had passed away. The heretic English and Dutch swept the seas; Maurice and

Henry of Navarre had proved themselves too much for the Spaniard. And France—not absolutely heretic, but as much hated as if she were—was confessedly coming out first in the race. All this gives its tone to, and is re-echoed in, the work of Cervantes' age—of a time when thoughtful men saw their glory departing, and, like his hero, looked back to a magnificent and heroic past. But there were other matters of temporary and local importance, and what these were I will endeavor to show.

The Spanish population was then divided into three classes: first, the hidalgos, or "petite noblesse," who claimed to descend from those who had reconquered the land from the Moor; second, the pecheros, descended from those Romanic and Gothic Christians who had submitted to Tarik and Musa, and lived under them as tolerated subjects; third, the new Christians, sprung from converted Jews or Moors, and held in much social disesteem—looked on, in fact, like persons known to be of mulatto descent with us. Now, whether from chance or choice, the Jesuits (organized four years before Cervantes' birth, and for a long time predominantly Spaniards) drew their recruits mainly from the new Christians, playing the same game that the Northern churches propose to play in the South. So much was this the case that, in 1573 (Cervantes being then in his twenty-sixth year), they attempted to make Polanco (of Jewish descent—indeed, it would seem, himself a convert) the general of the order. The disgust of a young hidalgo at such proceedings may be guessed. But in four years a Neapolitan (Aquaviva) was made general, and the management of affairs concentrated in Italy, thus overthrowing the influence of the Spaniards, old Christians or new. Then they quarrelled with the Dominicans on the score of their Augustinian (*Calvinist*) theology, and themselves took that rationalistic and Pelagian line which brought down on them the lash of Pascal in later times. Then the Spanish Inquisition pitched into them. And then the order went over to Henry of Navarre, and formally allied themselves with France and Venice. Just about this time came out the first part of the "Quixote." As to the second, it was published ten years after, when Cervantes lived by the patronage mainly of the Archbishop of Toledo, who hated the Jesuits by necessity of position. Still—although not yet canonized—Loyola was held in great reverence in Spain, and any palpable sneer at him would have brought the jester into unpleasant nearness to the rack and stake. But that did not hinder much sarcastic allusion, of a kind only noticeable by keen observers, and capable of being disclaimed with security.

Ignacio Loyola was, indeed, not an old bachelor but a young soldier, a duellist and an amorist; not merely an intense lover of romances, but had actually written one himself—though in praise of the Apostle Peter. He had chosen for himself a dulcinea—who probably knew as little of it as Aldonza Lorenzo—but she was in rank as he says "more than a duchess." When recovering from his wounds, and perceiving that he could no longer be a soldier, he dreamed of imitating the penances and feats of Francis of Assisi and St. Dominic; but, it would seem, very much as a matter of ambitious adventure. And when he had forsaken house and friends, and gone off in pilgrimage to Montserrat, he thought fit to hang up his armor and hold a vigil; not according to the usage of the Church, nor to that of knighthood, but in precise imitation of an adventure in "Amadis de Gaul." So, afterward, he had hallucinations equal to any of the knights—he conceived himself to have seen the Virgin, Christ, and the Trinity, with his own corporeal eyes. Afterward he became more reasonable and more pious; but these things remained on record, and we may guess the way in which they were regarded in later times by a hidalgo of education, and of humorous and sceptical tendencies, who hated the Jesuits for other good reasons.

It may be said that there is nothing convincing in this. Doubtless not; but had Cervantes written anything *convincing* he would have figured in the next *auto-da-fe*. Whether they do not amount to a *probability* is another question, and one which must be left to the judgment of readers.

S. T.

THE WEST POINT MILITARY SCHOOL:

ITS ABUSES AND THEIR CORRECTIVES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

No similar institution, perhaps, in any country has undergone such scrutiny as the national military school at West Point. The butt of personal or partizan enmity on the one hand, and of ignorance or prejudice on the other, it has been a theme for vituperation both within and outside of Congress. State legislatures have turned aside from their own sphere of action to recommend that their representation in Congress should oppose appropriations for it. Several special commissions have been raised in Congress to investigate and report upon its condition. Even militia conventions in several States have presented the edifying spectacle of passing resolutions solemnly calling upon Congress to abolish this the only national establishment for cultivating and diffusing military science.

That any institution should have existed for over half a century under such persistent assaults, and have undergone such scrutiny with so little that was in any way damaging to its reputation or interests, is not the least remarkable part of this record. But what is not less striking, is the contrast between this condition of things with us and what is seen in every other civilized country in the world, where military schools are carefully fostered by their governments as an essential element of their military system. In France, a country socially more democratic than our own, the Polytechnic, the mother of her scientific military schools, was founded during the fiercest period of her revolutionary struggle, and there is not, probably, a peasant even there who does not regard it with admiration and speak of it with pride. Why in a country like this, where intelligence is so universally diffused, where there is no disposition to withhold a liberal support from any object of national utility, where the annual reports of boards, selected from all sections of the country and from all classes of the community, to investigate the condition of this school, are made public through the daily press, this opposition should still so long have been kept up, can be accounted for hardly upon grounds that are creditable to the common sense and sagacity that we show in most other practical matters.

With all these sources of intelligence, however, and all these discussions respecting what are popularly known as the "Military Academy" and as the "Cadet," strange as it may seem, there are but few persons who know what the one or the other is, as established by law.

The Military Academy is a body of men constituted for the purposes of the cultivation and diffusion of the military art and the sciences pertaining to it, and is composed, by law, of the Corps of Engineers and of certain professors named in the law.

The term and office of cadet are borrowed from European services, and appear upon our statutes as early as 1794, when youths bearing this grade, which is that of a military warrant officer, were assigned to a corps of artillerists and engineers provided for by law at that time.

The Military Academy was created by law in 1802, and West Point was assigned as its permanent location. Subsequent to its establishment, cadets from other arms of the service were also sent to it to receive military instruction, and by a law passed April 29, 1812, it is provided that the cadets of all arms "may be attached, at the discretion of the President of the United States, as students to the Military Academy." That an understanding of the legal import of these two terms is not unimportant, will be apparent from the fact that, either through ignorance or misapprehension of them, grave arguments have been made, both in and out of Congress, against the constitutional power to create a military college; when no one, it is presumed, would question the power to provide any corps with the suitable means of instruction for the duties assigned to it, or object that officers of any grade, from any other corps, might be temporarily attached to it, for the purpose of better qualifying them for the discharge of their appropriate duties. Such, in fact, is the working of what is popularly known as the Military Academy.

Now, whether this could be better accomplished in some other way, and the expense of the military school at West Point be avoided, is a question that has been long agitated in this country. Various measures have been proposed, but, practically, they may be reduced to two.

One is to appoint to commissions of the lowest grade young men who have served a certain period in the ranks of the army.

The other, to make these appointments directly from civil life.

In either case the candidate for appointment to pass an examination of a specific character.

A very cursory glance will suffice to show the inferiority of either of these modes of appointment to the one which is secured through the Military Academy. It may be said, granting you could find young men to enlist with the proper ability and qualifications to prepare for an examination for a commission, what are the opportunities that a barrack or camp, crowded with common soldiers, would afford them for pursuing any severe mental occupation? They would learn, it is true, the military duties, and acquire the discipline of their station, but, in the nature of things, very little else. The difference between their pay and rations and that which the cadet now receives would be very trifling.

In the case of the appointment being made directly from civil life, it cannot be doubted that generally, at least, young men of higher attainments, and of better abilities, would offer as candidates for commissions.

They would thus enter upon the duties of an office which the cadet reaches only after four years of severe military training, not in one branch alone but in every division of the military art: engineering, artillery, cav-

alry, and infantry, in which he has been taught all that is essential as a foundation for the theory of these branches, and has gone through all the practical exercises, from the duty of the common soldier up to that of the commander of a battalion, squadron, and battery. Where can the youth, appointed a lieutenant from civil life, make these acquirements before entering the service? What are the probabilities that in four years, the cadet period, he will have made them in either garrison or camp life? As to the pecuniary item, during these four years, the difference is greatly in favor of the cadet.

But the comparison of the two modes does not stop at this initiatory stage. Confined to it, in view of the light responsibilities resting on a lieutenant, any difference could be but of trifling importance. The great contrast will appear in the highest grades, where important commands, embracing several arms, are to be exercised. In the one case you have a person to command who has been trained in the principles and practice of all of them. In the other, one who, in all probability, knows but little or nothing of any but of the arm into which he was first appointed.

Such, it is believed, are the essential questions in any comparison that can be made between the various modes, proposed and tried, for officering an army. That the results from a properly organized military school, supplied with properly qualified subjects to make use of its advantages, would be the best, not only reason would seem to concede, but, it is thought, the records of even our limited military experience would conclusively show. But this being conceded, we are brought only to the beginning of the difficulties connected with a national military school in this country. These have been so lucidly and strongly stated by a recent writer in THE NATION that to enlarge upon them can add but little strength to his already impregnable positions. Still, if any remedies can be found for the abuses and defects connected with the present school, and which he has so ably pointed out, they can only be hoped for by keeping them so constantly under the public eye as to attract a general acquiescence in the necessity for some salutary changes.

The great defect, the one for which, if there be no remedy, there can be none for most, if for any, of the minor deficiencies in the present institution, is in the mode of appointing cadets from Congressional districts, and virtually by the members from those districts. It is needless to point out the abuses to which this system is open. To any one acquainted with our institutions they are patent. How far it has failed in its results, the proportion of those who have graduated at the institution to those who have been admitted to it is the most unerring criterion for determining. *The proportion, going back for the period of the last twenty-five years, is about one to two; or, in other words, only about one-half of those admitted to the institution have succeeded in accomplishing the courses of instruction taught at it.* That this result is due entirely to the system of appointment, there can be no question; for there is nothing in the courses of instruction or in their amount which any youth of average abilities and average industry ought not to be able to master, even with the very meagre acquirements now demanded for admission into the school.

If this untoward influence ended with the appointment to the institution, it would be bad enough; but it not only insists upon sending incompetent persons to the school, but, in too many cases, in keeping them there after their incompetency has been fully shown by an impartial examination. This abuse had become so glaring, and its evil effects so palpable, that a law for its correction was passed a few sessions since, prohibiting any cadet who had been pronounced deficient either in studies or in habits of good conduct by the faculty of the institution, and who had been recommended, because of incompetency, to be discharged, from being continued at or returned to the institution. This attempt at limiting, by law, an unworthy exercise of patronage was but short-lived. It was repealed at the last session of Congress by an amendment in the House. That the arguments for the repeal were conclusive, in the opinion of the body to whom they were addressed, must be presumed, from the fact that when the amendment was thrown out by the Senate, and a committee of conference asked for, the members of the House upon it, so report goes, offered those of the Senate either to give up their objections or to see the appropriation bill for the institution fail to pass. After this showing, need the writer referred to, in his article in THE NATION, December 28, 1865, wonder at what he states "is a strange fact, that, while many professional soldiers admit all the evils of the present system, they declare themselves unable to see any remedy?"

This is rather a desponding view, it must be confessed, for professional soldiers to take who know what are the sources of these evils. There are but two of any prominence, and those easily remedied by legislation. The first is the present mode of appointing cadets. The second is the restoration of cadets who, for incompetency, have been recommended for discharge. The latter is, perhaps, the greater evil of the two. It has been repeatedly and strongly animadverted on in reports of boards of visitors. Attention has been frequently asked to it by the faculty, who, in a special report made by them in 1862, make the following statements:

"Cadets openly asserted their confidence that they should not be discharged under any circumstances, however unfavorable to them; and such was the increase in the number of deficiencies in conduct (notwithstanding the decrease in the number attributable to each delinquency) as to induce a special report on this subject, by the Academic Board, to the Hon. Secretary of War, in January, 1861.

"An examination of the records of the Academy, for many years, shows that, of those who have failed in the two lower classes (the first and second year's course), and been allowed the privilege of another trial, about *one-third* only have succeeded in graduating; and that, of these, few have reached a high standing in their respective classes. The others remained at the Academy from *one* to *three* years—not only subjecting the Government, for this period, to useless expense on their account, but depriving it, for the same length of time, of the services of their successors.

"The small number thus succeeding, after a second trial, is the more remarkable when it is considered that most of those to whom this privilege was granted were selected and recommended by the Academic Board as the most promising and worthy of those found deficient.

"Under these circumstances, the law of the extra session of Congress, July, 1861, devolving the responsibility of all discharges from the Academy upon the Academic Board, was passed."

It is this law which was repealed in the last session of Congress, as above stated.

This whole subject, upon which so much time has been expended, lies in a very small compass. A youth sent to West Point either cannot or will not conform to the requirements of its *curriculum* and code of discipline. If, from his mental or moral constitution, he cannot do so, then it will be best for the public interest and his own that he should seek some other career. If he will not do so, the obligation is the greater that he should be sent from the institution at the earliest moment practicable. Now who is to decide this question of competency? The law has placed this in the hands of the faculty, as persons who, from their hourly opportunities for ascertaining the mental and moral habits of those under their instruction, are presumed to know most about them. What an unnecessary farce it is to call upon this body to make the examinations requisite for this purpose, and, upon the results of this investigation, to recommend the incompetent for discharge, and then say to them, Gentlemen, you are not infallible, and thus let their recommendation go for nought.

That the evil, so forcibly pointed out in the report, is one of no small magnitude in keeping at the institution incompetent subjects, and thus depriving of an opportunity of availing themselves of its advantages the thousands of youths who are yearly applicants for them, will be apparent from the fact that as many as from thirty-five to forty of such subjects have, at times, been thus retained contrary to the unfavorable opinion of the faculty on their competency.

This national military school is but the creation and creature of the people. If they are satisfied with the mode in which appointments are made to it, and with which, as a trust committed to the hands of their representatives, it is administered, nothing more remains to be said on the subject. But the question may not unfairly be asked, whether an individual would be satisfied to see his private trusts administered in the same spirit?

A WEST POINTER.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

DR. ABEL STEVENS'S interesting little book on the history and present condition of the American Methodist body, prepared in view of the approaching centennial anniversary of the first planting of the denomination in the United States, furnishes some curious statistics respecting the literary operations of the sect whose Book Concern is now the largest religious publishing house in the world. Its earliest operations commenced in 1789, with a borrowed capital of about six hundred dollars, and the first book issued was the "Christian Pattern," a translation by Wesley of à Kempis's celebrated "Imitation." The Northern Methodist Book Concern of the present day comprises two branches, an Eastern and a Western one, with seven depositories and an aggregate capital of nearly nine hundred thousand dollars. Four book agents appointed by the General Conference manage its business. It has twelve editors of its periodicals, nearly four hundred clerks and reporters, and between twenty and thirty cyli nder and power presses constantly in operation. It publishes above five hundred "general catalogue" bound books, besides

many in the German and other languages, and about fifteen hundred Sunday-school volumes. Its tract publications number about nine hundred, in various tongues. Its periodicals include one quarterly review, four monthlies, one semi-monthly, and eight weeklies, with an aggregate circulation of over one million of copies per month. Its quarterly and some of its weeklies have a larger circulation than any other periodicals of the same class in the nation, probably in the world. Its sales in the Valley of the Mississippi alone for the four years ending with January, 1864, were one million and a quarter of dollars. "There has never been an instance of defalcation on the part of its agents. It has never failed in any of the financial revulsions of the country, and it is now able, by its large capital, to meet any new literary necessity of the denomination." How much do "outsiders" know of the operations of this vast organization? There are, no doubt, thousands familiar with books all their lives who have never met with a single one of its publications. It is the difficulty of grasping and allowing their due effect for the instrumentality of such enterprises that makes any generalizations on popular opinion and its sources so often dubious and visionary.

—A case probably unparalleled in this country has been brought for adjudication before the Supreme Court of New York during the last week. It is well calculated to make autograph collectors tremble for the fate of their stores, as it turned upon the right of property in a letter from General Washington to the Mayor and Common Council of this city, in 1785, returning thanks for the freedom of the city, presented to him in a gold box. It formed part of the collection of rare books, engravings, manuscripts, autographs, etc., famous for the last half century as belonging to Mr. John Allan, one of the oldest and best known residents of New York, who died in 1863, in his eighty-sixth year, when his library, etc., was sold at auction by Bangs, Merwin & Co., and amongst other articles the letter in question. It is characteristic of the brief tenure of notoriety in this ever-changing metropolis that Mr. Allan figures in the law reporter's notes given in the New York *Times* as "one John Allen, a gatherer of old and rare books, etc." For more precise information he may be remitted to the elegantly printed "Memorial of John Allan," written by Mr. Evert A. Duyckinck, and sumptuously issued by the Bradford Club. It is well remembered that Mr. Allan's books, from the interest attaching to the collection itself and the numerous friends of the man, brought unprecedentedly high prices. The most costly of all was this letter of George Washington. By a concurrence of two unlimited orders in the hands of agents who were fearful of not meeting the expectations of their principals, it was run up to the absurd sum of $2,050. The buyer, however, found he had gone beyond the means or intentions of his employer, and was unable to complete his purchase, refusing to give up the name of the person for whom he had acted, and the letter remained in the auctioneers' hands until now, when, the facts having drawn attention to the circumstance, a suit was commenced by the city authorities to recover possession of the letter, or its value, as rightfully the property of the city. It seems rather a small matter to task the already overtaxed energies of city counsel and attorneys, particularly as there was plenty of evidence that Mr. Allan had been for more than thirty years in peaceable possession of the document, and the idea of his obtaining it surreptitiously could not for a moment be entertained. The matter was brought to trial on February 14, when the plaintiffs obtained a verdict, not putting them in possession of the letter, it would seem, but of the sum for which it was sold, $2,050. It would appear that the effect of this decision is to confer a right in the receiver of a letter to a perpetual property in it in spite of lapse of time or change of proprietorship. Such a decision would play sad havoc with collections of autographs, and can scarcely be received without some limitation.

—The new English journal of field sports and natural history presents an inviting list of contents. It is called "Land and Water: A Weekly Journal of Field Sports, Sea and River Fisheries, the Stable and the Kennel, the Gun and the Rifle, the Farm-Yard, Athletic Exercises, the Traveller and Explorer, Archæology, and Practical Natural History." The latter department and the fisheries will be conducted by Frank Buckland, Esq., the general editor being Mr. Baker, author of "The Rifle and the Hound in Ceylon," etc.

—Some of the people who will never leave a work of genius alone, who want to see further into a millstone than their neighbors, and are delighted with researches into the "real authors" of Shakespeare's plays, the unknown assistants of Scott in the Waverley novels, and similar enquiries, have been at work on "Don Quixote." It is asserted that Mr. Rawdon Brown, a gentleman well known for the valuable historical works embodying the results of his examination of the Venetian archives, has obtained evidence among them that Cervantes intended his immortal work as a political satire directed against the Duke of Lerma. Mr. Brown, having attained to the inner meaning of the romance by his discoveries, is said to be engaged on a key to the characters, by which many obscure portions of the work are brought into a new light. Another speculation on this subject will be found on another page of The Nation.

—As we notice in a New England periodical an advertisement addressed to "parties who desire the services of a genealogist," there must be many who will be interested in the new edition of a book that had become very scarce—Burke's "Extinct, Dormant, and Suspended Peerage," just brought out in London. It forms a valuable companion and help to English history, giving the story of each title, and tracing the lines of descent where the claim still exists. It is a proof of the practical tendency of the American mind that while every old settled neighborhood has some tradition of a vast property in England rightfully belonging to some widely spread family, no one thinks of claiming dignities, which may actually be recovered, while there is hardly a case known where property has been restored, though large sums have been spent in the pursuit. In the last century there were two remarkable instances where the possessors of ancient titles were discovered in America and their claims made good; one was for the oldest Irish peerage, the barony of Kinsale. The rightful heir was discovered in the person of a poor sailor boy of Newport, and his descendants still possess the title. The barony of Willoughby of Parham was also awarded to a family which had been for two generations settled in Virginia. In the early romantic days of colonization adventure, under Elizabeth and the Stuart kings, the younger scions of distinguished families flocked to the most exciting scene of action as they now do to Australia and New Zealand. The dying out of the elder branches often placed them in the position of inheritors of the hereditary dignities, though change of circumstances generally made them forgetful or careless of the fact. The true male heir of the great Percies, Earls of Northumberland, is supposed to be more likely to be found in Virginia by English genealogists than anywhere else, should he ever "turn up;" and there are several other important hereditary honors presumed to be held rather by failure of appearance in the real owners, than by rightful claim.

—A work that all true Scotchmen must regard as a national enterprise has recently been performed by the publication of the first complete collected edition of the "Writings of John Knox," the celebrated reformer. It has occupied the attention of the editor, Mr. David Laing, whose name is well known in connection with the national ancient literature of Scotland, for eighteen years. His labors have brought together a mass of information illustrating the life, character, and writings of the reformer and the history of his times, unrivalled for its extent and the recondite nature of the sources from whence it is derived. Knox's works may be divided into four classes —historical, admonitory, devotional, and epistolary. They comprise, together, six volumes royal octavo, the first and second being occupied with Knox's most important book at the present day, the "History of the Reformation in Scotland," printed from a collation of the various manuscripts and printed texts, and for the first time presented in a complete shape, with the illustrative documents, etc., on which it is founded. The "Memoir of the Author and his Family," bibliographical notices, notes, fac-similes, etc., render the edition a perfect literary monument to the memory of the reformer whose influence is still so strong in the land of his birth.

—An educational movement of considerable importance, in view of the source from which it springs, has just been started in England. If any department of literature might be supposed to be over occupied, either there or in this country, it is that of school-books. Yet the delegates of the Oxford Clarendon Press state that "they understand, from eminent schoolmasters and others who are authorities upon education, that there is still need of good school-books and manuals." To abridge their manifesto, they "are told that good English editions of almost all the Greek and Latin classics, read in the higher classes of public schools, are required, also grammar and exercise books adapted to them—that the histories at present read in schools are greatly below present requirements—and that English treatises on physical science, written with clearness and precision, and adapted for use in the higher classes of schools, etc., do not exist." They believe that the university may, with propriety and efficiency, do much towards remedying these defects and have therefore determined to issue a series of educational works, hoping to fill up some existing wants and to help in improving methods of teaching. The programme includes classics, history, physical science, English language and literature, mathematical works, a miscellaneous class including handbooks in art, music, literature, and the like, and modern languages. Particulars are given of nineteen works now in preparation, and others are speedily to follow. In history we notice a "A History of England to the Reign of Henry VIII.," by Goldwin Smith, professor of modern history; "A

History of Germany and of the Empire, down to the close of the Middle Ages," by J. Bryce, of Oriel College; "History of Greece," by E. A. Freeman, of Trinity College (author of a "History of Federal Governments"); "A Constitutional History of England," by Rev. W. Stubbs, of Trinity College (librarian to the Archbishop of Canterbury); "History of British India," by S. Owen, of Christ Church. The distinct recognition of the duty of an institution like the University of Oxford in this announcement, is a step far in advance of any yet taken by that or similar bodies in England, and bodes well for the cause of national education.

—The old subject of literary remuneration is again ventilated in Paris, where, indeed, authorship and all that relates to it possesses an active importance greater than in any other country. Contrasts between the past and the present are rife as a standard source of paragraph making. The actual large gains of contemporary authors are compared with those prevalent when Boileau sold "Le Lutrin" for 600 francs, Racine received only 200 francs for the manuscript of "Andromaque," and Delille obtained only 400 francs for his translation of the "Georgics" of Virgil. The 6,000 francs realized by Rousseau for his "Emile" was long quoted as an example of remarkable pecuniary success; nor were the 1,000 francs for which the author of "Paul and Virginia" sold his first work, "Voyage à l'Ile de France," considered an unworthy remuneration. Even the existing generation of authors has experienced the vicissitudes that belong to two separate eras of authorship. George Sand wrote her first novel in conjunction with Jules Sandeau, and the two received 400 francs between them for their work. "Indiana," by that lady alone, was sold for 1,000 francs. She now receives from the *Revue des Deux Mondes* 500 francs per sheet for her communications. In 1823 Victor Hugo's romance of "Hans d'Islande" only gained him 300 francs. "Les Misérables" has already produced him more than a thousand times that sum. Dramatic authorship seems the most royal road to fortune among all the avenues that lead to the French Parnassus. M. Scribe left a property estimated at four millions of francs after starting on his career with 100 francs payment only, for his first work. There are thirty-five theatres now open at Paris of various kinds, so that there is an ample field for the exercise of varied talent in the composer and librettist as well as for the regular dramatic author. The "spectacles," indeed, or mere show pieces, are said to have been more profitable than *chef d'œuvres* of the regular drama. The arrangements for securing to authors a fair share of the profits of these pieces are more just than those of any other country, and might be copied with advantage.

—The work of ex-President James Buchanan, "The Administration on the Eve of the Rebellion," seems to have attracted more notice from the English press than it has met with in this country. It has been freely characterized by the leading journals as a book that at once explains and justifies the oblivion that shielded from view the first officer of the republic immediately on his retirement from office and made his name almost forgotten by each party during the contest immediately succeeding. It is said to paint him as essentially a man of compromise, hoping still to "make things pleasant" all round, if only principle was overlooked and a shallow and prevaricating expediency allowed to rule the hour. It is stated, in an article in *The Reader*, as "a curious fact, for whose truth the writer can vouch, that in the library of the Senate's Committee on Foreign Affairs, the members of which were leading secessionists, every passage in the diplomatic documents relating to the recognition of Belgium and Mexico was found scored and underlined when the Republicans took possession of the library. How soon the European powers might be expected to recognize the Confederacy was the subject which occupied the time and attention of men receiving the pay of the Union and entrusted with the duty of watching over its foreign interests."

—It is said that the library of Sir Charles Eastlake, the late president of the Royal Academy, and, as the most accomplished scholar in England in the history, antiquities, and literature of the fine arts, the possessor of an unrivalled collection of books on these subjects, is about to be dispersed, though strenuous efforts will be made to preserve it intact in connection with some public institution. It is remarked that the highest dignity in the profession seems going begging among artists. Upon the question of appointing a successor to Sir Charles in the chair formerly filled by Reynolds, West, and Lawrence, Maclise was the chosen candidate of the leading members, but he distinctly and unhesitatingly made known his purpose not to accept the position, his desire being to give all his life and energies to painting. At the last meeting of the Academy Sir Edwin Landseer was elected by a very full vote and a large majority, but he has declined to receive the title and position offered as his due by the voice of his brethren and the consent of popular opinion. No reason is alleged for his refusal, but he has been requested by the Academy to reconsider his determination, and if he continues to decline the honor, another balloting must take place.

—The death of Dr. Petrie, vice-president of the Irish Academy, has removed the first antiquarian of the day who brought positive science to bear upon questions of Hibernian archæology. For the material antiquities and ancient remains of Ireland he effected what scholars like O'Donovan and Eugene O'Curry have done for its history and literature. These men have founded a school of investigation before which the dreams and romance of authors such as Vallancey, O'Flaherty, etc., which made the very name of Celtic antiquities degrading, have vanished. Dr. Petrie's dissertation "On the Origin and Purpose of the Round Towers of Ireland" received a prize of £900 offered by the Irish Society, and may be considered to have effectually settled the question. He was the director of the historical and antiquarian departments of the Irish Ordnance Survey. A pension of £300 per annum was granted him by Government for his services.

—Though an Emperor, Napoleon III. is still a man, and is said to have derived great pleasure from the success of the first volume of his "Vie de Cæsar" in a purely commercial point of view. The publishers in London, Messrs. Cassell & Co., have had the gratification of forwarding to the imperial agents a sum much beyond the amount originally stipulated for the exclusive right of translation into English. The second volume, perhaps in consequence, is being rapidly pushed towards completion. The final proofs have been printed; the Emperor is now revising them. He fully appreciates that geography is one of the "eyes of history," and it will be illustrated with thirty-two maps. The volume is expected to be ready, in divers languages, about the middle of March.

—M. Du Chaillu is eminently a sensational traveller. His last explorations, rudely interrupted by a conflict with the natives, from which he with difficulty escaped, has not been productive of any novelty so startling as the gorilla was found to be in the previous narrative of his African travels; but he now brings us news of the pigmy races supposed, ever since the days of Homer and Herodotus, to inhabit the interior of the continent, "the small infantry warred on by cranes" of the poet. A little people called "Obonyo" he discovered, and is the first to describe. He calls them the gypsies of the region—of migratory habits, having no dwelling or shelter but under trees, and living by trapping wild animals for food. They have only short tufts of hair on the head, in distinction from the settled inhabitants, who pride themselves on an immensely large *chevelure*, and wear a wild, anxious, and timorous expression of countenance. The tallest adult man measured was four feet six inches high, and the women varied from that height to four feet. M. Du Chaillu's account is confirmed, as far as hearsay evidence can do it, by Mr. Winwood Reade, who testifies to the general belief in the existence of a pigmy race in the far interior of West Africa, and also by the missionary, Dr. Krapf, who had met with single individuals of the species on the opposite coast of the continent, brought by slave-dealers from the interior equatorial regions. M. Du Chaillu is now preparing his new book of travels from the fragments of journals, etc., saved on his escape from the natives.

WIVES AND DAUGHTERS.*

We cannot help thinking that in "Wives and Daughters" the late Mrs. Gaskell has added to the number of those works of fiction—of which we cannot perhaps count more than a score as having been produced in our time—which will outlast the duration of their novelty and continue for years to come to be read and relished for a higher order of merits. Besides being the best of the author's own tales—putting aside "Cranford," that is, which as a work of quite other pretensions ought not to be weighed against it, and which seems to us manifestly destined in its modest way to become a classic—it is also one of the very best novels of its kind. So delicately, so elaborately, so artistically, so truthfully, and heartily is the story wrought out, that the hours given to its perusal seem like hours actually spent, in the flesh as well as the spirit, among the scenes and people described, in the atmosphere of their motives, feelings, traditions, associations. The gentle skill with which the reader is slowly involved in the tissue of the story; the delicacy of the handwork which has perfected every mesh of the net in which he finds himself ultimately entangled; the lightness of touch which, while he stands all unsuspicious of literary artifice, has stopped every issue into the real world; the admirable, inaudible, invisible exercise of creative power, in short, with which a new and arbitrary world is reared over his heedless head—a world insidiously inclusive of him (such is the *assoupissement* of his critical sense), complete in every particular, from the divine

*"Wives and Daughters. A Novel. By Mrs. Gaskell." New York: Harper & Brothers. 1866.

blue of the summer sky to the June-bugs in the roses, from Cynthia Kirkpatrick and her infinite revelations of human nature to old Mrs. Goodenough and her provincial bad grammar—these marvellous results, we say, are such as to compel the reader's very warmest admiration, and to make him feel, in his gratitude for this seeming accession of social and moral knowledge, as if he made but a poor return to the author in testifying, no matter how strongly, to the fact of her genius.

For Mrs. Gaskell's genius was so very composite as a quality, it was so obviously the offspring of her affections, her feelings, her associations, and (considering that, after all, it *was* genius) was so little of an intellectual matter, that it seems almost like slighting these charming facts to talk of them under a collective name, especially when that name is a term so coarsely and disrespectfully synthetic as the word genius has grown to be. But genius is of many kinds, and we are almost tempted to say that that of Mrs. Gaskell strikes us as being little else than a peculiar play of her personal character. In saying this we wish to be understood as valuing not her intellect the less, but her character the more. Were we touching upon her literary character at large, we should say that in her literary career as a whole she displayed, considering her success, a minimum of head. Her career was marked by several little literary indiscretions, which show how much writing was a matter of pure feeling with her. Her "Life of Miss Brontë," for instance, although a very readable and delightful book, is one which a woman of strong head could not possibly have written; for, full as it is of fine qualities, of affection, of generosity, of sympathy, of imagination, it lacks the prime requisites of a good biography. It is written with a signal want of judgment and of critical power; and it has always seemed to us that it tells the reader considerably more about Mrs. Gaskell than about Miss Brontë. In the tale before us this same want of judgment, as we may still call it in the absence of a better name, presuming that the term applies to it only as it stands contrasted with richer gifts, is shown; not in the general management of the story, nor yet in the details, most of which are as good as perfect, but in the way in which, as the tale progresses, the author loses herself in its current very much as we have seen that she causes the reader to do.

The book is very long and of an interest so quiet that not a few of its readers will be sure to vote it dull. In the early portion especially the details are so numerous and so minute that even a very well-disposed reader will be tempted to lay down the book and ask himself of what possible concern to him are the clean frocks and the French lessons of little Molly Gibson. But if he will have patience awhile he will see. As an end these modest domestic facts are indeed valueless; but as a means to what the author would probably have called a "realization" of her central idea, *i. e.*, Molly Gibson, a product, to a certain extent, of clean frocks and French lessons, they hold an eminently respectable place. As he gets on in the story he is thankful for them. They have educated him to a proper degree of interest in the heroine. He feels that he knows her the better and loves her the more for a certain acquaintance with the *minutiæ* of her homely *bourgeois* life. Molly Gibson, however, in spite of the almost fraternal relation which is thus established between herself and the reader—or perhaps, indeed, because of it, for if no man is a hero to his *valet de chambre*, it may be said that no young lady is a heroine to one who, if we may so express our meaning, has known her since she was "*so* high"—Molly Gibson, we repeat, commands a slighter degree of interest than the companion figure of Cynthia Kirkpatrick. Of this figure, in a note affixed to the book in apology for the absence of the final chapter, which Mrs. Gaskell did not live to write, the editor of the magazine in which the story originally appeared speaks in terms of very high praise; and yet, as it seems to us, of praise thoroughly well deserved. To describe Cynthia as she stands in Mrs. Gaskell's pages is impossible. The reader who cares to know her must trace her attentively out. She is a girl of whom, in life, any one of her friends, so challenged, would hesitate to attempt to give a general account, and yet whose specific sayings and doings and looks such a friend would probably delight to talk about. This latter has been Mrs. Gaskell's course; and if, in a certain sense, it shows her weakness, it also shows her wisdom. She had probably known a Cynthia Kirkpatrick, a résumé of whose character she had given up as hopeless; and she has here accordingly taken a generous revenge in an analysis as admirably conducted as any we remember to have read. She contents herself with a simple record of the innumerable small facts of the young girl's daily life, and leaves the reader to draw his conclusions. He draws them as he proceeds, and yet leaves them always subject to revision; and he derives from the author's own marked abdication of the authoritative generalizing tone which, when the other characters are concerned, she has used as a right, a very delightful sense of the mystery of Cynthia's nature and of those large proportions which mystery always suggests. The fact is that genius is always difficult to formulate, and that Cynthia had a genius for fascination. Her whole character subserved this end. Next after her we think her mother the best drawn character in the book. Less difficult indeed to draw than the daughter, the very nicest art was yet required to keep her from merging, in the reader's sight, into an amusing caricature—a sort of commixture of a very mild solution of Becky Sharp with an equally feeble decoction of Mrs. Nickleby. Touch by touch, under the reader's eye, she builds herself up into her selfish and silly and consummately natural completeness.

Mrs. Gaskell's men are less successful than her women, and her hero in this book, making all allowance for the type of man intended, is hardly interesting enough in juxtaposition with his vivid sweethearts. Still his defects as a masculine being are negative and not positive, which is something to be thankful for, now that lady-novelists are growing completely to eschew the use of simple and honest youths. Osborne Hamley, a much more ambitious figure than Roger, and ambitious as the figure of Cynthia is ambitious, is to our judgment less successful than either of these; and we think the praise given him in the editorial note above-mentioned is excessive. He has a place in the story, and he is delicately and even forcibly conceived, but he is practically little more than a suggestion. Mrs. Gaskell had exhausted her poetry upon Cynthia, and she could spare to Osborne's very dramatic and even romantic predicaments little more than the close prosaic handling which she had found sufficient for the more vulgar creations. Where this handling accords thoroughly with the spirit of the figures, as in the case of Doctor Gibson and Squire Hamley, the result is admirable. It is good praise of these strongly marked, masculine, middle-aged men to say that they are as forcibly drawn as if a wise masculine hand had drawn them. Perhaps the best scene in the book (as the editor remarks) is the one in which the squire smokes a pipe with one of his sons after his high words with the other. We have intimated that this scene is prosaic; but let not the reader take fright at the word. If an author can be powerful, delicate, humorous, pathetic, dramatic, within the strict limits of homely prose, we see no need of his "dropping into poetry," as Mr. Dickens says. It is Mrs. Gaskell's highest praise to have been all of this, and yet to have written "an everyday story" (as, if we mistake not, the original title of "Wives and Daughters" ran) in an everyday style.

MARIAN ROOKE.*

This is an average novel and a very bad book—a distinction, as it seems to us, easy to understand. There have been many novels, contemptible or ridiculous in point of dramatic interest, which have obtained a respectful attention through the wisdom of their tone or the elevation of their style. There have been others, skilful and absorbing in the matter of plot, which the reader has nevertheless flung aside half-read, as intolerably foolish, or intolerably vicious in spirit. The plot of "Marian Rooke," although it can hardly be called very skilful on the writer's part or very absorbing on the reader's, is yet decently interesting, as plots go, and may readily suffice to the entertainment of those jolly barbarians of taste who read novels only for what they call the "story." "Marian Rooke" has an abundance—a superabundance—of story, a vast deal of incident, of variety, of sentiment, of passion, of description, of conversation, and of that facetious element which no gentleman's novel should be without. These merits, however, are not by themselves of so high an order as to justify us to our conscience in an attempt to impose them upon the public recognition; we should have been content to leave their destinies to fortune. The part of duty in the matter, since duty there is, is to point out the defects of the work.

"Marian Rooke," then, is a tale of the "younger world," or, in other words, of life in the United States. If we are not mistaken, it was published in England either just before, or simultaneously with, its appearance in New York; and if on this point, too, we are not wrong in our facts, it met with a warmer welcome on the other side of the water than it has encountered on this, as, indeed, it had every reason to do, inasmuch as we may convey a certain idea of its spirit in saying that, whereas it was written *for* English circulating libraries, it was written only, if we may so express it, *at* American ones. This air of divided nationality which attended its production is an index of a similar feature in the conception of the book. The reader vacillates between setting the author down as a consummate Yankee and dubbing him as a consummate cockney. At one moment he asserts himself an Englishman who has a perilously small amount of learning about the United States, and at another he seems conclusively to prove himself one of our dear fellow-countrymen, with his honest head slightly turned by a glimpse of the carriage going to one of the Queen of England's drawing-

* "Marian Rooke; or, The Quest for Fortune. A Tale of the Younger World. By Henry D. Sedley." New York: Sheldon & Co. 1865.

rooms. It remains a constant source of perplexity that he should be at once so poor an American and so poor an Englishman. No Englishman ever entertained for New England the magnificent loathing which burns in Mr. Sedley's pages. What is New England to him or he to New England that he should thus rack his ingenuity in her behalf? So divinely disinterested an hostility was never inspired by a mere interest in abstract truth. A tour in the United States in midwinter, with a fatal succession of bad hotels, exorbitant hack-drivers, impertinent steamboat clerks, thankless female fellow-travellers, and terrific railway collisions, might possibly create in a generous British bosom a certain lusty personal antipathy to our unmannerly democracy; a vehement, honest expression of which could not fail to make a chapter of picturesque and profitable reading. But it takes an emancipated, a disfranchised, an outlawed, or, if you please, a disappointed, American to wish us to believe that he detests us simply on theory. This impression the author of "Marian Rooke" would fain convey. Therefore we say we set him down as one of ourselves. But he betrays, incidentally, as we have intimated, so—what shall we call it?—so lively an ignorance of our manners and customs, our method of action and of speech, that this hypothesis also is not without a certain measure of disproof. He has vouchsafed us no information on the contested point; and this it is that prevents conjecture from being impertinent, for it is founded solely upon the evidence of the story itself, which, as a book once fairly and squarely published, is utterly given over to the public use, and to all such probing, weighing, and analyzing as may help the public to understand it. Further reflection, then, on the mooted point leads us to the conclusion that in order to furnish Mr. Sedley with any local habitation whatever we must consider one of the two conflicting elements of his tale as a purely dramatic characteristic. As the conflict lies between his perfect familiarity with some points of American life and his singular and arbitrary ignorance of others, we must decide that either his knowledge or his ignorance is assumed. And as his ignorance is generally not so much an absence of knowledge and of statement as positive false knowledge and false statement, we embrace the hypothesis that his scathing indifference to the facts of the case is the result of a good deal of painful ingenuity. And this is what we have in mind in calling his book at the outset a bad book. A book which, from an avowedly critical stand-point—even if it were a very flimsy novel—should roundly abuse and reprobate all things American, would command our respect, if it did not command our agreement. But a book projected (intellectually) from the midst of us, as the present one betrays itself to have been, intended to strike us by a rebound from the ignorant sympathy of foreign readers, displaying its knowledge of us by the possession of a large number of facts and by the petty perversion of every fact which it does possess, and leaving an issue for escape from the charge of deliberate misrepresentation (so good a Yankee is the author) by a species of implicit self-reference to a community where a certain ignorance of our habits is no more than natural,—a book in which the author has put himself to so much trouble to do such an ugly piece of work, commands neither our agreement nor our respect.

The hero of the tale is the son of a dissolute English gentleman—time-honored and familiar combination!—who, having immigrated to this country, married an American wife. In this manner originated the fatal "kink" in the young man's nature—the conflict between his literal allegiance to the land of his birth and his spiritual affinity with the proud home of his ancestors. Marian Rooke, a burning Creole beauty, the daughter of a rich Louisiana planter, is similarly at odds with fortune, it having been discovered on her father's death that she is the child of a slave. Hence a beautiful bond of sympathy between the two. We do not propose to relate their adventures. It is enough to say that these are cast successively in California, in Europe, in Boston, in Berkshire County, Massachusetts (where the local color becomes quite appalling), and in the city of New York. The hero and heroine are duly joined in matrimony at the close, and subsequently, we are informed, the hero does "yeoman's service" in the late war, on which side the author (still like a shrewd Yankee) refuses to tell us, so leaving in considerable doubt (since so essential a point is perforce slighted) whether he really fought on either. He serves throughout the book as an instrument for eliciting in their utmost intensity the vulgar manners and sordid morals of the American people. He is, probably in view of this fact, the most deeply pathetic character in the whole extent of fiction. We have no space categorically to refute the ingenious accusations which Mr. Sedley has levied upon our manners and our speech. We must content ourselves with saying that as, if they were true, they would tell a sad tale of our vulgarity, so, since they are false, they tell a sad tale of the vulgarity of Mr. Sedley's imagination. What California was, socially, fifteen years ago, we cannot say; but it was certainly not the headquarters of politeness, and we accordingly leave it to Mr. Sedley's tender mercies. But we are better qualified to judge of New York and Boston. Here is a young lady of fashion, of the former city, welcoming her mother's guests at a *conversazione*: "We are very gay to-night, although promiscuous. Talk has been lively. There are a good many ladies round. Pa and Professor Sukkar are conferring on immorality. Pa is speaking now. Hush!" Here is another young lady, with the best blood in the land in her veins, conferring with her mother as to the probable character of the hero, who has just made his *entrée* into New York society: "Heavens, no! Clinton would have never given letters to a politician; whatever his faults, my brother would never have introduced a politician into the family of the Parapets!" "Unless sinning through ignorance, perhaps," suggests the mother. "Ignorance! surely their odious names are familiar enough. To be sure we do n't read the detestable newspapers, their organs, but the men do; and I am confident either papa or Clinton would know if Mr. Gifford had been compromised in politics." Having represented every American in his pages, of no matter what station in life, as using a form of the traditional Sam Slick dialect, in which all the humorous quaintness is omitted and all the extravagant coarseness is retained, the author makes generous amends at last by the elegant language which he puts into the mouths of the Parapets, the family of the young lady just quoted; and by the still more elegant distinction which he claims for them. Into various details of their dreary snobbishness we will not plunge. They constitute, in the author's sight, the one redeeming feature of our deplorable social condition; and he assures us that, incredible as the fact may appear, they yet do actually flourish in aristocratic idleness and seclusion in the midst of our universal barbarism. This, surely, is the most unkindest cut of all. It suggests, moreover, fearful reflections as to what our fate would have been had Mr. Sedley been minded to be complimentary.

GENERAL BUTLER AND CHAPLAIN HUDSON.*

General Butler's reply to Mr. Hudson's attack of last summer comes in the form of a letter from himself to the Bishop of Rhode Island, accompanied by another to himself from John I. Davenport, "late Lieutenant A. D. C. and Assistant Provost-Marshal," etc., and an appendix containing, in a letter to Judge Holt, under date of January 14, 1865, the charges and specifications against Mr. Hudson. Mr. Davenport's letter is in answer to one from the general requesting him to report what facts he may have knowledge of with regard to the matters spoken of by the chaplain in his pamphlet, Mr. Davenport having been the officer in charge of him when in custody, and comprises the official documents relating to these matters, together with a running comment by the lieutenant.

The first charge is absence without leave. On the 29th of May, 1864, General Gillmore ordered Mr. Hudson to New York on special duty, to superintend the publication of some official documents relating to affairs in the Department of the South. This was certainly sufficient leave, *prima facie*, for his absence. But other circumstances prevent this transaction from being clear. Mr. Hudson, it will be remembered, had written, according to his own admission, a private letter to Mr. Godwin, of the *Post*, commenting adversely upon General Butler's management of the affair at Drewry's Bluff, which Mr. Godwin had published. The letter, or part of it, was copied into an editorial of the *Herald*, where General Butler seeing for the first time a statement that "General Gillmore earnestly advised him to make his position secure by entrenchments against sorties, or any movements of the enemy to oust him from them," and that he answered "that he could not pause for defensive preparation," sends to General Gillmore for explanation. General Gillmore replies *that he does not know who the author of the editorial in the Herald was, and that he did not, and does not, authorize it.* In the examination of Mr. Hudson by General Butler, which Lieutenant Davenport took down in short-hand at the time, and which is now printed, the following questions and answers occur:

"Q. Did not Gen. Gillmore know of your writing that letter before it was sent? A. I do n't know (hesitatingly). Q. Did he not know of it before it was sent? A. I think so. Q. Do you not know that he did? A. Yes, sir. Q. And before you went? A. Yes, sir. Q. And was not that the reason of his sending you away? A. I can't say that I know it was. Q. Do n't you know that was the reason? A. I thought at the time that it was. Q. Had you any doubt in your own mind on the subject? A. I did not know how necessary the business was that General Gillmore professedly sent me on. I thought that was the reason of his sending me away. I had but little conversation with General Gillmore."

Thus the whole matter is left in obscurity. The question is, whether Mr. Hudson had sufficient reason for leaving the army—whether there was sufficient collusion between Gen. Gillmore and himself to make his absence im-

* "Official Documents relating to a Chaplain's Campaign (not) with General Butler, but in New York. *Audi alteram partem.*" Lowell: Charles Hunt, printer, Exchange Building. 1865. 8vo, pp. 3–48.

proper? Gen. Butler, elsewhere in the examination, tells his prisoner that the business on which he was sent to New York was a pretence, and that the real object was to avoid the appearance of complicity between Gen. Gillmore and himself. Gen. Gillmore states that he did not know who the author of the *Herald's* editorial was and did not authorize it; Mr. Hudson says that he did know of the authorship of the letter. Mr. Hudson also says that the facts contained in his letter were got from officers of his regiment. Shall we say that Gen. Gillmore in speaking of the *Herald's* editorial did not mean to commit himself with reference to the *Post's* letter, or that Mr. Hudson stated a falsehood in saying what he did of the general's knowledge of his writing? Had there been a court-martial, all this might have been ascertained—by what right Mr. Hudson wrote his letter; where he obtained his information; why, if a private letter, Mr. Godwin published it; what, if any, collusion there was between Mr. Hudson and Gen. Gillmore; there having been no trial, we can arrive at no very satisfactory conclusion. It looks very badly for Mr. Hudson, however, that he should have left the army to attend to a purely private enterprise of a superior officer, that he never received after leaving the front any instructions as to that business, and that he drew pay during part of the time of his absence.

The second charge brought by General Butler is disobedience of orders. To this Mr. Hudson can make no defence. Some palliation there was in the fact of the sickness of his wife and himself; but he should, undoubtedly, have reported himself immediately on receiving General Butler's order in July, remanding him to his regiment.

Mr. Hudson's pamphlet, as our readers will recollect, on his side charges Gen. Butler chiefly with imprisoning him, after his return to camp in obedience to orders, in an illegal and brutal manner, and for an unlawful time, and with ill-treating him really for the purpose of forcing him to criminate Gen. Gillmore with regard to the facts contained in his letter, which he had assured Gen. Butler he did not get from Gen. Gillmore. He was put in a "bull-pen," where were confined rebel prisoners and the refuse of the army. It was impossible to escape from vermin. The weather was cold, the ground so wet as to be almost muddy, he had no blanket, and no bed save a few barrel staves. The captain in charge promised to get him a blanket or two, but none came; at length a corporal borrowed one for him, and wrapping that round his shoulders, he spent most of the first night walking up and down in front of his tent. He could not find means to supply himself with wholesome food, as he was "not allowed at first to speak with any but officers of the guard, and these were all afraid to do anything for him, or let anything be done." These sufferings were alleviated by some members of his regiment; but his imprisonment dragged on, and after some weeks the prisoners were removed to a new enclosure, smaller than the first, and filled with men of the worst description, the ground being such, too, that after any considerable fall of rain the chaplain's quarters were flooded. With regard to the attempt to make him criminate Gen. Gillmore, Mr. Hudson gives an account of an interview between himself and the colonel of his regiment, after he had been four or five days in the "bull-pen," in which Col. Serrell said that he had been having a long talk with Gen. Butler about him, that the general disclaimed all hard feelings towards him, that if a trial were had it would be mainly with a view to bring out what he knew about Gen. Gillmore, that in that case Gen. Butler advised him to plead guilty, as he would fare better so, that under the circumstances Gen. Butler did not consider the absence without leave any great offence, while the fact of his having been all along a known and allowed correspondent of the press left little cause against him on that score.

As to the "bull-pen," Gen. Butler denies that there was any enclosure around the tent or camp in which Mr. Hudson was confined, while Lieut. Davenport admits that there was a line of sentinels—to all intents and purposes a very safe enclosure. Gen. Butler says that the tent of his prisoner was precisely like that of his staff officers, while Lieut. Davenport adds that it was situated in the provost camp. As to the character of the second prison, neither Gen. Butler nor Lieut. Davenport deny anything alleged by Mr. Hudson except that the building used was a stable, either cleaned or uncleaned, the latter having stated that it was an uncleaned stable. This apparent or real hardship the general might have prevented had he chosen to obey the 77th Article of War, which requires that whenever any officer shall be charged with a crime, he shall be arrested and confined in his barracks, quarters, or tent.

Of the illegal length of the imprisonment it is easy to judge by reference to an act of Congress approved July 17, 1862, which enacts that whenever the officer by whose orders another is arrested does not take care that within eight days after the arrest a copy of charges shall be served on the prisoner, the arrest shall cease. Mr. Hudson was confined some fifty days, copy of charges was served, and he was never tried. Under date of Jan. 14, 1865, after being relieved, Gen. Butler wrote to Gen. Holt, at the office of the Bureau of Military Justice, enclosing the charges and specifications (dated Jan. 2) which should have been served on Mr. Hudson by the 27th of September. Gen. Butler says that the movements of the army gave him no time to organize a court proper for his trial, while Lieut. Davenport says a good deal about the unfitness of a trial where the general would have been both accuser and reviewing officer. The act of the 29th of May, 1830 (Rev. U. S. A. Regulations, 1863, p. 495), provided for this contingency by ordering that the court for such trials shall be appointed by the President. The difficulties in the case, indeed, might all have been obviated by a careful study of the Regulations.

To the charge that Gen. Butler confined him with the purpose of compelling him to criminate Gen. Gillmore, Gen. Butler has not replied, nor has he denied the conversation referred to above between himself and Col. Serrell.

Gen. Butler, in his letter to the Bishop of Rhode Island, says that he refused the chaplain's request to preach, while in prison, on the ground that he thought, and he doubts not the readers of this book will think, that we had had enough of *that*. If there is anything else which we have had quite enough of, it is the general's oaths and overweening insolence. In the examination of Chaplain Hudson, Gen. Butler three times calls Gen. Gillmore a —— ——; "epithets," says Lieut. Davenport, "more forcible than polished." He tells Mr. Hudson that he lies, and the allusion of Mr. Davenport to Grant is so scurrilous that even Gen. Butler surprises us by printing it. It is a pity that a general who was of such service during the war should have made a *fiasco* of his last military operations through his conceit, and should now be displaying that unamiable quality at no one's expense but his own.

The Myriapoda of North America. By Horatio C. Wood, Jr., M.D. From the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society. (Sherman & Co., Philadelphia.)—This memoir was originally prepared for the Smithsonian contributions, but the manuscript was destroyed at the burning of the Smithsonian building in the winter of 1864-65. Luckily, the illustrations were saved. The text has been reproduced, and the whole now appears in the memoirs of the American Philosophical Society. It contains a strictly scientific description of a race of animals better known as centipedes, comprising about ninety species, which no American naturalist seems to have studied since the days of Rafinesque and Say. The materials contained in the museums of Washington, Philadelphia, and Cambridge, comprising many thousand specimens, were placed in Dr. Wood's hands, and he has certainly improved the excellent opportunities thus afforded him. The memoir contains, first, an outline of the external anatomy of the myriapoda; secondly, a descriptive classification of them, largely illustrated with wood-cuts, giving the anatomical details on which the zoological characters are based; thirdly, a synopsis of genera and species; and, lastly, remarks on their natural arrangement.

Dr. Wood considers the myriapods a distinct class, in which opinion he differs from Brandt, Gervais, and Dana, who make them simply an order of insects, but agrees with Leach, Latreille, and Newport. The last-named naturalist, Newport, who assigns to myriapods a position near the worm, is, undoubtedly, the highest authority on the subject. This conclusion is sustained by the facts revealed by embryological studies. In view of the great light thrown by Agassiz on the natural affinities of other groups of animals through embryological data, one cannot but feel that an extension of Mr. Newport's researches on the development of centipedes would be of great importance, and would help to clear up much of the confusion into which naturalists have thrown the classification of the subordinate groups. The investigation of the anatomy and physiology, the development and habits, of this whole class, still offers an almost untrodden field, which we hope Dr. Wood will occupy.

The plates illustrating this memoir appear to have been drawn from specimens preserved in alcohol, and do not give a correct conception of the natural arrangement of the limbs. The fore and hind symmetry, so obvious in the living specimen, is wholly lost in the plates, except in the case of *cermatia*, where it is correctly represented.

The Universal Pathfinder and Business Man's Pocket Companion. Being a Guide for all People, to all Subjects, and to all Lands. By M. N. Olmsted. (James Miller, New York.)—Though not in the strictest sense a man of business, we place ourselves confidingly in the hands of this obliging guide. Beginning with the globe itself, we are gently borne through the census of the North American aborigines and the Declaration of Independence to the page where the Articles of Confederation ought to be; stop long enough with the Constitution to discover that the public are in error in supposing the latest amendment of that charter to be the thirteenth article; learn the history of our flag, and draw a parallel between Washington and Lincoln; and bridge the period between our two revolutions with tables of the popular vote at each election, of Presidents and Cabinets, of State populations, etc. We return to our muttons on page 123, with an estimate of the number of people whose feet now press the earth—amount of pressure not calculated—and after more census tables, for both hemispheres, wind up with a cheerful Malthusian page on massacres, with an account of travelling on the "Old Shades' Valley Railroad," whose terminus is *Destruction dépôt*. Then we go back a little to the seven wonders of the world,

and ancient chronology, followed by the principal modern dates, together with a list of impolite things to be avoided and hints to travellers. We are to avoid, for instance, "receiving a present without expressing gratitude," and are charged, as travellers, to "be always pleasant"—a hint which we strongly suspect to have been interpolated by the directors of the Camden and Amboy Railroad. Finally, we are asked if we love little girls, and get some definitions of foreign terms, etc. Seriously, this is a book which is not without its convenience, but in which a large amount of precious space is wasted. Its title is absurdly pretentious.

Home Life. What it is and what it needs. By John F. W. Ware. (Boston: Wm. V. Spencer.)—The papers here collected into a book made their first appearance three or four years ago in the "Monthly Religious Magazine," where they attracted considerable attention. They are thoughtful, tender, wise, and prudent, evidently the work of one whose own home-life is more to him than all his other ventures and successes. It must have been written out of a full heart. In certain quarters it is customary for the clergyman to present the persons whom he marries with a little volume, the contents of which are thought to be related in some way to the case in hand. The volume ordinarily is good for nothing. But of late we hear that this book has been used on such occasions. We doubt if there is any better. It is full of practical suggestions. But it contains a great deal of advice that would be very tardy after the putting on of marriage rings. Some of its best portions seek to find the laws which ought to govern men and women in those states which precede the matrimonial. The chapter upon "Home, the Residence," will sound like bitter mockery to citizens of Brooklyn and New York, who might like well enough to have houses of their own, but who count themselves lucky if they get anything at all and are not driven into boarding-houses or the street. The custom of boarding is so prevalent to-day, and is so rapidly increasing, that a book of this sort ought to take cognizance of its merits, if it possesses any, which no one can for a moment doubt who has *not* given it a trial. The author has a timely word about our city tenements. Thinking of these, all lesser miseries are easily forgotten. But when the poor have been attended to, will some one say a word for those unfortunates who have "neither poverty nor riches," but whose yearly stipend in the city, though sounding rather large, yields them less comfort and convenience than the day laborer can purchase with his wages in the outlying villages and towns?

The Sunday Book of Poetry. (Sever & Francis, Cambridge.)—This is a book to be enjoyed on Sunday or on any other day. But if the reader were not told so in the preface it probably would not occur to him that the compiler intended it for children between the ages of eight and fourteen years. We are tempted to ask in what respect the book would have been different if it had been written for grown men and women. And we are not willing to believe that there does not exist material for such a book as our compiler had the good-will to attempt, which should not be namby-pamby on the one hand or on the other hand subtle and metaphysical. These are the two extremes that she professes to avoid. With reference to the first, the book is a success. Not so with reference to the second. It contains many verses that are exceedingly abstruse. The fact that "Keble's Christian Year" has been very generously used is proof enough of this. Here, too, are many of George Herbert's fine conceits. Their meaning will be lost upon nine children out of ten. If a Sunday book of poetry is really a desideratum for the child, we trust the attempt will be repeated, and rewarded with a larger measure of success. But no great advantage will be won over the present compilation until it is agreed that sacred poetry need not contain a reference to the Deity, or involve the sentiment of obligation, but may converse with beauty and affection not less than with responsibility and God. In so far as this book is a failure it is mainly on account of its refusal to see this. Dr. Johnson's definition of sacred poetry is accepted and applied. Further than this we doubt if the compiler is acquainted with the tastes of children well enough to satisfy them in a book. And yet for all that can be said against it, the book is full of beautiful and holy thoughts, and has been published elegantly enough to suit the most fastidious hand and eye.

Rebel Invasion of Missouri and Kansas, etc., October and November, 1864. By Richard J. Hinton, late Captain 2d Kansas Col'd Vols. Second edition. (Church & Goodman, Chicago; F. W. Marshall, Leavenworth.)—The unanimity with which the people of Kansas rose to repel the invasion of Gen. Sterling Price, which threatened incalculable disaster not only to themselves but to the cause of the Union, deserved the honorable record which Captain Hinton has made of it. He rightly remarks that such an uprising had no parallel during the war—neither when John Morgan went galloping through Indiana and Ohio, nor when Gen. Lee paid his unwelcome visit to the Dutch burghers of Pennsylvania. The narrative is by one who was himself a participant in the rout of the invader, and its style is always earnest and unaffected, though not always grammatical and often crude. The reader's interest and sympathies are quickly enlisted and well sustained to the end. As a monograph of a brilliant episode in the late war against rebellion this work has more than a local and transient value. The author seldom indulges in military criticism, but he seems to imply that Gen. Rosecrans was wanting in alertness and promptitude both in discovering the strength and whereabouts of the advancing enemy and in sending relief to Kansas when the object of Price's expedition was manifest. It is pleasant to commend the insertion of maps of the various battle-fields, besides very faithful likenesses of the principal actors in the Federal defence.

The Phenomena of Plant Life. By Leo H. Grindon. (Nichols & Noyes, Boston.)—This little book was obviously intended for general readers; it is free from technicalities, and is written in a style which doubtless attracts many persons, though not many of the more intelligent class. Only the surface of things is touched upon, and there are more loose, and we should say wild, statements in it than we care to copy. Jussieu would surely be surprised to find that the three great classes of plants according to the "natural system" were recognized in the Mosaic account of the creation—that they are, as the author tells us, "enumerated by the inspired writer;" and further, that "learned and pious men have been led from this circumstance to believe that at the very gateway of Holy Writ there is set forth the great principle of triplicity, which science in these later ages has demonstrated." We agree with the author that "almost the last objects we should look to for a commentary on a statement in Genesis are the sprouting seeds of April." The book may, perhaps, stimulate some to seek further and look deeper, and so good may possibly come of the reading of it.

Sermons of the Rev. Francis A. Baker, Priest of the Congregation of St. Paul. With a Memoir of his Life. By Rev. A. F. Hewit. (Lawrence Kehoe, New York.)—Father Baker was a native of Baltimore, a graduate of Princeton, and for eight years a minister of the Episcopal Church. Converted in 1853 to Catholicism, he exhibited the greatest devotion to the new faith, and was an untiring missionary to the day of his death. That he was earnest, conscientious, and humane, we learn from the memoir, but also unmistakably from his portrait. His sermons are brief, addressed to the common heart and reason of his hearers, and remarkably free from clerical assumptions of authority. Quotations from the Scriptures abound as in Protestant discourses, and are mainly relied upon for persuasion. The sermon on "The Duty of Growing in Christian Knowledge" is liberal and philosophical to a degree not usual in the pulpits of any denomination.

A Third Reader. By Marcius Willson. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—We advise naughty children to avoid this school-book. It places them in a very disagreeable light; it is in fact pointed at them all the way through. For fear lest the wide-spaced, open-lettered lessons may not convey to them a realizing sense of their wickedness, there is a barb called a moral appended to each one, and the teacher is directed how to use it and sharpen it. This, it seems to us, is rather severe on the scholars, and sufficiently uncomplimentary to the teacher; and we are quite positive that if *we* had to compile a reading-book for the young, we should make good morals and natural history subordinate to elocution, and consult in our selections what was interesting rather than instructive; and, if we had any designs upon the character and consciences of our readers, should diligently conceal them, instead of exposing the conspiracy between ourselves and the teachers on every page and at every turn.

Mosaics of Human Life. By Elizabeth A. Thurston. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.)—One cannot look through this selection without being put into a grateful humor with the editor, who has taken the trouble to group so many pleasant things together, with such threads of coherence as hold one's own rambling thoughts one to another. Mrs. Thurston's reading has been generous and general, and she has not found any human author alien to her. So, we have not only passages from Goethe and Dante and Cervantes, and recondite poets and philosophers, but sayings from Fanny Fern and from even lesser people; and sentiments from singers whose fame has not yet passed the newspapers. It is pleasing to find that in so motley an assemblage, drawn in such a democratic spirit from so many sources, the literary company is seldom vulgar or disagreeable.

Memorial Service for Three Hundred Thousand Union Soldiers. With the Commemorative Discourse, by Joseph P. Thompson, D.D. (Loyal Publication Society, New York.)—It was our good fortune to be of the huge throng at Dr. Thompson's church that listened to the inspiring music and words evoked by the memory of the Federal dead, one Sunday evening in December. So much of that impressive service as could be preserved in print is contained in this pamphlet, and bears its mingled freight of consolation and lofty encouragement to all who mourn for our departed heroes. The discourse alludes to the greatness of their sacrifice as measured by its spontaneousness, its endurance, and its results; and from their graves derives a lesson of faith in the principles of justice and humanity by which, under Providence, the world is ordered.

Works of Charles Dickens. Household Edition. Our Mutual Friend. Four vols. (Hurd & Houghton, New York.)—Our judgment of this, the latest of Mr. Dickens's productions, has been already made known to our readers in a very full discussion of its merits. The publishers, as in duty bound, have not suffered its literary inequality to affect its appearance in the elegant series with which the public are familiar. The four illustrations are this time all from the pencil of Mr. Darley, but possess no striking merit. The press-work is admirable.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

The Coquette; or, The Life and Letters of Eliza Wharton. By a Lady of Massachusetts. The Queen's Revenge. By Wilkie Collins. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

Principles of Education. Drawn from Nature and Revelation, and Applied to Female Education in the Upper Classes. By the author of "Amy Herbert." Two vols. in one. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

The Resources of the Union. A Lecture by Henry C. Carey. Henry Carey Baird, Philadelphia.

A Text-book on Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene. For the Use of Schools and Families. By John C. Draper, M.D.—Wives and Daughters. A Novel. By Mrs. Gaskell.—War of the Rebellion; or, Scylla and Charybdis. By H. S. Foote. Harper & Bros., New York.

The Criterion; or, the Test of Talk about Familiar Things. By Henry T. Tuckerman.—Our Mutual Friend. (Household Edition of the Works of Charles Dickens.) Four vols. Hurd & Houghton, New York.

Grant and his Campaigns: A Military Biography. By Henry Coppée, A.M. Charles B. Richardson, New York.

EYE-WITNESS; OR, LIFE SCENES IN THE OLD NORTH STATE. By A. O. W. B. B. Bussell & Co., Boston.

MEMORIAL SERVICE FOR THREE HUNDRED THOUSAND SOLDIERS. With the Commemorative Discourse, by Joseph P. Thompson, D.D. Loyal Publication Society, New York.

MEMORIAL OF GERARD HALLOCK. By J. Halsted Carroll. Tuttle, Morehouse & Taylor, New Haven.

FAMILIAR LESSONS ABOUT JESUS. By Anna E. McKnight. Part I. Henry Hoyt, Boston.

SNOW-BOUND. A Winter Idyl. By John Greenleaf Whittier.—COUPON BONDS. By J. T. Trowbridge. Ticknor & Fields, Boston.

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Shall greet me like the odors blown
From unseen meadows newly mown,
Or lilies floating in some pond,
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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening,
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GOVERNMENT has been a large seller of gold this week, and the consequence has been a decline in the price to 137. It closed this evening at 137⅛ to 137¼. Gold continues to be in active demand for delivery, but holders are no longer able to make ¼ to 3-16 per day by lending their gold, as was the case last week. As usual, the downward tendency of specie brings into the market, as sellers for the fall, a large number of merchants who seek to protect their drooping merchandise by this "hedging" process. It is still pretty generally felt among speculators that if Congress does its duty to the country, gold may sell at 125, or at least 130, by midsummer. But no such price can be touched if the Treasury Department continues to hoard in its vaults two-thirds of the active gold of the country. Exchange has improved, as was natural, on the fall in gold. Bankers' sterling bills are now quoted at 107¾ to 108. Many houses which had been keeping their means in gold during the period when it was worth ¼ per cent. a day, have lately sold the coin and bought exchange. It is yet too soon to say anything positively with regard to this year's foreign trade. The year opens with heavy importations—the duties one day this week at this port were nearly a million. And on the other hand, the exports, consisting mainly of cotton, are so liberal as to pay for all we are receiving from abroad, and to leave a balance in our favor. As to the future, that mainly depends upon the spring trade. If importers can work off their large importations at a profit, it may be assumed that the consumption of foreign goods this year will be in excess of all previous years. If, on the other hand, they should be slow of sale, a marked decrease in import entries will be developed as the year advances.

Thus far, sound men are dubious of the future. Of the two great markets for goods, the West is straitened by the decline in produce, and the South, though rich in cotton, is too poor in credit and too newly readmitted to commercial society to command much reliance. Two prominent clouds overhang the future. One is the prospect of currency contraction, the other the prospect of cholera. Either would prove gravely injurious to commerce. Though Congress still delays action upon the Ways and Means bill for the funding of the currency, notice was given this week of a measure declaring the interest-bearing legal tender notes no longer a legal tender after a fixed date. This is laying the axe to the root of the tree. Of these interest-bearing legal tenders there are over $180,000,000 afloat, some of which are selling as high as 108. By far the greater part of them are held by banks, which hold them in the double quality of investments and reserve. Were they pronounced to be no longer a legal tender, the currency would at a blow be curtailed one-third, and the banks which use them as a reserve would be compelled to replace them by plain legal tenders. The result would be a general enquiry for money and a healthy check to indiscriminate speculation. It is reported from Washington that whatever differences of opinion exist on matters of detail in the Ways and Means Committee, the House, as a whole, is firmly set toward currency contraction, and is likely to favor that measure which looks to the most thorough and direct rehabilitation of the national currency.

Not the least significant indication of the crisis is the condition of real estate. For four years—ever since the first issues of paper-money by Government—speculators have been buying real estate for the rise, holding it year after year, paying taxes on it, and at last selling it, in despair, at no advance on the original cost. Everything—stocks, produce, merchandise, manufactures, gold, and labor—rose; land and houses remained stationary. They sold in 1865 for the same money, in paper—as a general rule—as they had commanded in gold in 1860. Within the past sixty days a change has occurred. An active speculative movement in land and houses has broken out. Buildings have advanced 25 per cent. in a month. Fortunes have been realized by the purchases of vacant lots and Broadway stores. One man is pointed out who has made half a million since New Year by judicious purchases of up-town property. Thus far the movement has been chiefly confined to city property. But it is contagious. An advance in real estate is reported at Cincinnati, St. Louis, and Chicago. And the enormous advance in rents in New York will naturally drive a considerable proportion of city people to the suburban villages, which will lead to a corresponding rise in values there. Already shrewd speculators are picking up houses and farms in the counties surrounding New York, on the theory that before midsummer they will be worth twice their present value. These symptoms are full of instruction. History has been written in vain for those who neglect or misunderstand them. All inflations in this country have pursued the same uniform path. A plethora of money, or its representatives, starts the rise; it begins in the most sensitive market, the stock exchange; from thence it spreads to produce, then to merchandise, then to labor and manufactures, the product of labor; last of all it reaches real estate, and there, after running wild for a brief season, it culminates in a general collapse. However different the causes of the inflation, however varied its incidents, these have always been its leading characteristics, and they have never varied in their order and sequence. Any who doubt, must be referred to the record of 1836–7 and 1856–7. It is hardly necessary to enforce the application. He who runs may read in the signs which surround him the important revelation that we are now in the last stage of the inflation which commenced four years ago, and which has made and unmade so many fortunes. How much longer it may pursue its headlong course no one can tell. Speculation in real estate may riot until no man can afford to buy a house unless he has been a contractor or expects to be a bankrupt. We may yet see, as in 1836, a wild competition for deep-water lots, or a lively enquiry, at a premium, for shares in a railway not yet constructed, as in 1856. But madness of this sort will be short-lived; whether the end come from the natural reaction, from excessive speculation, or from the cholera, or from currency contraction, or from any other now unforeseen cause, it will come, and come surely and terribly to those who owe money.

The money market rules easy at 5 to 6 per cent. for call loans. The Sub-Treasury in this city has been paying the semi-annual interest on $100,000,000 of seven-thirties; but still, so large are the receipts for duties and internal revenue that its balance is again nearly $100,000,000. With this enormous balance on hand, for which there appears to be no use, Government continues to allow 5 per cent. for temporary deposits—to the mystification of commercial men. A banker who should borrow money on interest for the mere pleasure of having a large balance over night, would not enjoy a high credit among his fellows. Whether the Government business is subject to other laws, and justifies more lofty practices, is a question which every tax-payer can settle for himself.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	Feb. 10.	Feb. 17.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅛	104½	⅜	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102⅝	103⅜	¾	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102⅝	103½	⅞	....
10-40 Bonds	94⅛	91⅛ ex coup	....	....
7.30 Notes, second series	99⅛	99⅜	¼	....
New York Central	88⅛	93	4⅞	....
Erie Railway	78	81¾	3¾	....
Hudson River	100	104	4	....
Reading Railroad	100	101¾	1¾	....
Michigan Southern	69	71½	2½	....
Cleveland and Pittsburg	79¾	81¾	2	....
Chicago and North-western	27¾	29⅛	1⅜	....
" " " Preferred	54½	56½	2	....
Chicago and Rock Island	101¾	106	4¼	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	92	95¾	3¾	....
Canton	43½	44½	1	....
Cumberland	44⅛	45¼	1⅛	....
Mariposa	12⅛	12½	⅜	....
American Gold	139	137⅛	....	1⅞
Bankers' Bills on London	107¼	108	¾	....
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

The course of prices has again been generally upward. Two prominent bear houses—prominent rather by reason of the extent of their o[illegible] than in regard to their means or credit—failed yesterday, and [illegible] quence was large purchases of stock for their account. This of [illegible] an improved market, and predisposed speculators to cover short [illegible] ventures for the rise. The clique in Rock Island, assisted by t[illegible] that stock, forced up the price yesterday to 106¼, at which figu[illegible] willing to unload. A lively movement has been started in N[illegible] tral, on the strength of a theory that Governor Fenton will r[illegible] veto of last winter, and permit the road to raise the rate of fa[illegible] but little real probability of such an event. If the Governor w[illegible] mit the road to increase its fares when the currency was only [illegible] on the dollar, and gold seemed likely to go to 500, he is hard[illegible]

so now, when we seem to be in a fair way of resuming specie payments in the course of a few years. The advances in Erie and Michigan Southern are chiefly due to the failure previously mentioned, which created an abnormal demand for these stocks. Railway earnings continue thus far to show a decline as compared with last year, and unless there should be a marked advance in the price of produce—of which at present there is no symptom—the opening of navigation will give rise to a still greater diminution. There is no description of Western produce which, at present prices, can afford to travel by rail, if water communication can be had. Nor can it be a matter of doubt that the consumption of Eastern and foreign goods at the West will this year be smaller than it was last—with wheat, corn, and oats at their present figures, the Western farmers will have much less money than usual to spend in dry goods or in travel.

HOME

INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND

INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CASH CAPITAL, - - - $1,400,000 00

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom, and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-ensuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies by receiving a note for one-half when the premium amounts to over $30.

THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

$912,342 00,

and

$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

$1,400,777 16.

of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United
been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash
the policy holders.

COMPETENT AGENTS WANTED.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

THE MERCANTILE MUTUAL

INSURANCE COMPANY.

OFFICE, 35 WALL STREET, NEW YORK.

Assets, January 1, 1866 . . . . . $1,366,699

ORGANIZED APRIL, 1844.

The Company has paid to its Customers, up to the present time, Losses amounting to over

EIGHTEEN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.

For the past nine years the cash dividends paid to Stockholders, made from ONE-THIRD of the net profits, have amounted in the aggregate to

ONE HUNDRED AND TWENTY-ONE AND A HALF PER CENT.

Instead of issuing a scrip dividend to dealers, based on the principle that all classes of risks are equally profitable, this Company will hereafter make such cash abatement or discount from the current rates, when premiums are paid, as the general experience of underwriters will warrant, and the net profits remaining at the close of the year will be divided to the stockholders.

This Company continues to make Insurance on Marine and Inland Navigation and Transportation Risks on the most favorable terms, including Risks on Merchandise of all kinds, Hulls, and Freight.

Policies issued making loss payable in Gold or Currency, at the Office in New York, or in Sterling, at the Office of Rathbone, Bros. & Co., in Liverpool.

TRUSTEES.

Joseph Walker, James Freeland, Samuel Willetts, Robert L. Taylor, William T. Frost, William Watt, Henry Eyre, Cornelius Grinnell, E. E. Morgan, Her. A. Schleicher, Joseph Slagg, Jas. D. Fish, Geo. W. Hennings, Francis Hathaway,
Aaron L. Reid, Ellwood Walter, D. Colden Murray, E. Haydock White, N. L. McCready, Daniel T. Willetts, L. Edgerton, Henry R. Kunhardt, John S. Williams, William Nelson, Jr., Charles Dimon, A. William Heye, Harold Dolner, Paul N. Spofford.

ELLWOOD WALTER, President.
CHAS. NEWCOMB, Vice-Prest.

C. J. DESPARD, Secretary.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - - - - - - - - $1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - - - 1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.

ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.

B. SEAMAN, Cashier.

ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier.

Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, of body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS,

PUBLISHER,

130 Nassau Street, N. Y.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

GRAND, Celebrated Gold Medal
SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

GROVER & BAKER'S

SEWING MACHINES

WERE AWARDED THE HIGHEST PREMIUMS

At the State Fairs of

New York,	Illinois,	Virginia,
New Jersey,	Michigan,	N. Carolina,
Vermont,	Wisconsin,	Tennessee,
Pennsylvania,	Iowa,	Alabama,
Ohio,	Kentucky,	Oregon,
Indiana,	Missouri,	California,

And at numerous Institute and County Fairs, including all the Fairs at which they were exhibited the past three years.

The GROVER & BAKER ELASTIC-STITCH SEWING MACHINE is superior to all others, for the following reasons:

1. The seam is stronger and more elastic than any other.

2. It is more easily managed, and is capable of doing a greater variety and range of work than any other.

3. It is capable of doing all the varieties of sewing done by other machines, and, in addition, executes beautiful embroidery and ornamental work.

GROVER & BAKER S. M. CO.,
495 Broadway, New York.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

AGENTS WANTED. 538 Broadway, N. Y.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.

THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,

STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,

505 BROADWAY, N. Y.

THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. FOUR distinct Stitches.

Pacific Mail Steamship Company's

THROUGH LINE

TO CALIFORNIA,

TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,

AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, *via* Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

	FIRST CABIN,	SECOND CABIN,	STEERAGE,
ON STEAMERS....	$325.	$225.	$100.

Panama Railroad ticket invariably $25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, *via* HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

F. W. G. BELLOWS, AGENT.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale by all Dealers.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars

They are more fire-proof.

They are more burglar-proof.

They are perfectly dry.

They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.

Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PYLE'S SALERATUS. | PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
PYLE'S CREAM TARTAR. | PYLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices $60, $75, $100, $125, $150, $175, $200, and $225. Factory and Warerooms, 81 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.,

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS,

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost		$4,881,919 70
(Market value, $5,018,449 06.) Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., GEORGE WILKES, M.D., } Medical Examiners.
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.

(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

Wareroom, 135 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE President's veto and the escapade in the shape of a speech with which he followed it up have excited so much sensation during the week that little else has been talked of or thought of. We believe that, in spite of the efforts of his supporters to appear pleased by the speech, it struck them, as it has the rest of the country, with dismay. Hardly anybody attempts to defend it in private, and the apologies of the newspapers have a very constrained air. We are, of course, now speaking of the Union party. The Democrats are jubilant, for two reasons. In the first place, they are enchanted that a Republican chief should have made such an exhibition of himself, and in the second, that he should even appear to repudiate the policy on which that party has hitherto acted. The expressions of opinion from other parts of the country are varied. The loyal men of Missouri denounce the President, the "Conservatives" fire a hundred guns in his honor; the Union State Central Committee of California declares its intention to believe the best of him and to hope that he will do better than his speech and message would lead them to expect, while the Democrats endorse him. Governor Low, of the same State, expresses "anxiety and alarm" at the President's course; "Sunset" Cox has nominated Mr. Johnson for the next presidency at Grover's Theatre in Washington, and declares the Southern States must be let in to vote for him; and John Van Buren, of this city, the president of the Manhattan Club, has nominated him for the same office in an oration delivered at Albany. The crowd which Mr. Johnson addressed was mainly composed of Democrats, the débris of a meeting that had just adjourned.

THE veto and speech, much as they excited the rest of the country, seem to have produced a singularly tranquillizing, we might almost say sobering, effect on Congress. The calmest, most logical, and statesmanlike speech of the session was made by Mr. Trumbull, on the morning following the veto, in the presence of a crowd boiling with excitement in the gallery. Mr. Fessenden has since delivered another in the same spirit, defending the course pursued by Congress in excluding the Southern representatives. The tone of the debate is the most encouraging sign of the times.

ONE of the most important, if least demonstrative, celebrations on Washington's birthday was the opening of the great railroad bridge at Albany, which has been twenty months in building, and now delivers the west bank of the river from its dependence upon Troy for connection with the East. The actual need of it, however, is not so great as has been. The most extraordinary movement ever known among our people, which filled every public conveyance to overflowing, was witnessed in June, July, August, and September of last year, exclusive of military transportation at the close of the war. Since that time there has been a marked falling off both in passengers and freights. Freight of the fourth class, indeed, which is now being carried at a cent a ton, cost the railroad companies last year not less than a cent and a half. In the meantime scarcely a single item of railroad expenses has been lessened by a fall in prices.

THE public will gladly sanction the action of Congress last week in aid of the Russo-American telegraph. By it the Secretary of the Navy is required to lend one steam-vessel from the Pacific squadron to sound the opposite coasts and otherwise to assist in laying the submarine cable that is to bind the hemispheres. The line lacks only about twenty-five hundred miles of being completed—pretty equally divided between the two continents. With the corresponding assistance volunteered by the Emperor of Russia it is likely to be finished in a twelvemonth.

THAT provision of the internal revenue act which requires licenses to be taken out for the pursuit of certain kinds of business was sought to be improved by the liquor dealers of Massachusetts to evade the liquor law of the State. The case of John McGuire, which Mr. Cushing has charge of, was decided adversely to his pretended right to sell ardent spirits, in the State Superior Court. Carried to Washington by a writ of error, it has fared no better. Behind it, and independent of it, are a batch of cases which have been lumped by the "Public Safety Association," a patriotic body of men engaged in the liquor traffic, who are anxious that the Government should derive all the income it can from their casks and bottles and demijohns. Their counsel refuses to be disheartened by the fate of McGuire, and assures them there is no cause yet for them to lower their spirits.

IF words were things, Mr. Stephens's speech at Milledgeville, on Thursday last, would indicate a not distant return of the South to its right mind and a better state of society. It is something, to be sure, for one who has been chosen senator to represent the new Georgia in Congress, to declare that the blacks should have every facility afforded them for moral and intellectual cultivation, and such ample protection secured to them "that they may start equal before the law in the possession and enjoyment of all rights of personal liberty and property." And it is something for the legislature to have endorsed these and kindred sentiments. The weight of everything Mr. Stephens says, however, is grievously lessened by the readiness which he has shown ever since 1860 to repudiate his own principles and find justification for popular follies. He opposed secession, and then became the most extravagant eulogist of it that ever mounted the stump. He remained silent when he had given up all hope of success in the war, and now once more assumes the congenial office of reconciling his countrymen to the inevitable. He plays a useful, but not dignified, part in reconstruction. Meanwhile Gov. Jenkins, of the same State, and Gov. Orr, of South Carolina, have given evidence, in the acts which they have vetoed, of

a sincere desire to put all classes on a legally impartial footing, and to raise and enlighten those whom it was once the interest of slavery to debase.

The proposition which has been brought before Congress to establish a system of telegraphs, in conjunction with the post-office, affording communication with all parts of the country at uniform rates, and to do away with the monopolies which now confine the use of the wires to the rich, and cut down messages to almost unintelligible brevity, would probably effect as great a change in correspondence as the cheap postage. Letters would become shorter and more frequent. Friends would converse by telegraph, and we should eventually see it introduced extensively into private houses. But, unless means were taken to have it managed better than the post-office, we doubt if it would have any great advantage over the latter in point of speed. Delays would constantly occur, and there would be no remedy.

A San Francisco cockney, writing to the New York *Times*, ridicules the expression, "fervor of the California sun," used by The Nation, apparently not being aware that the climate of San Francisco, which is never extremely warm, does not extend over the whole State. It is a singular fact, little known, that nowhere else in the world, not even in the tropics, have any thermometrical observations been recorded which show as great a heat from the sun as in the southern parts of the great central basin of California. The name of California is supposed to be derived from the Latin *calida* and *fornax*, and to refer to the furnace-heat experienced by the Spanish missionaries in their first attempts to explore the country.

It is announced that Wigfall "has escaped from Texas." From whom or what he has escaped does not clearly appear, but if anybody is in pursuit of him we sincerely trust he will get off. Our only regret is that he did not "escape" ten years ago. In fact, one great source of embarrassment just now is that these "escapes" are not more frequent. There are large numbers of gentlemen at the South who would do us a great service by giving us the slip and running off under our very noses. Gen. Magruder was, we believe, so frightened after the close of the war that he did not rest till he had put the ocean between him and somebody, we believe it was never clearly ascertained whom, but very few of his companions-in-arms are equally nervous.

The *World* speaks of the meeting on Thursday last, at the Cooper Institute, as a "meeting of repentant Republicans," and says "it was everything it could have wished or anticipated," and holds that it declared, by the address and resolutions, "Forney, D.D., Sumner, Stevens, and Phillips to be no better than Davis, Toombs, Slidell, and Benjamin."

There has been another batch of correspondence between Mr. Adams and the Earl of Clarendon published on the subject of the *Shenandoah*. The ground traversed by both sides is now so familiar that there would be little use in going over it. Lord Clarendon, with the greatest naïveté, declared that it would be "useful and practical to forget the past, that England and the United States had each become aware of the defects which existed in international law," and he proposed that they should both go to work to amend the code. The defect in this suggestion is, that one side bears the whole expense of the experiments, and the American shipping interest may well object to being used as a *corpus vile* by English jurists. If Semmes and Waddell are to be considered in the light of a commission of enquiry into the condition of the law of neutrals, it is somewhat unreasonable to make the merchants of New York pay all their costs and charges, when they had absolutely nothing to do with their appointment.

Count Montholon has written to M. Drouyn de Lhuys expressing entire satisfaction with the manner in which our Government has dealt with the Bagdad affair. It appears that the outrage was perpetrated by sixty soldiers from one of our negro regiments. The departure of a body of this size from their quarters in the night, for the purpose of plundering a town on foreign soil, suggests some uncomfortable reflections as to the discipline of the corps to which they belong. Where was the guard, and where were the officers? are questions which will naturally suggest themselves to the minds of most simple civilians.

The silent influence of England as a free Government on the Continental nations deserves to be borne in mind and contrasted with the diplomatic ascendency of her Imperial neighbor. The latest example of this influence is afforded by Sweden, which, while retaining the four orders of feudalism, has abolished the four chambers corresponding to each, and substituted two like those which exist in all constitutional governments, with annual sessions. A slight property qualification determines who shall vote and be eligible to office. The defence of royalty is an appeal to the country when Parliament and the Ministry disagree.

The Prussian Chamber is vigorously asserting its rights against the despotic measures of Herr von Bismark. Two of the opposition members were recently indicted by Government for words spoken in debate. This violation of the law the first and second tribunals refused to sanction, but the Supreme Court endorsed it. The Chamber admitted resolutions denouncing this proceeding in a very emphatic manner, and invited the Minister of Justice to attend the discussion of them. The Committee on the Judiciary was informed by the Premier that the Parliament had no business to meddle with the transaction by which Lauenburg was purchased of Austria for two millions of thalers. They, nevertheless, decided, and the Chamber by an immense majority agreed with them, that the annexation would be legally null until the two Chambers should have given their constitutional assent. The same committee unanimously resolved that last year's persecution of the deputies in their *fête* at Cologne was contrary to the constitution and to the law regulating assemblies. The Minister of the Interior and the Attorney-General were especially censured.

That part of the French Senate's address to the Emperor which said that France was accustomed to gang its ain gait—*la France a l'habitude de ne marcher qu' à son heure*—and would not be moved from its latinizing purposes by the high and threatening words of the United States, was received on the reading with marked satisfaction. The conclusion of the address, which paints the Second Empire as the consummate balance of liberty and power, is as sad an evidence of demoralization under tyranny as can be found this side of Tiberius and his senators.

The opposition in the Corps Législatif have begun the session by attacking the validity of M. Walewski's appointment to the presidency of that body by Imperial decree, after resigning his senatorship and being elected as a representative, but before the legality of his election had been passed upon by the Chamber. M. Larrabure's position was also vigorously contested. He was at the last session a deputy from Orthez, but resigned in vacation, without permission of the Chamber, and stood for Pau, from which place he was returned. Of course the Government party outvoted the friends of law and precedent.

Madame Dora d'Istria has been admitted, in place of that distinguished traveller, the late Madame Ida Pfeiffer, to the French Imperial Society of Geography, founded in 1821 by Malte Brun.

An exhibition of the paintings of the late Massimo d'Azeglio, collected from public and private sources, is now in progress in the Palazzo Carignano at Turin. The works of the illustrious author have, in accordance with his wishes, been turned over by his heirs to Barbèra, in Florence, for republication.

The Swiss people have rejected, by their suffrage, all the constitutional amendments proposed by Government, save that relating to the

Jews—an exception made in favor of the existing commercial treaty with France. Among the reforms thus defeated were the unification of weights and measures, liberty of worship and conscience, prohibition of lotteries and gambling-houses (opposed by the Catholic cantons especially), and federal regulation of certain punishments.

ITALY is one of Switzerland's best customers. In the past year her money orders, payable in the Federation, amounted to 830,965 francs, against 631,124 in return from across the Alps.

BY a vote of 33 to 15 the Belgian Senate has rejected the Government proposal to abolish capital punishment.

AN honest Magyar of Pesth, on occasion of the recent Imperial entry into that town, had planted himself in the second story of a house on the line of the procession and made himself conspicuous by his enthusiasm. When his own lungs were fairly exhausted, he caught up his little son, who sat beside him, and cried: "Now, boy, it 's your turn to shout!"

THE Holy See has obtained of France, as already of Spain and Austria, a small contingent for its army. The troops thus furnished, having been discharged from the service of their country, are permitted to enlist under a foreign standard.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, Feb. 24, 1866.

THIS has been the most exciting week of the session. It opened on Monday with the generally unexpected veto message of the President, returning the Freedmen's Bureau bill, with his objections. The immediate feeling of the Union members was that of profound and strong regret, tempered, in the minds of the majority, with an intenser emotion, impelling them to a more determined attitude in defence of the principle of the bill. With difficulty an adjournment of the question until Tuesday was carried. The public interest in the issue was early evinced by an immense throng of people, filling the Senate galleries and lobbies to overflowing, surging through the corridors, and even invading, with the connivance of senators, the precincts sacred to the deliberations of the Senate. After the strong but temperate argument of Mr. Trumbull in defence of the bill, the veto was sustained by the needed vote of more than one-third of the Senate. The senators who recanted their faith in the bill which they sustained by their votes three weeks before were Messrs. Dixon, Doolittle, Morgan, Norton, Stewart, Willey, and Van Winkle. Had any two of these gentlemen adhered to the majority the result would have been otherwise.

Senator Wilson has promptly introduced a bill to continue in force the existing Freedmen's Bureau until otherwise provided by act of Congress. Meanwhile, it is given out, on high authority, that until the President proclaims the rebellion ended the war is to be considered as still flagrant in the South, and, consequently, the final year of the Freedmen's Bureau has not yet begun to run.

The next excitement of the week was the concurrent resolution reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, declaring against any admission of members from the States lately insurgent, in advance of a formal act of recognition by Congress of their right to representation. This was "dragooned" through the House by a vote of over two-thirds of the members present, under the pressure of the previous question, in less than twenty-four hours after the reading of the veto message. Yet the resolution encounters opposition in the Senate from moderate Republicans, and were it not for the feeling unfavorable to the President, engendered by his extraordinary speech of the 22d, there is a recusant minority of the Union members in both Houses which would henceforth separate from the majority, and vote with the Democrats upon the chief matters in issue. It is a plain fact, however, that the President's speech has (however unintentionally) strengthened the Radicals.

The measure proposed by Senator Brown, of Missouri, for an absorption by the Government of the telegraphic business of the country, and cheapening it, like the mails, throughout the Union, opens a most important subject for legislation. Plainly, we ought either to have a freer competition in telegraphing, or the Government should take the monopoly into its own hands, in the interest of the people. The enormous charges and incessant abuses of the present organized system of monopolies have been long enough borne with. The vested rights involved in the various patents for telegraphic communication will soon expire, and the Government should take timely steps to provide against any renewals of the existing monopolies by those combinations which so often prove all-powerful. It might be pertinent, also, to enquire how far an enormously rich corporation called an express company, dividing over 50 per cent. annual profits, should be permitted to monopolize the carrying business of the country, and exclude all wholesome competition.

The Loan bill, which will be the special order in the House the coming week, will encounter the opposition of all who are hostile to a speedy contraction of the currency, but it will probably pass in both Houses.

DIARY.

Monday, February 19, 1866.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented a petition from a convention of colored people of the State of Florida, praying for homesteads, education, and the elective franchise. Referred. Several petitions were presented and referred asking Congress to secure guarantees from the Southern States before admitting them to a participation in the Government. A petition from the Free Trade League for continuance of the Reciprocity Treaty with the United Provinces was referred. The joint resolution passed by the House, giving the consent of Congress to the transfer of Berkeley and Jefferson counties from Virginia to West Virginia, was reported. Three bills granting lands to aid in construction of railways on the Pacific slopes were reported from the Committee on Public Lands. Mr. Wilson offered a joint resolution to disband the State militia in sundry disloyal States. He explained that the officers of the Freedmen's Bureau report great outrages committed in Georgia, Mississippi, and Louisiana by the local militia upon all freedmen and loyalists within their reach. Referred. The Senate resumed the consideration of the constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Howard offered an amendment providing that all persons of African descent of the following classes shall have the right of suffrage: Those who have been in the military service of the United States, those who can read and write, and those who possess $250 worth of property. Mr. Yates spoke three hours on the constitutional amendment reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, arguing in favor of universal suffrage for the freedmen, and declaring that Congress now has the constitutional power and should exercise it to prohibit the States from making any distinction between citizens on the ground of race or color. A message was received from the President, returning the Freedmen's Bureau bill with his objections to its becoming a law.

In the House, a bill was referred constituting eight hours a day's work for all laborers employed by the Government of the United States. Also, a bill repealing all exemptions of United States bonds from taxation; also, a bill equalizing bounties to all volunteers. Mr. McKee introduced a constitutional amendment prohibiting all persons at any time engaged in rebellion from holding any office under the Government of the United States. Referred. Mr. Bromwell offered a resolution declaring only the loyal States competent to ratify amendments of the Constitution. Referred. Bills were offered and referred to reimburse the State of Missouri for moneys expended in aid of the United States; to grant lands to encourage emigration to Michigan; to reduce the duty on printing-paper; and to protect persons from arrests and prosecutions for acts done under authority of the Government. Mr. Longyear offered a resolution declaring that the late rebel States are deprived of all proper civil government. Adopted—yeas, 102; nays, 36. Also, a resolution declaring it the duty of Congress by appropriate legislation to enable those States to organize republican governments—yeas, 104; nays, 33. Also, a resolution declaring that the President ought to maintain the suspension of the writ of habeas corpus in those States—yeas, 120; nays, 26. Also a resolution declaring that the President should maintain military possession and control of the rebel States—yeas, 117; nays, 23. Also a resolution declaring that the President is entitled to thanks for employing the war power to protect Union citizens and freedmen in the rebel States—yeas, 134; nays, 8. Mr. Banks offered a joint resolution directing the Secretary of the Navy to detail a steam vessel to aid in the laying of the inter-continental telegraph between America and Russia. Adopted. A bill was passed amending the act prohibiting the importation of cattle so as to enable the Secretary of the Treasury to suspend the act with regard to any foreign country at his discretion. The Committee of Elections reported that H. D. Washburne (Rep.) is entitled to the seat occupied by D. W. Voorhees (Dem.) as a representative from the seventh Indiana district. Laid over. The rest of the day was consumed on the Pennsylvania contested election case of Koontz *vs.* Coffroth. The House decided that the latter gentleman had the *primâ facie* right to the vacant seat, and he was sworn in.

February 20.—In the Senate, petitions were presented and referred from twelve hundred citizens of Missouri, protesting against the usurpation of the President in recognizing the constitutions and governments of the rebel States; from the Union League Club of New York, in favor of certain guarantees before the rebel States are recognized; and from citizens of Wisconsin, New Jersey, Kansas, and Massachusetts to the same effect. Mr. Wilson offered a resolution instructing the Joint Committee of Fifteen to enquire and report how far the late rebel States have complied with the terms heretofore proposed by the President as conditions of their resuming practical relations with the United States. Adopted. Mr. Wade offered a proposed constitutional amendment, providing that the President of the United States shall not be elig

ible to a second term of office. Laid over. A bill was offered and referred to protect children of African descent from being enslaved, contrary to the Constitution. The Freedmen's Bureau bill, returned with a veto message, was taken up. Mr. Davis spoke against the bill. Mr. Trumbull defended it against the objections of the President in his veto message, claiming that it was constitutional, expedient, and necessary. The Senate then voted on the question—Shall the bill pass, the President's objections notwithstanding? resulting—yeas, 30; nays, 18; absent, 2. Two-thirds not having voted for the bill, it was defeated.

In the House, the Ways and Means Committee reported against any reduction in the duty on distilled spirits. Mr. Stevens reported from the Joint Committee of Fifteen a concurrent resolution declaring that no senator or representative shall be admitted from any late rebel State until Congress shall have declared such State entitled to representation. Mr. Grider offered a minority report, that the State of Tennessee is now entitled to representation in Congress. Mr. Stevens said the committee had been favorable to Tennessee until the veto message of the President, but now they could proceed no further in that direction without surrendering the rights of Congress to the usurpation of another power. He demanded the previous question, when several hours were spent in motions and parliamentary expedients by the minority to delay action. The resolution finally passed—yeas, 109; nays, 40.

February 21.—In the Senate, Mr. Henderson presented a petition from women asking the right of suffrage. The bill passed by the House, extending the right of suffrage in the District of Columbia, was reported without amendment. House joint resolution placing a vessel of the United States at the service of the Inter-continental Telegraph Company was passed. The concurrent resolution from the House against the admission of senators or representatives from the rebel States was reported and laid over. Mr. Buckalew spoke against the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation, arguing that the amendment was a partisan measure, that eleven States are unrepresented in proposing it, that it will provoke discord, and that New England has now an undue influence in Congress, which ought to be diminished and not increased.

In the House, the Loan bill of the Ways and Means Committee was discussed. It provides for the funding of the entire floating public debt in securities payable in from five to forty years, at six per cent., authorized by act of March 3, 1865. After speeches by Messrs. Morrill and Hooper in its favor, and Kelley against it, the bill was made a special order for Feb. 28.

February 22.—This being the anniversary of Washington's birth, Congress did not meet. Memorial services in honor of Hon. Henry Winter Davis were held in the hall of the House of Representatives.

February 23.—In the Senate, a memorial of the Legislature of Nevada, protesting against the sale of the mineral lands of the U. S., was referred. Several petitions were presented for a constitutional amendment forbidding the States to make distinctions between citizens on account of color. Mr. Wilson introduced a bill to continue in force the Bureau for the relief of freedmen and refugees, which by the terms of the existing law expires in one year after the close of the war. Referred. Mr. Ramsey introduced a bill to secure the speedy construction of the Northern Pacific Railroad and Telegraph. Referred. Mr. Dixon, from the Post-office Committee, reported a resolution asking the Postmaster-General to report on the feasibility of establishing telegraph lines for public use in connection with that department. Mr. Brown advocated the measure on the ground that it would equalize the expense of telegraphic communication to all parts of the country, reduce the cost of telegraphing to about the price of letter communication, break up two gigantic monopolies now bleeding the country, save the Government the large sums it now pays for its despatches, and put an end to the "Associated Press" monopoly of news. The resolution was adopted. The bill granting lands to the San Francisco and Humboldt Bay Railroad Co. was considered and amended. The House concurrent resolution, declaring against the admission of any senator or representative from the late rebel States until Congress shall declare such States entitled to representation, was taken up. Mr. Sherman thought it should not be pressed at this time, in the midst of excitement, as it was only getting up a political wrangle between the President and Congress. Mr. Fessenden replied that when the President tells Congress it is transcending its proper powers, it was no time to postpone the resolution, than which nothing could be more important. He made an extended argument for the resolution, affirming that while the people of the rebel States have not passed from under the jurisdiction of the U. S. Government, yet, as States having rights in the Union, rights to representation in Congress, these States are at an end for the time being. Adjourned to February 26.

In the House, the entire day was occupied upon the Indiana contested election case of Washburne *vs.* Voorhees. The House voted—yeas, 87; nays, 36—that the former is entitled to the seat.

February 24.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches upon the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Clark and Plants, of Ohio, Bromwell, of Illinois, and Beaman, of Michigan. Adjourned to February 26.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE number of refugees who were treated by the medical officers of the Bureau from the time of its organization to the close of the year was 3,630; died, 304, or an average of eight per cent. Of freedmen thus treated there were 90,522; died, 8,374, or an average of nine per cent. The ratio of deceased refugees had been reduced in December from nine per cent. to two; of freedmen, thirteen per cent. to five. These statistics include patients treated in hospital or visited in their own quarters, but make no account of the thousands of cases prescribed for at the numerous dispensaries. Surgeon W. R. De Witt, chief medical officer for the States of Georgia and South Carolina, says that the civil authorities have elected two physicians to attend the poor and destitute black and white, and have agreed to pay all tewards, nurses, cooks, and so forth, that may be needed, as well as the physicians. The Bureau is to furnish medicines only for the freedpeople.

Brig.-Gen. C. H. Howard has been assigned Assistant Commissioner for the District of Columbia, the counties of Alexandria, Fairfax, and Loudon, Virginia, and so much of Maryland as belongs to the military department of Washington. He has issued a circular to the visiting agents, enjoining them to encourage habits of self-support in the colored people by advice and by careful discrimination in assisting them. The unemployed or inadequately paid will be provided with good situations by the Bureau, but, if they refuse to accept them, will be cut off from all further supplies. The general's inspection report, after a tour through South Carolina, Georgia, and Florida, is full of interest. At Beaufort he found that the appointment, by the agent of the Bureau, of a public cotton-weigher had been very beneficial in securing the freedmen from the false weights of speculators. At Darien were large numbers of destitute colored families which had floated on rafts down the Altamaha to the old plantations from which their masters, during the war, had removed them to the interior. Here they had been abandoned without wages or any share of the crops, and their return brought them only to barren fields. Some cases of supposed kidnapping for the Cuba trade had been investigated by the sub-Assistant Commissioner of this district, and two children had been reclaimed from Florida, though the cause of their disappearance was not clearly ascertained. A Union citizen of Georgia, a prisoner for seven months during the rebellion, and now employed as superintendent of the Andersonville burial-ground, has started a school for the colored people in that town of evil memory. The general urges, in conclusion, the indispensable necessity of continuing agencies like those of the Bureau, to prevent suffering and starvation; to obtain redress for the negro against an adverse public sentiment even under impartial laws; to protect him from fraud in the ordinary transactions of business; to maintain schools which otherwise would not be tolerated by the hostile white population; and, on the other hand, to guarantee the rightful interests of the whites. He thinks the present number of agents needs to be increased for all these purposes, and that the United States troops are at present absolutely necessary as auxiliary to them; they would not be respected or possess any authority otherwise. These troops would also serve to protect Northern immigrants, and would repress that local militia which is proving itself an unmixed evil to the blacks. He is led to propose the raising of a provisional force in the Southern States, to be officered by the War Department, preferably from the meritorious among the lately discharged U. S. volunteers. This, too, would be an advantageous substitute for the militia, and would be the means of enlisting on the side of the Government a class otherwise dangerous and troublesome throughout the South, the greater part of whom are unable to read and write, but might be taught like the colored regiments. The officers might act as agents of the Bureau. This proposition has been strongly recommended by a prominent military commander.

The Commissioner of the Bureau has addressed a circular letter to the Assistant Commissioners, in view of the commotion likely to arise from the action of the President in regard to the Freedmen's bill. He warns them to be prepared for fresh hostility on the part of those who have heretofore proved troublesome, and for increased restlessness among the blacks. He exhorts them to persevere steadily in their well-known duties, having the President's assurance that the present law will be held to allow the Bureau a year yet of existence. Meanwhile, every effort should be exerted to demonstrate the complete practicability of the system of free labor, and the conduct of the employees of the Bureau should be diligently inspected with a view to removing corrupt or incapable officials.

Superintendent Eberhart reports from Georgia that the January returns show that there are throughout the State 62 freedmen's schools, 89 teachers, 6,569 pupils—an increase in one month of 5 schools, 22 teachers, and 2,218 pupils. In January the freed people contributed $538 to the support of their schools, and in the city of Augusta over $2,000 during the past six months for their suffering brethren.

—The bill before the North Carolina House of Commons, providing hat negroes shall testify in all cases where they are concerned in per-

son or property, was not allowed to pass to a second reading until amended as follows:

"That this section shall not go into effect until the jurisdiction of matters relating to the Freedmen's Bureau shall be fully committed to the courts of this State."

—In the Texas convention the committee on the State constitution reported the following amendments:

"ARTICLE —. No slavery or involuntary servitude shall exist in the State of Texas except as a punishment for crime.

"ART. —. Negroes shall have the right to sue or be sued, to make contracts, to hold property, and to be tried by the courts.

"ART. —. In suits between whites and blacks they may testify in their own behalf."

—Mr. George H. Hammond, a teacher of the freedmen at Massanutton, Page Co., Virginia, is reported to have been assaulted in his boarding-place by armed ruffians, taken out and ducked several times in the Shenandoah River, and threatened with death if he should not leave the place within three days. Mr. Hammond was sent out by the American Missionary Association of this city.

—The liberty which the authorities have accorded the ladies of Paris who have asked permission to hold "meetings" in behalf of the freedmen, has not passed without remark. Apropos of a "seconde réunion," recently held in that city, a writer in the *Débats* remarks that it enabled the public, who have hitherto known MM. Albert de Broglie and Cochin only by reading their works, to discover that "the one is a very striking and the other a very eloquent speaker." M. Laboulaye, who delivered the opening discourse, referred to certain trustworthy statistics prepared in England, from which it appeared that "in point of good works an Englishwoman is worth a fraction more than three and a half Englishmen." "But who," adds the writer already mentioned, "can reckon how many Frenchmen are worth one Frenchwoman when an *autorisation* is in question?"

Minor Topics.

THE uproarious applause with which Mr. Johnson's references to his having once been a tailor are always received, reminds us of the great quantity of error and absurdity which is mixed with wholesome truth in the popular construction of the phrase "dignity of labor."

One false development of it is to regard work as an end, not as a means; another is the socialist idea that hand-work is the best if not the only real work; some again, who hesitate to go this length, suppose that in democratic theory all labor is, and in democratic practice all labor should be, equally honorable; there is no such thing as high work or low work. We shall not be content with saying that this conception cannot be carried out beyond the realms of Utopia and Cuckoocloudland; we are convinced that if it could be realized here to-morrow, the consequences would be mischievous for this reason among many:

Other things being equal, that occupation which is the most lucrative will have the greatest attraction for the majority of mankind. Let every employment be alike honorable, and you have made a great step toward equalizing the other things. Why should one be a professor of chemistry, for instance, rather than an old-clothes man, if there is no difference in the respectability of the two occupations, and the latter pays best? Great numbers of those engaged in the learned and liberal professions—we may say the majority, after a certain age—are chiefly kept in those professions by the position and consideration attached to them. Destroy that inducement, and the ranks of the racers after wealth, already too crowded, would be fearfully swollen.

The true democratic theory and doctrine we take to be this: Every man should have a fair start in life, so far as the law of the land can give it him. The natural inequalities of men, physical and intellectual, are quite enough (especially when the accident of wealth is taken into the account), without adding any artificial ones of politically recognized class or caste. To have been born poor, to do such work as the poor must do, should be no barrier against any man's advancement whose merits and exertions tend to lift him into a higher position. No honest work is dishonoring to the worker—a very different thing, be it observed, from saying that all work is equally honorable or desirable. *But it is the man that sanctifies the work, not the work that sanctifies the man.* Very often we talk of the dignity of labor when it would be more accurate and philosophical to say the dignity of human nature. In what consisted the glory of Abraham Lincoln and of democracy as illustrated by him? Not in the fact of his having been a rail-splitter, but in the fact that, having begun life as a rail-splitter, he raised himself through a variety of intermediate positions to the highest office. Andrew Johnson is the most striking example that history affords of a democratic official. He once followed a business not only "plebeian," but—from one of those absurd social caprices which no one can explain or justify—regarded as peculiarly mean and ridiculous. He is President of the United States. But suppose he were to occupy his leisure moments (if he has any, alas!) in mending his own clothes. Might not any one of his fellow-citizens indignantly say to him: "Sir, we helped you off the shop-board because you were too good for a tailor, and now you are stultifying yourself and us?" If this be not the true view of the case, then the first hod-carrier is a potential Lincoln or Johnson, and it would save a great deal of trouble and expense to choose all our magistrates by lot, as was actually done in some of the old Greek democracies.

There is a well-known saying of Louis Philippe's often interpreted altogether too literally. That crafty potentate did not mean that he knew better how to rule from the simple ability to black boots, but that, whereas the *porphyro-geniti* usually live all their lives in a pageant and never get behind the scenes, the poverty which made him perform menial offices for himself introduced him to the people, so that he learned human nature from the people directly, not at second or third hand from books or ministers. We may be sure Louis Philippe never blacked his own boots in the Tuileries any more than Louis Napoleon does now; and it would have been a very silly proceeding on his part. There are not so many first-rate men in the world that any of them can be spared to do tenth-rate work.

GENERAL GRANT, for once in his life, has been pleasantly and gracefully entertained in public. The reception at the Union League Club, on Feb. 22, was a complete success. The arrangements were perfect, the ventilation good, and there was no overcrowding, and the hand-shaking was cut down. The ladies, however, indulged in it, and a great many gentlemen—some of the latter prefacing the performance by an apologetic assurance to the general that "they *must* do it." But the effect of this ceremony, in an artistic point of view, is anything but pleasing. To Grant or any other man who goes through it, it has to be for the time being not an indication of respect or pleasure or even of recognition, but a piece of business. Consequently he has to watch for hands instead of looking at faces, and the shaking goes on mechanically, much as a post-office clerk stamps letters, and, as he cannot possibly take his attention off the job for a minute, his expression naturally becomes fixed and even careworn. The public can put an end to this practice, if they please; the heroes cannot; and it is certainly one of the things which, like volunteer fire companies and stage coaches, the community has outgrown. If persevered in much longer, some mechanical contrivance will have to be resorted to to save labor and suffering. We have heard a lever suggested, on shaking of which by the visitor the general, or statesman, or poet, or orator standing near would smile graciously and a photograph be thrown from a concealed receptacle, or, if preferred, an apple, a bonbon, or a piece of cake, or a bunch of flowers. The lever might be fashioned like an arm and hand. The sensation would be very much the same as shaking the hand of even Napoleon or Alexander the Great, and an act of the legislature might be passed declaring it to be to all intents and purposes a real hand-shaking, and ordering it to be taken, had, and reputed as such.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE HARANGUE FROM THE WHITE HOUSE.

WE know from the manner in which a portion of the press has received it that there are persons whom the President's speech at Washington, last Thursday, neither shocked nor grieved, and to them we have nothing to say. Anybody whose moral sense was not offended by it the minute his eye lighted on it, is not likely to be roused into condemnation of it by *ex post facto* homilies, and we do not mean to trouble our readers with an elaborate review of it. As a piece of rhetoric it will hardly be expected that we should criticize it, and what of argument there was in it had been already laid before the public in a much more forcible as well as more formal shape. That most extraordinary passage in which he reiterates against prominent members of the Congress of the United States—men who, whatever their faults may be, enjoy the respect and confidence of a large portion of the community—a charge of suggesting, or seeking, or instigating his assassination, calls both from the press and public for something more than a brief and passing note of disapprobation. No matter in what way we look at it, the utterance of such a charge by such a person at such a crisis is matter of the gravest national importance. If it be true, we ought none of us to rest quietly in our beds till the national legislature is purged of the stain. If it be not true, and we all know it is not, the mere fact that the President of the United States should have shown such a disregard for decency, to say nothing of things higher and more important than decency, as to make it a prominent feature in a harangue to a crowd in the street is, of itself, a scandal and disgrace hardly less deep and humiliating.

The readiness with which foul accusations are thrown out against the character of political opponents has always been one of the most repulsive features of our public life. Men who are ready to asperse the character of others, rarely set a very high value on their own, or are very much shocked by the crimes which they lay at the doors of their neighbors; and nobody who has paid any attention to the reflex influence of language on the mind can doubt that the practice of imputing base motives ends in producing baseness. But these low evils have hitherto been left to the worst portions of the press, and to the great host of "bummers" with which every political party surrounds itself on the approach of great conflicts. But, verily, the appearance of the President at the windows of the White House to accuse prominent members of another branch of the Government of the foulest crime of which a man can be guilty, is something new and alarming in American history.

As the matter stands, however, the over-zealous adherents of the President have managed to aggravate it by their senseless efforts to put a good face on it. Better, infinitely better, would it be to acknowledge that Mr. Johnson had lost his temper and said, in a moment of excitement, things which he would be the first to regret, than to lend even the shadow of countenance to the notion that Messrs. Sumner and Stevens had laid themselves open to such accusations as he hurled against them. No words ever uttered by any Radical, extravagant and violent as some of them have been, could afford the least foundation for charging them with such criminal designs. We have ourselves been ready enough to condemn recklessness and ill-temper in debate when directed against the President and the policy which he favors. We should not have blamed him, therefore, if he had shown that he felt aggrieved, and had he done so with propriety or decency he would have met with a good deal of sympathy from the country; but about his display of Thursday the best course for his supporters to adopt is to say nothing.

There is all the less excuse for the attempt to justify him, inasmuch as there is really no essential difference between his aims, as he defines them, and those of the more radical wing of the party which elected him. Mr. Sumner, no doubt, considers the Freedmen's Bureau in itself an evil. There is no statesman or lawyer who must not deplore the necessity of withdrawing any portion of the population of the country from the jurisdiction of the regular courts by means of any organization whatever. Those whom the President vituperates simply think it reasonable to anticipate results from its action more favorable, and evils from its absence more serious, than he regards as probable. The consequence of such a decided split in the ranks of the Union party as would drive Mr. Johnson and his Northern supporters into the arms of the South would certainly be very serious. It would leave the friends of equal rights here to maintain the contest, if not as a minority, at least in the odious character of a sectional organization. And one of the worst features of the agitation which was inaugurated in this city on Thursday last was, that it was, in our opinion, on the part of some of its prime movers, at least, an attempt to make that split inevitable. In any event, it is clear that nothing but patience, good temper, and moderation on the part of Congress can now save us from great dangers.

We hope that it is yet possible for both parties to remember this, and the marked sobriety which has ruled in the debates of Congress since the unfortunate occurrence up to the moment when we write encourages this hope. The greatest danger which now threatens us is that the calm and earnest study which is demanded of our legislators by one of the most difficult problems ever presented to statesmen will be more than ever prevented by impulses of personal vanity, personal offence, personal ambition, and the heat and reckless disposition roused by personal controversies. Keenly as we feel the terrible mistake of the President, we would not have it forgotten that Andrew Johnson has in times past been tried and not found wanting in patriotism, in devotion to the Union, in faithfulness to his obligations. He stands now with a heavier responsibility than ever resting upon him. He cannot be removed for evidence of a ferocious temper or for bad manners, so long as his misconduct does not take the form of unconstitutional obstruction to the machinery of our Government. He will be President for three years to come, and must be the instrument through which alone we can exercise any legal influence on Southern society. No member of Congress, no leader of the people, can be equal to the occasion who now betrays more anxiety about his record or the record of his party than about the best means, as things now stand and as men are, of securing not only the re-establishment of the Union but the restoration of the reign of law in all parts of the country.

THE FALLACY OF THE VETO.

THE President's message, vetoing the Freedmen's bill, is based throughout on the assumption that in the late war we simply suppressed a rebellion. If this were true, there is no doubt that much of what he says of the propriety of at once admitting the revolted States to a full share in the Government would be well founded. The luxury of reigning over a conquered people is one which no republic can enjoy with impunity. No man who has read history to any purpose, or who knows anything of human nature, would deliberately propose to keep eight millions of Southerners in a state of vassalage merely as a punishment for having rebelled. If there be any lesson which the experience of mankind teaches clearly, it is that the power based on conquest is sure, in the long run, to prove as great an infliction to the governor as the governed. No matter what the South may have done, it would be better for us, as well as better for it, that its normal relations with the Union should be restored to-morrow, that its members should be admitted to Congress, and the liberties of its people placed under the protection of its own courts, if nothing had occurred during the last five years beyond an ordinary rebellion, such as that of Poland against Russia, or Hungary against Austria. If the war had disturbed nothing except the political relations formerly existing between us and the rebels, there is not one word which Mr. Johnson has said upon the impropriety of perpetuating the reign of martial law at the South which we could not heartily endorse.

But the war has not been simply a contest between two sets of men, one maintaining the authority of a government and the other seeking to overthrow it. The fighting of the last four years has not simply, as Mr. Johnson assumes, re-established the jurisdiction of the United States over a certain territorial area, and over a certain number of people. It has wrought a social revolution, which for magnitude, for

rapidity, and for the gravity of its consequences has never been equalled in history. That greatest of modern revolutions by which the French church and aristocracy were overthrown—a movement which shook the civilized world to its centre, and whose consequences are still felt in every quarter of the globe—radical as it was, was far from going down so deeply into the social soil as ours has done. In that case some millions of the bravest and most energetic and intelligent men in the world simply reformed their government by destroying the fetters of feudalism. In our case four millions of men have been lifted from a legal condition hardly superior to that of beasts of the field into that of free citizens. It is therefore a fallacy, and a very gross one, to tell us that when the war which did this thing is over, all is over. All is not over. Northern men and Southern men are not the only parties to the peace, and therefore, when Mr. Johnson asks us all to be as we were, we find it impossible to comply.

The great question after all, the question which it may be Mr. Johnson seeks as earnestly to have fairly answered as we do, is how to assist the freedmen in passing through the transition state between slavery and freedom and independence without increasing or embittering the hostility between them and the whites, and without creating in their minds the feeling that any aid afforded them is more than temporary. He acknowledges this duty as fully as anybody, but, as we understand him, thinks it can be best discharged by handing the whole black population over at an early period to their old masters, with the least possible aid in educating them or relieving their distress. In short, Mr. Johnson believes it more safe and prudent, and therefore a more honorable discharge of responsibility to the liberated slaves of the South, to trust solely to the sense of duty, the fears of future military punishment, and the enlightened self-interest of their late masters for their being treated justly and mercifully, than to maintain for any but the briefest period a method of protection so uncongenial to the American people as that contemplated by the Freedmen's Bureau bill. And it is upon this point that the question arises between him and Congress.

Now, let us ask ourselves plainly what it is that the blacks of the South need that they may become intelligent and useful members of society in the shortest possible period. Is it not, first of all, the education of civilized life, the means of becoming familiarized with the use of their new rights and the discharge of their new duties? Must we not rouse in them, or encourage in them, a love of industry, a love of accumulation, and a respect for property? Can there be any way of doing this which fails to impress them with the belief that they are sure of having exact justice meted out to them, sure of as complete protection as law and police can give them, both for their persons and for the fruits of their industry? Is not this feeling the very basis of civil society? Has any society ever prospered, ever been anything but a dead and decaying carcase, in which any considerable portion of the people were deprived of this assurance? Look at Ireland, look at the "sick man" of Turkey, look at Jamaica. Is the whole earth not full of the most awful warnings against depriving human beings, of any race or color or creed, of the perfect confidence that what they sow they shall reap, that where they lie down to rest at night there they shall rise unharmed in the morning, that there stands around their houses a power stronger than all their enemies put together? We must, in short, if we mean to regenerate Southern society, take care that no portion of it is left outside the law.

Now we do not pretend, nor does anybody, that there ought to be a perpetual Freedmen's Bureau maintained for the purpose of nursing the negroes, although we believe it will take some time for the Southerners to learn to treat them as men of like rights with themselves. Blinding as we believe the hatred of race to be, we might be induced to run the risk of its working mischief if the Southern States generally had manifested the smallest willingness to spread over the freedmen the protection of equality before the law. But in nearly every one of them measures have been passed since the close of the war for the avowed purpose of keeping the blacks down, and withholding from them those common rights and liberties which white men enjoy. And we say deliberately that there could be no better mode of disheartening the freedmen, trampling out the sparks of social ambition in their hearts, than thus meeting them on the threshold of civilization with a penal code; and it is to this code, and not to the ordinary laws of the country, that they are committed whenever the Freedmen's Bureau expires. Moreover, the last section of the bill which Mr. Johnson denounces for its "permanence," actually provides for the cessation of its own operation whenever the various Southern States repeal such portions of their legislation as discriminate against any portion of their population on account of color, and are admitted to Congress. Granted that Southerners must eventually be the protectors of the negro, is that a good reason for allowing them to enter upon the duty before the passions of the war have fairly subsided, and before they have learnt to think of the negro as a *person* with civil rights? We at the North may think this a simple matter—nobody who knows Southern men will so consider it; and the presumption that they have learnt it already is one of the worst features of Mr. Johnson's message. Mr. Johnson's theory is that one year more, the period during which the present act will remain in operation, will be sufficient to bring about the desired change; but there is no necessity for fixing any period whatever. The South itself can fix the period of its release from all extra-constitutional restraint by establishing that equality before the law which is, after all, the only satisfactory proof that can ever be given of its complete submission; and as long as it can do so, the maintenance of the Freedmen's Bureau for any period cannot be considered a hardship.

THE WAY THE UNION WAS SAVED.

We doubt whether it is possible to settle the difference between the President and Congress by a *coup de main*. The problem cannot be solved by gun-firing and mass meetings. And we feel bound to say that we think the attempts which have been made, and in which we were sorry to see Mr. Seward participating, to snap a judgment on the President's action by getting up "imposing demonstrations," before the veto message had been fairly read by the public, and to denounce and belittle the majority in Congress before they had had time to make themselves heard, is not only not creditable, but is so very transparent that it is sure to miss its mark. Public opinion cannot be carried in this way by assault. The people have heard of the Freedmen's Bureau bill before now, are tolerably familiar with all that can be said both for and against it, and are hardly likely to be beguiled in one night into believing that Congress is mostly composed of reckless fanatics bent on destroying the Union or nullifying the Constitution. We cannot help considering, therefore, the way in which the President and his organs have permitted themselves to speak of them as at least highly unbecoming. We have great respect for Mr. Johnson's honesty and ability, if not for his temper and taste, but we have yet to learn that he has absorbed so much of the wisdom and patriotism of the country that there is little or none left in the other branches of the Government. Thaddeus Stevens, and Charles Sumner, and Wendell Phillips may be very unsafe guides, but if they were traitors of the deepest dye, they are only three. It will be something new to the country to learn that the Union has no friends left in Washington except Mr. Johnson and his friends and the small band of Copperheads in both the House and Senate who have passed the last five years in pleasant little efforts to have the Confederacy recognized. And we must say that, with the fullest appreciation of the faults and shortcomings of both Messrs. Sumner and Stevens, it causes in us a novel sensation to hear them denounced as traitors by a gentleman who is holding out his hands to Wade Hampton and waiting to clasp him to his political bosom.

If it be indeed true that the majority of both Houses of Congress are at this moment bent on destroying the Union, as the President and his orators would have the country believe, we advise him not to give himself much trouble about the Government, for nothing that he can do will save it; and, in fact, it would be a pity to have it saved, for the whole concern must be very rotten and worthless. When Congress sinks so low as this, even Andrew Johnson may well give up the task of mending the state as hopeless.

Mr. Seward's despatch, announcing that "the President's speech is triumphant, and the country happy, and the Union safe," will always

remain amongst the curiosities of telegraphic literature. Mr. Seward was, we believe, in New York on the day when he made this pleasing discovery, and we presume the basement of the Cooper Institute was the scene of this great salvation. When we consider, too, that the process must have consisted simply in the appearance of two or three gentlemen of high character and great talent like himself, and the delivery by each of them of a speech of ordinary dimensions and ability to a promiscuous assembly of excited citizens, it is clear that the nation need never again despair, no matter how bad a scrape it gets into. The reconstruction problem has always hitherto been spoken of as one of extraordinary difficulty, but it is a great pity we should have racked our brains over it so much, when its solution is, after all, so simple; and then, too, the facility with which the country has not only been "saved" but made "happy," must furnish abundant matter for cheering reflections to every lover of his kind. The only drawback on this exhilarating state of things is that it shows that the days of statesmanship are over. When the means has been discovered of settling the most tremendous questions by which any country was ever agitated, and making a great people "happy," in two hours' talking to a large crowd in a large hall, it is clear that we have seen the last of the great craft. If any people sits down in misery hereafter, which has an orator at hand, and the means of hiring a room, it will certainly meet with little pity, and will deserve less.

A CHANGE IN THE SITUATION.

If a breach between the President and Congress was inevitable from the moment of the death of Mr. Lincoln, it could not have come at a better time than the present. Let us do Mr. Johnson justice. When he fell into power, it was into a power of unusual and extraordinary growth, which the people were anxious to have used to further the great ends which the prospect of returning peace seemed to bring within their grasp. The President, however, wisely remembering that the Government was a democracy, not an autocracy, refused to call into action any further than was necessary the forces with which the people, accustomed to war, had become familiar, and hastened to put off the strength that chance had clothed him with. He was autocratic, it is true, in dealing with the South, but it was arbitrary power exercised for the unusual purpose of making way for republican life. While he was urged in every direction, now to try Davis by court-martial, now to give the freedmen civil and political rights, he remained steadfast and unyielding in the effort to rid himself of a power that he felt was dangerous to the nation. In this way, month by month, has the Executive declined. Choosing to leave to the people questions whose settlement most affected the people, the President has at every turn avoided the tempting opportunities which presented themselves to his grasp. The army was at his disposal; he got rid of it. Congress met, and he declared it his purpose to hamper by no action of his the movements of the legislature; when the Southern representatives were sent home, he offered not a word of remonstrance; Tennessee herself remained without a voice in the national debates, and he made no imperative demands for her admission. Congress, on the other hand, has shown day by day a consciousness of its increased strength and returning authority, and a greater disposition to bring within its own bar all questions concerning the reconstruction of the revolted States. Thus a great change has come over the Government during the year—a change which has somewhat restored the normal relation of the legislative and executive departments, disarranged by a state of war.

But if Mr. Johnson, overlooking this change, seeks to separate distinctly his supporters from his opponents, what is the prospect before him? He sees that, when he holds the Freedmen's bill unconstitutional and inexpedient, and the admission of Southern members necessary, the whole South, rebellious and ignorant, with their *claqueurs*, the Democracy of the North, gather round him with unwelcome applause. He sees, rushing to grasp his hand with all the eagerness of those who for years have not shaken hands with honest men, the gentlemen who cried Peace, when there was no peace, who instigated mobs of thieves and murderers, but had not the courage even to become a mob themselves. He hears the voices of those whom he fought, of those who would have hanged him, sounding exultant plaudits in his unaccustomed ear. Southern legislatures stop a moment in the passage of black codes to cry Well done! to the man for whom their lips once formed only curses. He remembers that in December he told Congress that "good faith required the security of the freedmen in their liberty and their property, their right to labor, and their right to claim the just return of their labor," and sees the freedmen gathering together in silent fear lest that scant security but just acquired shall pass away. He sees that by his action Tennessee, the State of all that he most longed to see in her old position, is cast instantly into outer darkness. He may hear amid the tinkling of glasses at Willard's the names of Robert E. Lee and Jefferson Davis joined with that of Andrew Johnson. He cannot forget that his new admirers love him, not because he is patriotic, not because he is wise, not because he is cautious, but because his views of duty seem at present to coincide with their views of interest, and that they would love him ten times better were he one of the roaring fire-eaters of '60.

ERICSSON ON THE MEXICAN QUESTION.

That Delphic utterance of the Emperor Napoleon to his Corps Législatif, on the 22d of January last, continues to be the chief international topic of discussion in the public press of either shore of the Atlantic. Each commentator puts his own interpretation on what seems to have been but a conventional speech (for why should Napoleon expose his cards while the game still is doubtful?), and each accordingly draws the inference which suits him as to the future solution of the Mexican problem. No one of these speculations has touched what seems to us one of the important elements in the question—the very vital element, indeed, in case of ill-blood between France and the United States—namely, Napoleon's chances of success in attempting to hold Mexico against the armed opposition of our country.

As, in case of so lamentable an event as the breaking out of hostilities between France and America, a stretch of 3,000 miles of water would lie between the two belligerents, it is evident that the *first* question to be decided, if not the final one, would be that of naval superiority. And by "naval superiority" cannot be meant any operations of privateers or swift piratical craft made to plunder, not to fight; to cripple commerce rather than to land troops or bombard citadels. Though Semmes, in his "protest" to President Johnson, claims to have had "half the commerce of the world at his mercy," it is clear that he did not accomplish so much for the Confederate cause as a single *Merrimac* might have effected let loose to prowl along our coast and enter our harbors. An ocean, we repeat, rolls between the French base and the seat of war in Mexico. The question of naval superiority is obviously reduced, for practical purposes, to the respective prowess of the hostile navies in operations along the westerly shore of the Gulf of Mexico. The entire aim of the French navy must be to hold the ports of that coast and to cover the debarkment of troops and stores, while ours would be to prevent those achievements and to protect our Gulf ports in Florida, Alabama, Louisiana, and Texas. Now, the experience of the late war has induced not only America, Russia, England, France, but even Italy, Denmark, and the lesser European powers—the whole maritime world, indeed—to rely chiefly for such operations as have been indicated upon iron-clad vessels. That is to say, for naval battles, on which a great issue hinges, and whose object is the possession of a coast-line or a coveted port of entry, iron-clad warfare is the only warfare worthy of consideration. What, then, would be Napoleon's prospects of success in case his continued occupation of Mexico should result in a war with the United States?

The iron-clads of France now afloat are the *Magenta*, *Solferino*, *Couronne*, *Normandie*, *Invincible*, *Gloire*, *Provence*, *Héroine*. The two former have a nominal horse-power of 1,000, and were built at a cost of twelve million francs. All the rest have 900 horse-power, and cost seven millions of francs. There are building (all of the latter class) the *Savoie*, *Revanche*, *Surveillante*, *Flandre*, *Guyenne*, *Gardoise*, *Valoreuse*, *Magnanime*, *Taureau*, and one other. There are sixteen, besides, which could not cross the Atlantic. These sixteen are of the sort employed at the Crimea, and have power so low, armor so thin, and battery so weak, that they may be left entirely out of the question. Of the eight afloat and the ten building (all of which will soon be completed) only two, the *Couronne* and *Héroine*, have iron hulls. But this fact is not important.

The two largest of these vessels are the *Magenta* and *Solferino*—enormous hulks of nearly 7,000 tons displacement. They draw upwards of 26 feet of water, and are partially protected with 4½ inches of iron. The *Couronne*, *Normandie*, *Invincible*, *Gloire*, *Provence*, and *Héroine*, although differing in some details, are, for practical purposes as engines of war, all of the same general character, being about 6,000 tons displacement, drawing from 25 to 27 feet of water, and carrying 4½ inches of iron in the centre portion, the armor gradually tapering off to 3 inches at either end. All the rest, namely, the *Savoie* class, are also of substantially the same character, having about the same displacement and draught as the *Gloire* class, but differing somewhat in the arrangement of armor. The iron in the *Savoie* class is made thicker at the water-line and thinner above, doubtless with the idea of keeping the vessels afloat if possible, even if the armor which protects the battery and the gunners be shot through and through.

No one can fail to notice the two main points in the preceding description—the thin armor and the deep draught of the French iron-clads. It will be observed that their sphere of operation i extremely limited. It is unnecessary to enumerate the harbors on our shores which they could not enter, but anybody familiar with the Atlantic coast-line and the Gulf coast-line will at once appreciate the force of this objection. As to their armor, so far as opposing a 15-inch projectile, propelled by 60 lbs. of cannon-powder, is concerned, it might as well be so much card-board. Of artillery, it is enough to say that no gun is yet afloat in the French navy of greater power than the old 68-pounder, the English 8-inch smooth-bore of 95 cwt. At the moment we write, incredible as it may seem, the English are experimenting to see whether it is *possible* to work a 12-ton gun in broadside. The iron-clad *Minotaur* is in service for that special purpose, and the majority of English naval officers think the solution is quite problematical.

What, now, are the American iron-clads? They are built upon a new, bold, and original plan. When the war broke out we possessed nothing, and contemplated nothing, which could neutralize the broadside iron-clads of other countries. The ingenuity of Ericsson solved the difficulty, and produced the American *Monitor*. The monitors of the *Passaic* class—such as the *Passaic*, *Montauk*, *Catskill*, *Lehigh*, *Sangamon*—are vessels drawing but 11 feet of water, while the French ships draw 25. They are of about 1,200 tons displacement, while the French ships are of 5,000 and 6,000 tons. They have iron *all over* upwards of 5 inches thick, backed by more than 36 inches of oak and the *entire deck* itself. Within a wrought-iron cylindrical turret, 11 inches thick, a pair of 20-ton guns are mounted, throwing a 15-inch spherical shot, with 60 lb. service charges. Next we come to the *Mahopac* class—such as the *Mahopac*, *Manhattan*, *Catawba*, *Oreota*, *Manayunk*, *Saugus*, and *Canonicus*. They draw 12 feet of water and have but little upwards of 1,500 tons displacement. Their armor throughout is 9½ inches of iron, backed by 20 inches of oak, besides the deck, as already mentioned. They carry the usual monitor turret, with its formidable contents, similar to the *Passaic* class, previously described. Next, we reach a class of "wooden monitors," the *Monadnock*, *Agamenticus*, *Tonawanda*, and *Miantonomah*. These are of a little over 2,000 tons displacement, and draw about 12 feet of water. They have upwards of 5 inches of iron armor, with about 3 feet of oak, and their whole breadth of deck, to back the iron. They carry each two 11-inch thick iron turrets, like those of the other monitors, and a total battery, therefore, of *four* 15-inch guns. Finally, we come to the class represented by the *Dictator* and *Puritan*. These are ships of about 3,500 tons, carrying all around, and in every part, 10½ inches of iron, backed by about 48 inches of oak.

To make the comparison between the French broadside iron-clads and ours still more striking, the screw and the rudder in our monitors are protected even more completely than the guns themselves—an inestimable advantage. Again, while the enormous French iron-clads are high out of water, like an old-fashioned line-of-battle ship, and present a splendid mark, the little monitors lie—stripped of bulwarks and every incumbrance—but about two feet out of water! Such a mark is difficult enough to hit; but, even if hit, the shot is useless. It is a truth too obvious to argue, that not only the present French naval artillery, but any immediately prospective artillery which can be mounted in their fleets, is no better than a parade of popguns, when employed against the American monitors. On the other hand, what possible resistance could the 4½-inch plates of the *Gloire* oppose to a projectile from a 20-ton gun, discharged within respectable iron-clad range? Plates of French construction 1½ inches thicker than those put upon their iron-clads have been smashed to splinters by the 15-inch gun, in trials at the Washington navy yard.

Suppose, then—leaving the great majority of the iron-clads to act as auxiliaries to our other defenses for the Atlantic harbors—we should select only the three double-turreted monitors of the *Monadnock* class and the *Puritan* and *Dictator*, and send them into the Gulf of Mexico. What would become of the rolling and pitching French monsters, with their toy-gun batteries and flimsy side-armor? How long would it take to seize the few available harbors on the Mexican coast, and hold them against the French iron-clads? So experienced an artillerist as Napoleon III. would be the first to anticipate the effect of ten 15-inch guns, afloat in absolutely impregnable structures, against armor and armament like his. The arguments presented to the Emperor by his chief naval constructor, M. Dupuy de Lome, as to the folly of attempting to send the monitors to sea, have been refuted by several years of experience in actual coasting and battle. Indeed, at this moment, one of the smaller class of monitors is half-way to the Pacific, having, with her consort, paid a brief visit to the harbor of Havana. We fancy that M. Xavier Raymond, the semi-official writer in the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, would find some difficulty in extricating the French squadron from the dilemma we have imagined for it in the Gulf of Mexico, even on paper. It is not impossible, at all events, that 20-ton guns, in impregnable turrets, have already exercised some influence on the decision of the Mexican problem.

THE HISTORY OF THE AMENDMENTS.

Since the formation of the Federal Constitution there have been four distinct and successful attempts to amend it, resulting in the addition of thirteen articles to the original instrument. The first ten of these belong together, and were part of a batch of twelve which passed both Houses of the First Congress, at its first session, in this city (March 4, 1789), but of which the remainder failed to be ratified by a sufficient number of States. They are to be regarded as addenda rather than amendments, according to the language of the preamble:

"The conventions of a number of the States having, at the time of their adopting the Constitution, expressed a desire, in order to prevent misconstruction or abuse of its powers, that further declaratory and restrictive clauses should be added; and as extending the ground of public confidence in the government will best insure the beneficent ends of its institution;—*Resolved*, etc."

The eleventh article qualifies the judicial power of the United States, and was proposed to the country by the Third Congress, at its first session, Dec. 2, 1793. The twelfth article, concerning the mode of choosing a President by the electors, or House of Representatives, was proposed by the Eighth Congress at its first session, March 26, 1804. The thirteenth article, abolishing and prohibiting slavery, passed, as every one knows, the Thirty-eighth Congress at its second session, on the 31st of January, 1865.

The series of ten amendments already described, like the Constitution, was nearly two years in being adopted. To Rhode Island, Maryland, Virginia, South and North Carolina, the whole twelve were acceptable; but Delaware objected to the first, Pennsylvania to the first and second, and New Hampshire, New York, and New Jersey to the second; and these consequently fell through. As for Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Georgia, they made no returns whatever.

The eleventh amendment had a somewhat peculiar career before it could rank with its predecessors as an integral part of the Constitution. At the second session of the Congress which enacted it favorable returns had been received only from New York, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Georgia, and Delaware. At the first session of the Fourth Congress, Rhode Island and North Carolina responded aye. But as the tardiness had got to be rather provoking, at the second session a joint resolution was passed, March 2, 1797, and approved the same day by President Washington, as follows:

"That the President be requested to adopt some speedy and effectua means of obtaining information from the States of Connecticut, New Jersey,

Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, and South Carolina whether they have ratified the amendment proposed by Congress to the Constitution concerning the suability of States; if they have, to obtain the proper evidence thereof."

The Fifth Congress was informed by President Adams at its first session, Jan. 8, 1798, that Connecticut, Maryland, Virginia, and Kentucky had ratified the amendment, New Jersey and Pennsylvania had failed to do so, South Carolina had taken no definite action, and Tennessee—which had been admitted to the Union in the interval succeeding the passage of the amendment—had not been heard from. Thus it required four years—overlapping two administrations—to obtain the sense of sixteen States, and to secure the ratification of twelve; so little interest seems to have been felt in the fate of this amendment.

The twelfth was only six months in ratifying, and for a very good reason: a Presidential election was imminent, and the amendment contained instructions which were designed to apply to it. Vermont, Rhode Island, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Virginia, Ohio, Kentucky, Tennessee, North and South Carolina, and Georgia—thirteen out of seventeen—constituted the requisite three-fourths. New Hampshire, Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Delaware, either purposely or neglectfully, tarried behind.

The latest amendment, it is scarcely necessary to add, was nearly eleven months in getting ratified, that is, if we accept Mr. Seward's reckoning that there were thirty-six States which were competent to consider it. No doubt this time would have been shortened if the success of the measure had admitted of a doubt. The only comparison which it is worth while to draw between this and the foregoing ratifications, connects (say) the action of Mississippi in the present instance with that of Pennsylvania in the case of the twelve amendments. But it is evidently one thing to reject one or more of a series of really independent propositions, and quite another to reject a portion of an indivisible whole.

It remains to describe the various methods in which official announcement has been made of the adoption of these amendments. The Constitution does not specify how or by whom this duty shall be discharged. The first ten appear to have dispensed with this formality. It was probably owing to the reminder of Congress, quoted above, that President Adams sent to them the following message, which, if only for the sake of the form, may properly be reproduced entire:

"*Gentlemen of the Senate and Gentlemen of the House of Representatives:*

"I have an opportunity of transmitting to Congress a report of the Secretary of State, with the copy of an act of the legislature of the State of Kentucky, consenting to the ratification of the amendment of the Constitution of the United States proposed by Congress, in their resolution of the second day of December, 1793, relative to the suability of States. This amendment, having been adopted by three-fourths of the several States, may now be declared to be a part of the Constitution of the United States. JOHN ADAMS.

"UNITED STATES, January 8, 1798."

Notice was given of the adoption of the twelfth amendment, September 25, 1804, by James Madison, pursuant to the provisions of an act passed in conjunction with the amendment, which instructed the Secretary of State forthwith to "cause a notification thereof to be made to the executive of every State," and to "cause the same to be published in at least one of the newspapers printed in each State in which the laws of the United States are annually published."

Secretary Seward's proclamation of December 18, 1865, will be found in exact compliance with the second section of the act of April 20, 1818, to which he refers, and which reads thus:

"Whenever official notice shall have been received at the Department of State that any amendment which heretofore has been, or hereafter may be, proposed to the Constitution of the United States, has been adopted, according to the provisions of the Constitution, it shall be the duty of the said Secretary of State forthwith to cause the said amendment to be published in the said newspapers authorized to promulgate the laws, with his certificate, specifying the States by which the same may have been adopted, and that the same has become valid, to all intents and purposes, as a part of the Constitution of the United States."

We shall be pardoned for this minute, but we trust not tedious, investigation, seeing how little known are the facts, and the general looseness that has ever prevailed in so practical a matter; seeing, too, what curious and important questions arise in view of that long train of amendments to which the "eggs of Pharaoh's serpents" afford the readiest parallel. How little pains, for example, were taken to send to the State Department that "official notice" which the law requires, by States which were among the foremost in ratifying the late amendment. In these days of railroads and telegraphs, does the validity of any amendment depend on the date of the Secretary's certificate? And do amendments ever die? We have seen one attain the respectable age of four years before it was ratified. If that is but infancy, what may old age be? Which is right—New Jersey or Kentucky—New Jersey, which repents, reverses its action, and at last ratifies the rejected amendment; or Kentucky, which pronounces the action of its first legislature final and irreversible? If the former, what, except the popular indifference, is to hinder the resurrection of those two amendments for which respectively six and eight votes were cast by as many States in 1789-90? What, in short, is the limit within which an amendment may be entitled to struggle for existence, and, if defeated, decently and for ever to yield up the ghost? According to present usage, once started from the Capitol, an amendment may walk the earth like Ahasuerus, safe at least from any legal quietus, never losing a friend, and waiting patiently for the conversion of its enemies until the tally of its supporters is full. We would not argue in favor of a fixed and moderate period during which alone ratifications should be lawful; we are not just now arguing in favor of anything, and in no respect against the motives of the authors of the numerous proposed amendments. We merely point to the existing confusion which impedes the accomplishment of their and our desires; and herein, perhaps, is something worth a thought or two, let alone that graver and antecedent question of the States which are qualified to ratify or reject.

OUR LITERATURE AND OUR CRITICS.

WE have seen in various quarters during the last six months the imputation thrown out that THE NATION, as well as other literary journals, has devoted too large a portion of its space and attention, in its literary department, to the consideration of foreign literature and literary news, neglecting American books, and American authors, and the current subjects of American thought. We believe the charge was never seriously made by anybody who both read the paper carefully, and watched closely the sources from which our people draw their reading matter, and the class of topics which most occupy the attention of the studious portion of the public. But then it is just the kind of charge which finds ready acceptance with that large class who talk under the influence of vague impressions, and that still larger class who are morbidly sensitive touching the proper recognition of American talent, and can never thoroughly rid themselves of the idea that there is a conspiracy amongst the critics, both home and foreign, to rob it of its due.

Now in these cases there is, after all, nothing like facts, and to the facts let us go. In the first volume of THE NATION, from July 6 to December, 1865, there were ninety reviews of books, of which forty-five were devoted to foreign books and authors, six only of these being on books not republished in this country. There were also fifty-five short notices of books; of these not fifteen were of foreign books. In truth, then, more than half of our space devoted to literary criticism was taken up with reviews of American publications; and we have really to plead guilty to not having paid due attention to foreign literature.

Let us now see what books were published in the United States during those six months. We have taken the lists given in the "American Publishers' Circular," and, excluding directories and volumes of statute laws, we find 681 works. Some of these are probably counted twice, as the lists given are not always correct, and there are frequent repetitions which we have tried to make allowance for. Of this number, 105 are republications of foreign books; of the remainder, at least three-fourths are pamphlets, "dime novels," Sunday-school books, or law reports, which are excluded from literature proper. This leaves us about 140 books. Of these, again, some are new editions and some republications of early books and tracts printed privately or by literary societies. The forty-nine reviews and forty notices of American books in THE NATION for that period cover, then, nearly the whole ground of the national literature. Some of the reviews are of books previously published, and some were published too late for notice in this paper at that time, and many were not worth notice; but the result will remain about the same.

Such has been the quantity of American literature for six months. As respects quality, there is also something to be said. In poetry we have had nothing but Brownell's small volume; in criticism no works of account ex

cept White's two volumes on Shakespeare and Botta's compilation on Dante; in history we have had various chronicles of the war, by such writers as Headley and Abbott; but to call them "history" would be an abuse of language. We have had, however, to set them off, Parkman's "Pioneers;" and in biography the lives of Adams and Warren. There has been but one even respectable novel, Mrs. Stoddard's "Two Men." In theology we have had Bushnell's "Vicarious Sacrifice" and Hurst's "History of Rationalism." Some valuable contributions have been made to military science and military surgery. In mental philosophy we produced absolutely nothing; in political economy nothing but Professor Perry's manual, if we except the ton of pamphlets, some wise, some foolish, called forth by the condition of the currency. In general literature we have had Wheeler's excellent "Dictionary of Fictitious Names," Godwin's "Cyclopædia of Biography;" in political science, Draper's "Civil Policy;" and to these may be added a few good school-books to make up the sum total.

Let any one now go into Christern's or Appleton's or Scribner's, and look at the mass of books which lie on their tables or figure in their foreign catalogues every month, of history, criticism, metaphysics, philology, ethnology, jurisprudence, travels, natural philosophy, political economy—most of them the product of years of labor, and that the labor, in a very large number of cases, of the most gifted and highly cultivated minds in the world. Let him compare all this mountain of reasoning and research with what we have to show in the same fields, and then ask himself who is to blame if American literature does not occupy a larger share of the attention of American critics.

But does foreign literature occupy the attention of the American people in the ratio of the value of that literature? Yes, it does. Nearly all the great European works of the day are reprinted here—one hundred and fifteen during the six months ending December 31, 1865. Nearly all the books of any permanent value which American publishers produced during the last two years, on history, on metaphysics, on physical science, on jurisprudence, and political economy, have been works of foreign authors. The large importing bookstores here are filled with foreign books—French, German, and English—which are sold and renewed constantly; books of a kind that never have been written here—books on art, on philosophy, on science. The call for such literature is very great, and rapidly increasing. And not only foreign books are largely read and reprinted, but foreign journals are reprinted here. Four English reviews and one monthly are reprinted bodily, some of them having a much greater circulation here than at home. Three or four other magazines are published simultaneously both here and in England. At least four periodicals are avowedly made up entirely of articles from English journals, and the rest of our journals, from "Harper's Monthly" down, are in a great part filled with English articles for which no credit is given. In fact, the reading matter of this country is almost entirely foreign. This, we admit, is an unfortunate state of things; we deplore it as much as anybody, more than most people, for were the taste for home literature more widely diffused, journals like The Nation would be all the better for it. We do not mean that we deplore the existence of the love of good books, no matter where they come from—that we consider eminently healthy; but we deplore the fact that American writers, as a body, are not able to do more towards satisfying the wants of their own countrymen. We trust they will never completely satisfy them, because we think the Chinese are not good models in literature any more than in art—and a determination on the part of any people to draw its mental food from only one quarter would, sooner or later, produce a Chinese type of civilization.

It could not, in the nature of things, be expected that in six months, and the six months following a great war, the state of literature would be any different. Literature is not a lucrative profession, and there are few inducements here to pursue it. The best talent of the country is turned in other directions from authorship. There are few men of large wealth and corresponding culture who have been able to give thought enough to one subject to make themselves authorities on it. We have some fine scholars, but they occupy poorly paid professorial chairs, and all their spare moments are taken up with ephemeral writing for reviews and newspapers. Indeed, it is rather a matter of surprise that we have even as many good authors as we have. The production of great works in literature is not always possible, and the present seems to be one of those preparatory periods when men are being educated and trained who, some day, will be good scholars and writers, and will produce works worthy of being set beside the contemporaneous literature of other countries. A desire to read good books will act on culture, and will affect the power of producing good books.

It is certainly no part of our purpose, any more than that of any newspaper, to build up a literature. It would be silly and presumptuous for us to entertain or proclaim any such intention. The *rôle* of a weekly critic is, after all, a very humble one. It is to examine the fields from which it finds the community drawing its mental food, and to point out, to the best of its ability, what those fields produce—what is bad and what is good; what had better be tasted, what digested, and what thrown away; to keep before the public the best standard in every department, and point out departures from it, according to the critic's understanding of it. If people go to England for political economy and history, to Germany for philology and metaphysics, to France for everything by turns, it is our business to go with them and find out what the English, French, and Germans are getting ready for their entertainment; and we are no more responsible for the extent to which those markets are ransacked for our literary wares, than we are for the condition of our dry goods trade. We protest against the shallow notion that a peculiar standard of art or literary criticism has been evolved by our political and social system. This is one of those bits of Anglo-Saxon conceit which gives Frenchmen and Germans so much amusement. Truth and beauty are eternal and immutable, and of no country. The style of the "Peloponnesian War" was a good style two thousand years ago, is now a good style, and will continue to be as long as the world lasts. In arrangement and diction, what orator has yet improved upon Demosthenes? If all the congresses, parliaments, and academies in the world were to sit over the matter till the crack of doom they would never discover a better way of writing history than to tell the truth at least grammatically and, if possible, pleasingly and picturesquely. There will never be an English, or French, or American astronomy, or geology, or chemistry. The world of knowledge belongs to the whole human race, as the ocean does.

THE ASSAULT BY NIGHT.

All night we hear the rattling flaw,
The casements shiver with each breath;
And still more near the foemen draw,
The pioneers of Death.
Their grisly chieftain comes:
He steals upon us in the night;
Call up the guards! light every light!
Beat the alarum drums!

His tramp is at the outer door;
He bears against the shuddering walls;
Lo! what a dismal frost and hoar
Upon the window falls!
Outbar him while ye may!
Feed, feed the watch-fires everywhere—
Even yet their cheery warmth will scare
This thing of night away.

Ye cannot! something chokes the grate
And clogs the air within its flues,
And runners from the entrance-gate
Come chill with evil news:
The bars are broken ope!
Ha! he has scaled the inner wall!
But fight him still, from hall to hall;
While life remains, there's hope.

Too late! the very frame is dust,
The locks and trammels fall apart;
He reaches, scornful of their trust,
The portals of the heart.
Aye, take the citadel!
But where, grim Conqueror, is thy prey?
In vain thou 'lt search each secret way,
Its flight is hidden well.

We yield thee, for thy paltry spoils,
This shell, this ruin thou hast made;
Its tenant has escaped thy toils,
Though they were darkly laid.
Even now, immortal, pure,
It gains a house not made with hands,
A refuge in serener lands,
A heritage secure.

Edmund Clarence Stedman.

THE PROGRESS OF HORTICULTURE.

It is one of the most pleasant signs of the times that a great war has been waged and brought to an end without sensibly disturbing the numerous interests involved in horticulture in this country, and without perceptibly retarding the progress of the gardener's art. The most careless reader, even the man who does not know a strawberry plant from a cranberry vine, when an agricultural journal falls in his way cannot fail to be amazed as he glances over its advertising columns.

He finds in the same paper advertisements of a dozen dealers or firms who offer for sale grape-vines and strawberry plants by the hundred thousand, pear and apple trees in enormous quantities, and an endless supply of roses, herbaceous plants, and the latest novelties in the world of flowers. He sees grape-vines offered to credulous purchasers at five dollars a piece; strawberry plants at a dollar; and reads the notice of one nurseryman who proposes to sell his new Yellow-Ease at three and five dollars a plant as soon as one thousand subscriptions at these prices shall have been received.

If he pursues his investigations further, he will see several thousand kinds of seeds offered for sale, from pear and apple seed by the bushel to pelargonium seed by the tiny packet. He will find that grape-cuttings are sold by the million, cranberry vines by the barrel, that three thousand dollars have been paid for three new strawberries, and that a nursery of two or three hundred acres is not so large as to excite surprise by its extent. He will learn that the public is never tired of novelties in fruits or flowers, and that the demand for almost everything the horticultural journals advertise exceeds the supply.

He cannot help noticing that all quarters of the globe are ransacked to gratify a legitimate and healthy craving for something new, something unseen here before. He will see that he can purchase a seed of the Victoria Regia for a dollar, or that, if he has eight dollars to spare, he can buy for himself a fine bulb of the new Japan lily. A Yeddo grape-vine, also from Japan, will cost him ten dollars; or, if he is fond of raising evergreen trees, an ounce of seed of Nordman's spruce can be had for the moderate sum of three dollars; although, if he prefer, he can change his ounce of seed for a single bulb of a new gladiolus or a tuber of a new dahlia.

The more he reads the greater is his wonder, and the truth slowly dawns upon his mind that he has been for a long time blind to one of the most widespread, important, and rapidly growing branches of industry his country exhibits. There always has been a steady demand from people of taste and leisure for ornamental trees and shrubs, besides roses, bulbs, and all varieties of bedding flowers, as florists term them; but within a few years the interest felt in the culture of the grape and the strawberry has risen to a perfect mania.

Partly in consequence of this mania, and partly, we think, as one of its causes, an enormous number of new grapes and strawberries have been brought into public notice, and sold, while new, at prices as large as a credulous and willing public could be induced to pay. We have before us a catalogue which enumerates one hundred and seventy distinct and approved kinds of strawberries, besides noticing one hundred and two varieties that have been discarded as unworthy of cultivation; and another price-list which offers for sale fifty kinds of out-door grapes, each of which, if we may believe the dealers, has some striking peculiarity which renders it worthy of a place in the garden.

Nurserymen and amateurs all over the country have devoted themselves with the utmost enthusiasm to raising from seed new varieties of strawberries and grapes. Since every seed that germinates produces a grape-vine or a strawberry plant different from all others, and since not more than one plant in a thousand of these seedlings will be worth preservation, it is not difficult to understand that raising seedlings of these two fruits is an amusement that has the pleasant excitement of a lottery, and whose results, even if we take the extreme case of saving only one plant in a thousand, cannot fail to be profitable to the experimenter and the country.

Mr. E. W. Ball, of Concord, Massachusetts, beginning twenty years ago, and following in the steps of Van Mons, produced, by raising thousands of seedlings from the native vine, the Concord grape, and has lived long enough to see his seedling planted literally by millions from Missouri to Maine.

Dr. Grant, of New York, raises five thousand grape seedlings, selects and rejects and reduces the number of those fit to introduce as worthy of cultivation to *two*, viz., the Iona and the Israella, and now reaps a golden harvest as the result of his patience and skill. Mr. Rogers, of Salem, Mass., carefully transfers the pollen of foreign vines to the pistil of native grapes, plants the seeds thus produced, and in a few years is the proud originator of forty-five new grapes, all good, and some of them of the highest excellence. His success has set hundreds of amateurs, who are willing "to labor and to wait," at work crossing native and foreign vines, subduing the harshness of the former, strengthening the tenderness of the latter, and bringing about results that a few years ago were not even dreamed of.

Brilliant as have been some of the triumphs in raising new grapes, it is plain that the perfect grape has not yet been attained. A grape that shall have the size and sweetness of certain foreign kinds, with the flavor, hardiness, and vigor of some native varieties, is yet a desideratum. That we shall reach this goal in time is as certain as it is that we now have out-door grapes so good that those who see and taste them for the first time refuse to believe that they are not raised under glass, with the aid of artificial heat.

Mr. Seth Boyden, of New Jersey, by patient and careful hybridizing, produced a few years ago the "Agriculturist" strawberry, wonderful alike for the size, flavor, and number of its berries, and which excited for a time a perfect *furore* among amateur horticulturists. Fifty dollars was offered and refused for a single plant in 1863, and even now the dealers ask more for this variety than for any other. Mr. Boyden has not rested content with his success, but continues his experiments and researches, and, though far advanced in life, promises the public better strawberries than they have yet seen.

French, English, and Belgian nurserymen are annually sending out scores of new kinds of strawberries, some of them wonderful for their delicacy and flavor, and all sure to be bought and tested by hundreds of eager amateurs.

We can conceive of no case of more hopeless bewilderment than that of the novice in fruit culture who is endeavoring to make up a list of fruit trees and vines for his garden. He needs only half a dozen kinds, but the catalogues offer him a hundred, each and every one of which is one of those that "no gentleman's garden should be without." For his comfort we may say that, notwithstanding the great number of novelties presented by the nurserymen every spring and fall, the tendency of the best dealers is to reduce greatly the number of kinds they offer for sale, rejecting all but the very best. Not a year passes but scores of varieties, whose advent was loudly trumpeted by those who had money to make from their sale, drop off the lists and are heard of no more.

It is not our purpose to discuss the whole matter of fruit-raising, or the rapid progress that an interest in horticultural matters has made throughout the United States within a very few years, but we think we have said enough to set to thinking those whose attention has never been directly called to the subject.

The rich lands and new farms of the West absorb the products of hundreds of nurseries both East and West, and for years to come the demand for good trees, plants, and vines, true to name and of approved kind, must necessarily exceed the supply.

Besides, it is more than probable that many of us will live to see what are now the choicest kinds of fruits fall into neglect, and be supplanted by newer and better varieties, that will owe their origin, like the pears of Van Mons, the Concord, and the "Agriculturist" strawberry, to the patient and well-directed labors of the many experimenters who are now devoting themselves with their whole heart and soul to the most fascinating and promising branch of horticultural art.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXX.

New Orleans, La., February 8, 1866.

At Mobile I took passage by steamboat for New Orleans, gladly bidding good-by to that disagreeable city, to the mud-banks of its harbor, with the flocks of carrion crows—turkey buzzards—always streaming and hovering over them, to the narrow and dirty streets, infested as they are by hundreds of ill-looking men, whose profession, said to be gambling, seems to be hanging about the innumerable bar-rooms. Nor was I at all sorry to go away from the boarding-house where I had heard so much about the irreclaimable worthlessness of the niggers, about the gallantry of various Confederate regiments, about the vast preponderance of foreigners among the dead men in Federal uniforms on several battle-fields, and where the lady sitting next me at table used to quiet her child whenever it made a disturbance by threatening to leave it and let the Yankees catch it. As we moved down the bay and past Fort Morgan the water became quite rough, and the weather, windy and piercing cold, was thoroughly unlike what one is accustomed to fancy of February on the Gulf coast. There were many little indications, however, that we were not travelling on Northern waters. On board that boat a placard notified us that gambling on Sundays was strictly

prohibited. The bar was open, and a handsome young mulatto behind it, extravagantly dressed and fluent in French and English, was kept pretty busy throughout the afternoon and evening. There was ice in all the water jars, flowers adorned the tables at dinner, and there was a plentiful supply of fresh vegetables and fruits. Gentlemen were introduced to others as having been in Mexico, or intending to go there, or being well informed on Mexican affairs. It is noticeable, as one approaches New Orleans, that the dress of the men and women is better than that of the Southern people further north—homespun coats, Confederate uniforms, and clothes of the fashion of twenty years ago being an exception.

At the end of eighteen or nineteen hours we reached New Orleans, and I was walking through the French quarter and toward the river, eager to see the Mississippi, and intent on comparing the real city with that New Orleans which for many years, from the time when I first read pictorial geographies, had existed in my mind as the most interesting of American cities, seeming further off and more foreign than Europe or Egypt. But the Department of the Gulf has recently been too much written about for a description of the city to be now of any value. It will be of more general interest to give the substance of a series of conversations which I have had since my arrival with several men, some of them natives of Louisiana, some of them citizens of Northern States, but residing here, who may be supposed capable of giving a correct opinion in regard to the tone of public feeling in this community. The disposition of the people toward the Government and toward the Northern men living here were the points to which my enquiries were chiefly directed.

I talked first with a young gentleman from Massachusetts, an educated man, a lawyer, who, having come out here as a lieutenant in the Federal army, served till the end of the war, and is now practising his profession in New Orleans, and also has some money invested in carrying on a plantation in a neighboring parish.

"These people," he said, "are in this frame of mind: they are as firmly convinced as ever that they were right in this war, but they see and admit that secession from the Union is an impossibility; that the attempt to secede was a great mistake, and one that they have no desire or intention to commit again. Every one of their soldiers will tell you—I hear it said almost every day—that he is tired of fighting, that he has taken the oath of allegiance, and that he means to keep it, and to be a good citizen; and when they tell me this I believe them. Talk with the business men, and you hear the same thing. The war is over, slavery is gone. They have no wish to see it restored; they want to see business reviving—that 's what they say. These classes of people will treat a Northern man well enough. I do n't wish to be better treated than I have been treated by them, both here and in the country. My profession has brought me into contact with a good many of them. I have acquaintances with lawyers in almost every parish in the State, and I know I am always treated with courtesy, and I think they show me their honestly felt sentiments and opinions. As for Northern capital, they welcome it. Men come to me in this office; they have come recently, anxious to get help from Northern men. I am endeavoring now to induce some Northern men to send their money out here, and I am authorized by the parties here to guarantee them fifteen per cent. interest on their money, and give them the control of the crop. If they direct it to be consigned to Boston, why, my client will agree to do so. His case is not an isolated one. The whole planting community here is wishing for Northerners; they want them as partners or as capitalists; and whatever money is loaned the planters are ready to secure by a mortgage of their lands—not their crop, mind, as they used to in old times, but their land—or they will sell land to the Northerner. And if he buys he will be kindly received. I go down once in a while to the plantation that I am interested in, and I never was better treated than I am there. They bring out their wine, I am taken to ride, I am introduced to the neighbors, and yet they know perfectly well that I am a radical, that I believe in emancipation, and that I fought them for four years in the Federal army. Yes, I believe that all the men of wealth and influence and integrity, the solid men, are disposed to be loyal, and to behave like good citizens. It is a few brawlers in bar-rooms and billiard saloons—fellows who do not represent public opinion, who are not responsible men, and whom the sensible people despise—these are the fellows who are always damning the Yankees, who have n't had enough of fighting yet, who declare that they owe no allegiance to the United States, and all that kind of talk. They make a great noise, but I know that the respectable people are not with them. I believe I have as good opportunities for getting information as anybody."

I remarked that these men whom he described as bar-room brawlers, who had never owned negroes, and whose opinions were not worth regarding, were commonly said to be in a majority here.

"No; I do n't believe they are so numerous, and I do n't believe they wield any influence. I do n't deny that of the better classes some cherish the recollections of rebellion, are proud of Lee's army and Stonewall Jackson and so on. That I look upon as natural, and so it would be natural if some of them did hate the Yankees. Suppose the North had tried to secede, and the South had whipped it back into the Union, and there was a Southern garrison in every Massachusetts town, would n't we take it out in hating the South, though we might conclude that we ought to be loyal to the Government?"

Another Massachusetts man, an ex-captain in the Federal army, had entered the room while the foregoing conversation went on, and at about this point he said:

"Why, hang it, L——, a' n't you getting a little touched with secession? You 've been here a little too long. You do n't believe any Northern men would have any sort of a chance down here if the military was removed? You would n't dare to stay here yourself, now, would you?"

"Stay here? Certainly I would. And I believe I should never be troubled, no matter how long I stayed."

"Well, now, I can tell you that you would be troubled. I can tell you that you 'd stop here a mighty short time after the military went away. I can tell you that there 's a secret society in this city—and I know it 's so—where your name and mine have been brought up before the whole crowd, and canvassed, and our antecedents discussed, and a mark put against us both. Not us alone, you understand, but every other Northern man in the city, too. They intend to drive us all out. And it a' n't your rapscallions either; some of the first merchants in town belong to it," and the captain mentioned some names.

"I do n't believe a word of it. We 've heard of this conspiracy before. I do n't believe there is any such society."

"Well, tell me what made Governor Wells, in his message to the legislature, talk to them about secret societies, with grips and passwords and mysterious meetings, that he wanted to have put down? Did n't he say they were political?"

"Yes; and did n't he afterwards admit that he was mistaken, and had been humbugged?"

"I do n't know whether he did or not. If he did, he need n't, for there is such a society, I know."

"All right; you can have it stopped then. But you 'll find there 's nothing in it. We 've heard too much about it. It 's an old story, you know. I 've been all through it. Why, I was very sure myself that I 'd got on their track, and I even was enough of a fool to write to the State Department and beg to have it investigated. And very soon I had to send another letter apologizing for the first one. For two of the best detectives in the United States came down here to investigate. I felt sure then. They got in with the suspected men, dined with them, drank with them, damned the Freedmen's Bureau for two months, and then they went away laughing between themselves at the idea of a secret anti-Northern society in New Orleans."

"Very well. But you find out, if you can, what they think of it at Gen. Canby's headquarters. There they believe it."

This was a matter of which I could learn but little further, and that little was chiefly corroborative of the captain's assertion that, at headquarters, a secret society, which the governor refers to in his recent message to the legislature, is really believed to exist. It was vaguely hinted to me that I might believe the objects of the society to be more nefarious than an attempt to injure the trade of Northern men in business here, and to discourage immigration from the North. On the other hand, a Southern gentleman, a member of the State senate, said that he thought the governor was entirely mistaken, for he himself, in endeavoring to hunt out the conspiracy, which he denounced as odious, had exhausted all the resources that freemasonry placed at his command, and had been unable to find the slightest trace of it. But whatever the fact may be, the suspicion certainly exists, and in quarters generally considered very well informed.

Mr. L—— thought that as a rule the freedmen in Louisiana would receive kind treatment from their former masters, and inclined to think that eventually they would find their former masters their best friends. So far as his observation extended, most of the planters had tried hard to conform themselves to the new order of things.

A gentleman with whom I conversed shortly afterwards was a planter and the owner of three plantations. All the people on his home place had stayed with him, he said; but on his lower places they had been burnt out of their homes by General Smith, and he had been obliged to cut that up into small lots and put on white people. Nineteen families of poor devils were there doing what they could, and they were to give him half of what they made—they to find themselves in provisions and to furnish their own stock.

His niggers on the home place were doing pretty well. He knew how to manage them. In old times almost every boy of his had a little horse, each family had a patch of ground for its own use, the men had one Saturday in every month as a holiday, and the women had half of every Saturday, no matter how much the plantation work might be pressing him. They never went to the field till broad daylight, and when it was cold they never went out at all. The result was that all his neighbors called him a nigger-spoiler; but he beat them all on crops, and a sick nigger was a rarity on his plantations. It was always his rule when engaging an overseer to tell him that his niggers were not to be whipped unless their owner was present; that in the absence of the owner he might give eighteen lashes over the nigger's clothes, and that if he ever violated those instructions he should leave and leave his wages. By this management he always had civil, industrious niggers. He knew how to manage them. They ought to be treated kindly, of course. Probably they would be, for the planters of Louisiana as a class were good masters. But Northern men did not and could not understand the negro character. Therefore, the old harmony and confidence once existing between the black and white races in the South would never be restored; the golden age, if he might call it so, would never return until the Freedmen's Bureau should be removed. He would give me a sample of the working of the institution if I did n't know much about it: A friend of his went to Natchitoches the other day and engaged fourteen hands to work for him, and got the agreement countersigned by the Bureau officer. Thought he was all right. Coming into town the next day for his niggers, he found that another man had hired them, and that the officer had approved that contract too; so he went to the Bureau and said to the lieutenant: "Lieutenant, you 've let those boys that I hired only yesterday, and brought before you to make the contract, go and make a contract with another man." But the officer would give him no other satisfaction than telling him that "the niggers were as free as he was." The Bureau certainly made trouble everywhere, and he asked me what I thought of the prospect for its discontinuance. I replied that its powers would probably be enlarged, and that I believed an agent was to be appointed in each county of the Border and Southern States. If that was so, he said, and if Andy Johnson did n't veto the bill, he thought he 'd try to be appointed agent in his own parish. Of course it was reasonable to suppose that a native Southerner, who knew all about planting and all about the negro, would make a better agent than a Northern man.

This gentleman described the people of his State as being loyal to the United States. Some few men were still rebellious, but even those few were gradually getting more sensible, and there was not nearly so much bitterness now as three months ago. This he could see in his own circle of acquaintance. And what was the use, he wished to know, of talking about the Southern hostility to Northern men when anybody could see it was for the interest of the South, that it was absolutely a necessity for her, to invite capital and enterprise from all quarters? And Northern men, in thinking of the subject, ought to remember that the State of Louisiana was in reality opposed to secession from the outset. It was nothing but that cursed Democratic party which took the State out, and the honest men, the men of character and standing, did all they could to resist it, but unfortunately failed.

Another man who gave me his opinion of affairs in Louisiana was a Northern man by birth who had lived in Arkansas and Louisiana thirty years and more. When the war began he was a steamboat captain and pilot in New Orleans, and being, as he says, an outspoken man, was soon thrown into the parish jail for being a Unionist and a Lincoln spy. When the city was taken he joined the Federal army and served during the war as a soldier and as a pilot. His property was destroyed by the Confederate army, and since the war he has been endeavoring to earn his living by following his profession. This he finds impossible, and the reason, as he gives it, is the hostility towards Unionists which is felt by a large portion of this community. When Butler's order compelled the people of New Orleans to divide themselves into two classes, registered friends and enemies of the United States, three-fourths of the members of the Pilots' Association were enrolled in the list of enemies and were sent outside the lines. Now, after four years, they have returned, and the Pilots' Association is revived again. A list of pilots has been prepared by the association and is used by the inspector of steamboats for the Board of Underwriters. It is charged by my informant, and, whether mistaken or not, he attests his sincerity by preparing to bring the matter before the courts, that this list ranks the pilots not according to their ability, but according to their political opinions; that an unqualified pilot, if he was a registered enemy of the United States, is classed as a No. 1 pilot, but that a Unionist, no matter how well qualified he may be, is omitted from the list; that he has been informed by steamboat captains that they would willingly employ him, but that they are told that no boat in charge of a man whose name is not enrolled will be able to effect an insurance. Feeling sure, therefore, that there is a combination to keep honest men out of employment for no good reason whatever, he proposes to bring a suit for damages in one of the courts here, and has sent a petition to Washington setting forth the facts and praying for justice.

This person thinks that the men who fought in the Confederate army are honest in their professions of loyalty and wish for an enduring peace; but the great body of the people are, in his opinion, as rebellious as they were two years since. The men who are reasonable and desire to give up contention are kept in awe by the opinion of their neighbors. He mentioned what he considered the strongest of many instances of this kind which he had observed. On one occasion during the war he had befriended a young Confederate prisoner whose family he had known in former times. Recently, while travelling in the Washita country, he met the boy's father on a steamboat, and the old man, after some time, came over to him and returned thanks for his kindness. This he did in a hasty whisper, showing every sign that he desired those about him to remain ignorant that he had received or acknowledged favors from a Yankee. He would like to talk to Andy Johnson for one half hour, and he would prove to him that he ought to raise the number of regular troops to one hundred thousand men, and keep these States garrisoned for the next three years. If the troops were removed now no Union man could stay here a week.

I find the greatest diversity of opinion prevailing among the men with whom I have talked as to whether or not public opinion is growing more hostile to the North. I judge that the Northern men now here would, for the most part, think it not dangerous to remain after the troops are gone; and I think most of them would not expect their stay to be so profitable to them as it is at present. I speak of professional men and merchants. I believe there was but one of my many questions that received always the same answer. When I asked if there is any town in the State where they thought a man might, with safety to his life, publicly advocate, or be generally known to advocate, the propriety of allowing intelligent, educated negroes to vote, the reply was uniformly in the negative.

ENGLAND.

London, February 3, 1866.

The English people have a deep-rooted love for fine clothes and handsome equipages; and, considering what we pay for the blessings of monarchy, it is, I think, rather hard upon us that our royal family should live a more secluded life and exhibit less of external pomp than any court in Europe. If I were an English Bismark, my first advice to my royal master would be to spend money liberally and keep up a great display, and then I should certainly secure in his favor one instinct of the popular heart—not a high one, perhaps, but nevertheless very genuine. Next week, however, I shall have to say more about the great "crape or no crape" question. Indeed, this week dress questions have been the order of the day. The one solitary incident of the Parliamentary session thus far has been one concerning attire. After Mr. Denison had been nominated to the chair, Mr. Bright, somewhat to the astonishment of the House, rose and made an appeal in favor of members being allowed to dine with the Speaker in ordinary evening dress. At the state dinners of the Speaker nobody can be present who is not dressed in uniform, or in what is called the Windsor suit —a sort of livery worn only by civilians invited to the palace, or by footmen upon the stage. Quakers, I presume, have a conscientious objection to arraying themselves in braid and gold; and all sensible men must have a repugnance to making mountebanks of themselves; but still, the fact that you must either don the suit in question or deprive yourself of the pleasure of dining with the Speaker can hardly be accounted a serious grievance. If a Whig baronet of aristocratic connections had proposed the abolition of the "Windsor uniform," the proposal would probably have commended itself to the good sense of the House; but, coming as the suggestion did from Mr. Bright, it was regarded as part and parcel of a scheme to "Americanize our institutions," and condemned accordingly. So the only practical result of the member for Birmingham's appeal has been to ensure the court tailors of the continuance of a custom from which they derive no small profit. That this would be so, Mr. Bright must have known beforehand; and that, knowing it, he should have made the suggestion, is an evidence of that odd want of tact which renders him far more obnoxious to the governing classes than the unpopularity of his opinions. Mr. Cobden never went to the Speaker's dinners on account of the necessity of assuming a court suit; but then Mr. Cobden was too prudent a man to say anything about the matter.

As I anticipated long ago, the Government are still utterly at sea about reform. From whatever cause, there has been no strong demonstration of public feeling in favor of any extension of the franchise, and the Ministry cannot discover to what extent they can rely upon the support of the country if they are driven to dissolve Parliament on a reform question. As far as I can learn, their resolution is oozing away as the time approaches for action. Already there is a rumor that they do not intend to propose any bill till after Easter. In consequence, the opposition of the Palmerstonian Liberals to the idea of any reform at all is becoming more and more outspoken. The *Times*, after veering round day after day in its usual fashion, seems at last to have set its sails straight at the anti-reform tack, and the "moderate" Liberals are obviously inclined to follow its lead. The first open signal of defection has been given by Mr. Grenfell, M.P. for Stoke-on-Trent, who is described in Dod's "Parliamentary Hand-Book" as "a Liberal, and in favor of the extension of the suffrage, a redistribution of seats, and the ballot." This gentleman was invited the other day to attend a meeting in favor of reform, and declined doing so in a letter wherein he states openly that "nobody is really in earnest about reform," and that "he would rather see the Government and legislature devote their time to questions of administrative, judicial, military, or colonial reform—all loudly called for—than throw away their time in the pursuit of an object the attainment of which excites much fear and alarm." Mr. Grenfell is not a politician of much position, but he is a very fair type of the ordinary Palmerstonian Liberal, and his desertion of reform is certain to be followed by swarms of members of his class, if once the impression gains ground that the Ministry are not determined on decisive action. Many, too, of the advanced Liberals, to my knowledge, believe that the collapse of the Government measure would excite a degree of popular feeling which would facilitate the passing of a far more democratic bill than any dreamed of at present, and would, therefore, not be sorry to witness a complete *fiasco*, though they would do nothing to bring such a result about. In fact, from all indications, I should say reform stock was sinking rapidly in the political market. With its apparent decline, quidnuncs are prophesying the speedy break-up of the Ministry. Mr. Layard, it seems, has made up his quarrel with his colleagues, and took occasion at a public dinner at Guildford to express the highest confidence in Earl Russell's liberalism and the greatest respect for him as a statesman. Somehow or other, the grievances of the Under-Secretary have been removed. Rumor says that the permanent salaried Under-Secretary of the Foreign Office, the highest of the irremovable officials in the department, is about to retire upon a pension, and that Mr. Layard is to succeed him. If so, the sudden recovery of his confidence in Earl Russell is not so extraordinary.

I should recommend all persons who want to learn anything particularly unpleasant that can be said about England to read an article in the "Cornhill Review" called "My Countrymen." Its author, Mr. Matthew Arnold, the eldest son of Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, is one of those authors whose social reputation has always been higher than his general one. He is so very near being a great writer that his friends and admirers always think he is going to be one; and yet he has never got beyond what the French call a *succès d'estime*. An unsuccessful writer is always more or less a disappointed man; and all Mr. Arnold's later writings are impregnated with a sort of philosophical dissatisfaction with things as they are, such as might be entertained by an Epicurean sage who felt annoyed at the preference given by the public to Stoic teachers of far lower intellectual ability. Of late years Mr. Arnold has constituted himself the eulogist of French thoughts and literature and institutions as opposed to English; more, I think, unless I wrong him, because by so doing he can annoy his English readers than from any very profound admiration for the cause he espouses. Some months ago the *Saturday Review* attacked Mr. Arnold for his French proclivities in one of the pseudo-Johnsonian, educated spread-eagle articles for which it possesses a specialty. In this instance, however, the *Saturday Review* has found its match. The article in which Mr. Arnold retorts upon the critics, who accused him of indecency, seems to me the most elegant piece of stinging sarcasm which I have read for many a long day. No other living writer could have contrived to give bitter offence to so many different parties in the country, or to wound so many British prejudices in the course of so few pages. What amount of truth there is in Mr. Arnold's delicate inuendoes that we, as a nation, have fallen behind our age, have lost character abroad and strength at home, and are wrapt up in intolerable self-conceit, I may try to examine, if you will let me, on a future occasion. That there is a good deal of truth in it I should be the last person in the world to deny. All men who, like myself, have lived much abroad, must sympathize with Mr. Arnold in his intense disgust at the one perpetual burden of self-laudation that our public men and our public prints raise in honor of our practical good sense and our moral, social, and political superiority to the inferior races who occupy portions of the globe not bounded by the green seas. But, on the other hand, I very much doubt whether England is a whit worse in these respects than she always has been; and I also doubt whether a great portion of our strength and success is not due to this stolid, immovable belief in our own goodness and grandeur and excellence. No greater proof could be given of the depth of this faith than the success of Mr. Arnold's essay. People are amused with it, as they would be by an ingenious argument against the rule of three, or by a sparkling denunciation of the advantages of steam; but everybody treats it as a self-evident paradox. After all, Mr. Arnold ought to remember that even in the freest days of France no popular French publication would ever have dared to publish an essay by a French writer proving, or essaying to prove, that Frenchmen were in every respect inferior to Englishmen.

Chateaubriand's saying that Rome is the second country of all the world is so eminently true of Americans who have resided in the Eternal City, that I am sure all your readers who know Rome will feel something of a personal regret when they learn that Gibson is dead at last. How far he was a great sculptor is a point about which there is much difference of opinion even amongst his own countrymen; but he was an artist towards whom all lovers of the beauty of form must feel kindly, and he was a celebrity of that Roman city which all who know it love so well. The name of the "Caffè Greco" must surely recall to all its frequenters in bygone days, scattered as they may be over the world, the picture of the shrewd, shabby, kindly-looking old man who was pointed out to neophytes at that resort of artists as the most illustrious of Anglo-Roman sculptors, the last and worthiest disciple of the Canova school. No man cared less for high society or was less spoilt by the intoxication of success and the flattery of fashionable patrons of art. The only recognitions of his fame that seemed to touch him much were those which came to him from the English royal family. Just before he died a telegram of kind enquiry arrived from the Queen. It was given to him in one of his last lucid moments; and when they tried to take it from his dying fingers, he grasped it so tightly that he was allowed to retain and died holding it. In his death as in his life, in his strength and weakness, in his virtues and failings, there was never, I think, a more genuine Englishman than the dead artist, who, from a carpenter's apprentice, had become the most celebrated of British sculptors, and to whom for nearly half a century Rome had been a home and dwelling-place.

February 9.

On Tuesday last the Queen opened Parliament in person. But everything was done that well could be done to give a sombre character to the ceremony. The robes of state were not worn, but laid upon the throne and sat upon by the sovereign; the speech was read by deputy, without the slightest indication on the part of the lady in whose name it was spoken that she took any interest in the proceeding. And as to her dress, I can only say it was what Mary Stuart might have worn, if she had dressed for the part, on the day she was led out to execution. However, the general aspect of the scene was very bright; the House of Lords was crowded with "high-born dames" and "squires of every degree," and everything went off satisfactorily. The streets through which the Queen passed were lined with dense crowds, of a very respectable class. But considering that this was her first state appearance in public since Prince Albert's death, the reception was not nearly so enthusiastic as I should have expected. The Prince and Princess of Wales were far more cheered than the sovereign herself. And our newspapers have been wonderfully lukewarm in their raptures about the royal re-appearance. The truth is, that the more I know my own countrymen, the more I come to two conclusions. In the first place, there is no conceivable folly that we are not capable of committing; in the second place, anybody who reckons on our continuing consistent in our folly is even more foolish than we are ourselves. For a long time after Prince Albert's death, you would have thought from the tone of society and of our leading papers that the late Prince Consort was a second King Arthur, and that our loyalty to the Queen exceeded all bounds of common sense and even self-respect. In this assumption you would have been perfectly right; but you would have been perfectly wrong if you had supposed this outburst of loyalty was of a permanent character. We have heard of "Albert the Good," but we are weary of his name; and the popular sense of duty, which, I am glad to say, is still extremely powerful among us, has been irritated by the spectacle of a mourning inconsistent with the discharge of the duties of the mourner. At any rate, whether rightly or wrongly, the extraordinary enthusiasm created by the Queen's first dread bereavement has worn itself out, and the public has ceased to care for sentimental articles about "the royal widow." So this week our papers have been temperate enough in their descriptions, and, oddly enough,

the only outburst of exaggerated rapture about "our good Queen" which has come under my knowledge was contained in the pages of an Anglo-American journal recently established in London.

It is tolerably clear that for the present the question of reform must give way to more pressing considerations. On the first night of the session Mr. Stanhope declared, amidst the cheers of both sides of the house, "that reform might wait, and Ireland might wait, and Jamaica might wait; but that the cattle-plague could not wait." The debate on the address ran off into a cattle plague discussion, and no other subject could even get a hearing. The landed interest is always almost omnipotent in the legislature, when it happens to be united; and on the Rinderpest there is no diversity of sentiment between Whig and Tory landlords. The opposition obviously intends, as a political move, to bid for the support of the agricultural interest, by supporting the demand for an indemnity for the sufferers from the cattle-plague; and I doubt the Government having strength enough to resist the demand, if urged vigorously. Hitherto, every method of cure, including vaccination and homœopathy, has proved a failure, and the universal demand throughout the agricultural districts is for a complete suspension of all cattle traffic by vessel or by rail. If this demand is granted, the result will be that the meat consumers in the towns will have to pay an enormously increased price for meat; but, as a rule with us, the counties are stronger than the towns. Talking of the cattle-plague, Lord Frederick Cavendish, a young gentleman who, in consequence of his being the son of the Duke of Devonshire and the brother of the Marquis of Huntington, was selected to move the address, made the only joke, though an unintentional one, in the course of the first night's weary debate. Alluding to the royal speech, he gravely asserted his conviction that the expression of Her Majesty's sympathy would be a great source of consolation to the *victims* of the Rinderpest.

The only other memorable debate of the session so far has been a discussion on Ireland, in which The O'Donoghue moved an amendment, declaring virtually that Fenianism was due to the misgovernment of Ireland by England. The speech was an able and temperate one enough; and was replied to by the English speakers in a tone of unusual candor and moderation. But—and this is a point I think well worth noticing—the bitter attacks against The O'Donoghue, the imputations of disloyalty, the deriding of his arguments, all came from brother Irish members. Out of a House in which there are 105 Irish representatives, only 21 could be found to vote with the leader—now that Pope Hennessey is out of Parliament—of the Irish party. I quite agree with The O'Donoghue, as I think every fair man must do, that the existence of such an agitation as Fenianism, after we have held Ireland for centuries, is proof positive of some radical defect in our treatment of the sister kingdom. But as to what we ought to do. If Ireland were an homogeneous country filled with a population of one race and creed and language, it would be easy enough philosophically—however bitter it might be practically—to say that she has a right to self-government. But how, I want to know, can we legislate for a country, one-half of which considers the other half traitors and heretics? You in America know something of what it is to have to deal with an Hibernian population; and you ought, in common fairness, to have more sympathy for our difficulties than we can expect from French publicists, who lecture us about the "oppressed Celtic nationality." Mr. Pope Hennessey has lately been making a furious onslaught upon the Government for the severity with which the Fenian prisoners have been treated at Pentonville on their road to Portland. If, however, we had a right to convict the rebels at all by the verdicts of Irish juries, and if we had a right to sentence them at all to penal punishment, I do not see how we could treat them otherwise than common felons. Moreover, if this wretched business blows over, I have no doubt before long we shall have a general amnesty.

Politics and Parliament have pretty well occupied public attention during the week. We have had, however, another of those odd cases which seem to me the monopoly of England. Mr. Fitzgerald, a lad of eighteen, the son of the distinguished Irish Roman Catholic judge of that name, has just sued the school authorities of Oscott—the chief English Roman Catholic training school—for having expelled him without adequate cause. And so for three days our papers have been full of the momentous discussion whether young Fitzgerald did or did not promote an association at Oscott called the "Anti-Bunkers," and, if so, whether this school club was of a character inconsistent with his position while in "statu pupillari." Both the judge and the principal of Oscott are gentlemen well known in English society, and therefore the case excited immense interest over here; but to a foreign reader of our papers the whole thing must have seemed inconceivably small and petty.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, February 2, 1866.

THE Skating Club is becoming seriously uneasy at the prospect of losing all its trouble and outlay through the persistent mildness of the weather, and some of its members are proposing to build in its domains in the Bois de Boulogne, described in a former letter, an elegant structure, to contain halls for playing at nine-pins, billiards, croquet, etc., not forgetting that ingenious substitute for ice, a floor of glass, on which skating is performed by means of skates running upon casters. In this way it is thought that the members may contrive to get some amusement in return for their outlay, despite the unwelcome height of the thermometer.

Magnificent balls and routs are, meantime, the order of the day. The most splendid entertainment yet is the ball just given at the Prussian embassy to Prince and Princess Hohenzollern, who are making so long a stay at the Tuileries. The hotel of the embassy is a very handsome building, containing seven magnificent drawing-rooms, opening one out of the other and splendidly fitted up. These rooms, with others adjoining, were sumptuously ornamented with lustres and flowers, presenting a most brilliant *coup d'œil*, the orchestra of the ball-room being placed in a gay tent, ornamented in Oriental style, erected in a vestibule outside. The beautiful Countess of Hatsfeld, wife of the first secretary of legation—one of the many fair American girls who have, of late years, excited the ire of European mammas by carrying off the highest matrimonial prizes—was to have done the honors in the absence of Countess Goltz, wife of the Prussian minister; but as the Emperor and Empress suddenly notified their intention of honoring the *fête* with their presence, Princess Hohenzollern supplied the place of the absent lady. Their Majesties took part in the "Quadrille of Honor," and afterwards walked through the rooms, admiring the splendor of the scene The King of Prussia, informed by telegram of the presence of the Imperial couple, sent a telegraphic order to Count Goltz, directing him to present a bouquet to the Empress in the King's name. This order the count lost no time in obeying, and, having done so, transmitted by the same agency the Empress's thanks to the King. One of the ladies present, Madame de Pène (wife of the journalist who, it may be remembered, was challenged some years ago by all the officers of a regiment that conceived itself to have been insulted by an article of his, and whose recovery from the wounds received in that unequal duel was watched with so much interest by the European public), a very beautiful woman, who dresses with exquisite taste, is so wonderfully like the Empress Josephine that the Emperor exclaimed, on seeing her: "It is my grandmother—grown young again!" The Empress, in a dress of white tulle (she is in mourning for Prince Oddone, of Italy), with a splendid tiara and necklace of diamonds, looked very lovely; Princess Metternich sported an indescribable costume, more extravagantly eccentric than anything she has hitherto appeared in, and evidently enjoyed the sensation she created; the gay and rather "fast" Russian, Mme. Rimsky Kortchakoff, wore in her hair her famous peacock, whose spreading tail is entirely composed of precious stones of immense value, a curious, but by no means becoming, ornament; and the much-talked of Countess de Castiglione, who has been ill, and looks rather pale and thin, appeared again, after a retirement of a couple of winters, in the peculiar style of rigging for which she is famous, and which (when her dress is not composed altogether of transparent materials) may be described as consisting of very little in front, rather less behind, and nothing worth speaking of in the way of sleeve. The beauty and success of the fair impersonator of "Salammbo," "Egeria," and other airily attired heroines of romance and mythology, having secured for her an enemy in almost every one of the lady members of the fashionable world, the re-appearance of the eccentric Italian created a certain amount of sensation at the brilliant ball in question.

Another grand ball has been given at the Tuileries, where the dancing was kept up until four o'clock in the morning; in the absence, however, of the Imperial hosts, who always retire to rest a little after midnight. The ministers, the Prefect of the Seine, Count Walewski (who has just succeeded to the lamented Duke de Morny in the presidency of the legislative chamber), and all the other great dignitaries of the official world, are outrivalling one another in the splendor of their entertainments; and as all these personages occupy magnificent official residences and are allowed a handsome sum each year for the express purpose of "showing off," it will be readily understood that the spectacle presented by these gatherings is brilliant in the extreme.

The extravagance of the day in every branch of luxurious display is, in fact, so enormous and so general that one cannot help marvelling how it is kept up. The salaries of the official world explain the possibility of such outlay in the case of those who receive them; and some few of the great financial speculators have amassed such vast fortunes of late years that they

may spend largely without exciting surprise. Many members of the foreign colony, too, are known to possess great fortunes in their respective countries, and lavish expenditure on their part is naturally regarded as a thing of course. But what surprises all who have eyes in their heads is the magnificence of the legions of gay people who manage to live sumptuously, to keep carriages and horses and a number of expensive servants, to dress in the extreme of fashion (which feat now implies, on the part of the ladies, a total change of wardrobe every few days, and a constant succession of jewelry and other ornaments almost as costly), to go "everywhere," to give sumptuous entertainments in return, and to go off, when the extravagances of a Parisian 'season" have been exhausted, to the fashionable watering-places, where the cost of cutting a dash is almost greater than in Paris.

It is undeniable that much of the present unjustifiable and unreasonable outlay springs from the growing influence of the formidable phalanx of the "demi-monde," whose chiefs, in their "war to the knife" rivalry with the world around them, incessantly strive to outshine the wives and daughters of those for whom they spread their dangerous nets. The latter, furious at the insolent splendor of the syrens who are flaunting so ostentatiously at their expense, endeavor to outshine them in their turn; and the consequences of this rivalry are seen in the enormous inflation of every branch of vain-glorious expenditure which forms so prominent a feature of the day and threatens to exhaust the resources, as well as to depreciate the tone, of modern society. The danger of such a rivalry in expenditure is especially great in this country, because the French, being both envious and imitative by nature, are extremely unwilling to allow themselves to be outshone by one another; and thus the example of lavish outlay being given by those who are at the top of the social ladder is at once imitated to the extent of their possibilities by all below them. Because Princess de Metternich, one of the richest women in Europe, can afford to run up a bill of 80,000 francs for dresses in a few months at a single tradesman's, and because a great banker can give his wife 30,000 francs a month for the expenses of her toilette, all the womenkind of the region rush incontinently into an outlay for dress absurdly out of proportion to the means at their command. As for the leaders of that other world which is rapidly conquering from its enemy an unwilling recognition of its existence and its power, their principle of action seems to be to get all they can and to spend all they get. Three hundred thousand francs appears, from statistics recently gleaned by an authority in such matters, to be the average yearly "domestic" outlay of the leaders in question. They have elegant hotels, sumptuously furnished, full of pictures, statues, porcelain, and objects of virtu often of great value; an array of servants, and often keep ten or a dozen horses and six or eight elegant carriages. Their horses, which are generally of great value, are usually like their diamonds, of which they generally possess about 500,000 francs worth, though one or two have diamonds worth three times that amount, to say nothing of other jewelry, the gift of "friends." These luxurious beauties never sleep in sheets worth less than three thousand francs a pair; never put on a gown worth less than five hundred francs, exclusive of trimmings, while the lace alone on many of their dresses costs from five to twenty thousand francs; they think nothing of putting eight or ten thousand francs' worth of the most exquisite lace on a dressing-gown, spend about six thousand francs a year on shoes, about as much more for bonnets, ten thousand francs for washing, and about ten francs a day for perfumery. One or two of the queens of the mercenary realm in question possess stones and trinkets that might almost rival the crown jewels of the various European monarchies, with single necklaces worth a million of francs, and the other ornaments on a similar scale of value, and spend, as, for instance, the well-known ex-opera-dancer, Clotilde, a million of francs yearly on their housekeeping and toilette.

The domestics of the Parisian grandees, who have enrolled themselves for some time past on the lists of "The Society of Upper Servants," have just had their annual ball, given, with great *éclat*, in the Salle Valentino. This society, founded under the Emperor's auspices by one of his head valets, who became its first president, has been instituted for the relief of its members in cases of sickness, each member paying an entrance fee of ten francs, and an annual subscription of thirty francs. It has a regularly constituted board of officers, holds regular meetings, and invites its members every year to a grand ball of the most brilliant description. The guests, consisting exclusively of members, and attired for the most part in garments of the newest fashion, the *spoglia* of masters and mistresses, alight under an elegant awning, deposit their wraps in a well-organized *vestiaire*, and are received at the entrance of the ball-room by the president and syndics of the society, all wearing rosettes of white satin. Each member contributes ten francs to the expenses of the ball, and is admitted by ticket only; a sharp inspection being brought to bear on all arrivals, and any interloper being speedily discovered and politely conducted back to the street. The fountain in the middle of the hall is surrounded with flowers and seats; the lustres and hangings are of the most approved description; the orchestra excellent, and the dancing is kept up with great animation until about seven o'clock next morning. So many of the guests being unable to come until very late, as they are obliged to await the return of their masters and mistresses from *their* dissipations, the subscribers would be prevented from "getting the worth of their money" if the ball were brought to an end at an earlier hour. Besides the ball-room, there are other rooms for cards and promenading, and a *buffet*, which, I am assured, is a very *recherché* affair, where delicacies of every kind are dispensed at "moderate prices."

Patti, who is in greater favor than ever, and who is probably, at this time, one of the happiest as well as luckiest little mortals to be found on the planet, has just signed an engagement for St. Petersburg at the rate of 10,000 francs per night! The public of Paris seems determined to get its favorite married; first, it was asserted that the bridegroom expectant was a Russian prince; next, that the young *diva* had promised her hand to a Spanish marquis; and now it is positively asserted that she is on the point of marrying the heir to a great French title. Patti, whose slight figure and almost infantile manners make her look younger than she really is, has already attained her twenty-third year; but, being a Spaniard, she will not be legally of age until she is twenty-five, a point which is of great importance in the singular position in which she is placed, as, in virtue of a contract made by her relatives with M. Strakosch, her brother-in-law, her gains, as long as she remains under age, are divided into three shares, of which one goes to her relatives, one to M. Strakosch, and the third is invested at good interest to join her own fortune. Of this fortune, as of her own actions, the popular songstress will only be mistress when of age.

STELLA.

Correspondence.

"IN HOPES THE DAY WILL SOON COME."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I enclose you a letter received by one of our family from a relative residing at the place indicated by its superscription. I presume that many such are received in the North by sympathizers and relatives, but that it may be only in rare instances that *you* get possession of them.

I would merely say that the writer of the letter is a man of above thirty years of age, born and brought up under the shadow of free Northern institutions, having gone to Texas when twenty-one years of age.

Very respectfully, —— ——.

Macon Bibb county Georgia
Jan 18th 1866

DEAR UNCLE—As an opportunity has presented itself for me to write to my relations again I thought I would not put it off any longer. I have wrote to my father and cant get an answer. I should like to know what has become of him. I recived a letter from him just before the war commenced and have not heard any thing since. I left Texas the spring of 1861 in the first regiment that went to the Army and served as a rebel soldier four long years. I tryed to make as good a one as any boddy. we failed in our undertaking which I am verry sorry for. the reason for it is I lost six likley negroes by our being over powered. I shall not give up that we were whiped. I received a wound in my right hand which caused me to have but little use of it. Southern people was once a happy people but now I think we are disgraced as long as one of us lives. it is hard for us to give up all we had. I am a strong believer in slavery for the negroes wont work unless they are in bondage. I have been over seeing negroes ever since I came south. you may think hard of me for being a rebel but I thought it my duty to try and save my property if I could. I received a letter from cousin William while I lived in Texas. I answered it and never heard from him again. I am ancious to hear whether he lives in Oregon yet or not. I am going to stay in Georgia this year then I am going back to Texas. the reason I did not gow soon after the surender my hand was to sore to travel. most of the doctors wanted to cut it off. I was sorry a good many times that I did not let them have their way but now I am glad I had my way about it. we had a great stir up amongst the negroes on New year's day. they wanted to divide the land and stock for their former masters but they are getting satisfied with their freedom without any property. I am in hopes the day will soon come when all of the U S soldiers will be disbanded then we will have our way some of the time if not all. as it is we rebs are afraid to speak above a whisper. I am a single man yet and expect to stay so untill I can make another start in life. there has been a great deal of marrying this winter and still continues. this leaves me in good health hoping when this note comes to hand it will find you and family in a thriving condition. give my kindest regards to all the family. pleas accept my most earnest wishes for the continuance of your happiness and prosperity and belive me most truly yours —— ——

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

NOTHING shows the increasing wealth of this country in literary property of all kinds more than the growing importance of the auctioneers' announcements connected with it. A new and enterprising firm, Messrs. Leavitt, Strebeigh & Co., who have recently succeeded Mr. James E. Cooley in the management of the New York publishers' trade-sales and the general auction business connected with works of art and literature, have just put forth a bulletin of their sales for the coming spring. Among them are several very important collections—as the library of the late Mr. Daniel Embury, of Brooklyn, a gentleman of fine taste and culture; of Mr. J. B. Fisher, of Austerfield Farm, Camden County, N. J., renowned as an assemblage of books almost unique for splendor of condition; and several others, including, in May, a large selection from the library of Daniel O'Connell, with his book-plate, autographs, etc. There are, besides, two very choice and extensive sales of coins and medals, both American and foreign, gold and silver, etc., and the extraordinary collection of autograph letters and documents formed by the labor of a long life by the late Mr. J. K. Teft, of Savannah, Georgia. Compressed as much as possible, the sale of this collection will occupy an entire week. For letters, papers, and documents illustrating American history and biography, it is probably unrivalled, nor have foreign notabilities been neglected in gathering from every quarter the personal relics of great men. For a single volume, containing a complete collection of autographs of the signers of the Declaration of Independence, mounted, illustrated with portraits, etc., and bound in quarto, two thousand dollars were offered some time since, and we shall not be surprised to see it bring more than that amount at public competition. A similar volume includes the autographs of the signers of the Constitution of the United States. The catalogue now preparing forms a valuable list of original documents, etc.

—Among late French publications appears a version of Alexander L. Holley's well-known "Treatise on Ordnance and Armor," published by D. Van Nostrand. It is entitled "Traité d'Artillerie et des Cuirasses. Traduit par F. X. Franqel," and is brought out in three parts. It is so comparatively rare for the French to import their science from other nations that the compliment becomes a marked one when it refers to a work on the very subject that has engaged the most devoted attention of the Emperor himself and all the men of science connected with military matters. The value of Mr. Holley's book, as an authentic and impartial record of scientific experiments and their results, is well understood at home and abroad, and in this light its importance was no doubt speedily discovered in France.

—We have already expressed our sense of the curiosity and value of Mr. Wheeler's "Dictionary of Noted Names of Fiction," etc., and are glad to hear that its utility has been recognized abroad, by its publication in the well-known series, "Bohn's Standard Library," whose general high character has ensured its very extensive circulation. The book, however, requires much revision, excision, and addition before it can be accepted in a permanent shape. Though highly creditable to the writer's industry and research, it confirms us in the opinion that the so-called "British Classics," the standard authors of the last century, are now scarcely ever read. For instance, here is Mr. Wheeler, who should have them at his fingers' ends. He never can have read Sir Charles Grandison, or he would not call Miss Harriet Byron "an accomplished woman of high rank," when she is clearly not a woman of rank at all. The *Guardian* must be a terra incognita to one who says "Nestor Ironside" was a name under which Steele, "*assuming the character of an astrologer*, set up the *Guardian*;" and he can know as little of the *Spectator* who calls Sir Andrew Freeport a member of the club "under whose direction the *Spectator* was professedly published;" and numerous other instances might be given. Perhaps it is too much to expect an intimacy with Pierce Egan's "Life in London," as we do not find "Tom," "Jerry," or "Bob Logie" in the dictionary; but even less recondite authorities would show that "Charlies" was not the "sobriquet given to the London police force," but to the superannuated parochial night watchmen (the police were called "Robin Redbreasts" from their red waistcoats), and the derivation from King Charles I. "wants confirmation." In turning over the pages of the dictionary, one of the oddest blunders we note regards an author as popular as Dickens. We envy Mr. Wheeler the treat he has in store of making acquaintance with the "Old Curiosity Shop," when he will learn that "Master Humphrey" is not the infatuated gambler, the grandfather of Little Nell, but a character in the introductory chapter, now suppressed by the author. That *Abel Drugger* is a character in *Ben Jonson's farce* (!) of "The Tobacconist" must be difficult to demonstrate, as he never wrote anything with that title, though Francis Gentleman patched one up from "The Alchemist." That the contributors to "Blackwood's Magazine" "embrace Wordsworth, Coleridge, and Landor," among other eminent literary men, will be news to the editors of their writings. Mr. Wheeler is generally very strong in folk-lore and popular fiction. He has missed, however, the true derivation of "Queen Mab," whose identification by Mr. Francis Douce is very curious and interesting.

—It is a feature of the American publishing trade worth noticing as an evidence of national movements and tendencies, that a popular book intended for large circulation, and more especially educational works, has no sooner been successfully launched before the public than the question of a translation into German arises. A gentleman, most conversant with the business, assures publishers that there is at present a large and rapidly increasing demand for school and academic text-books and works of general literature in the German language. By what seems a curious anomaly in the copyright law of this country, the translation of any book into a foreign language is free to all, the law placing no hindrance in the way and affording no protection to the owner of the original. Most of the illustrated histories of the war, lives of President Lincoln, etc., are thus published in duplicate in the two languages, usually by the owner of the English text, who endeavors to forestall any intruder on his domain. So extensively recognized is the business that the gentleman referred to above, Mr. E. Steiger, of 13 North William Street, has organized a bureau of competent translators, prints at his own presses, and supplies to publishers use editions in German of every book that is desired. He has been employed for very many in this capacity with great success.

—The total number of new books published in England during the past year, 1865, is summed up as comprising 4,952 titles. Deducting from this the American books introduced to the London market, and works recorded merely on account of some change in their form or reduction of price, 4,496 remain as original additions to the previously existing stock of literature. As there is no compulsory return of the statistics of publishing, and very little attention given to obtaining the names of books issued in the provinces, or outside of the great centres of the business—London and Edinburgh—the real number may be probably taken with sufficient accuracy at five thousand. In the United States it would be still more difficult to arrive at a complete enumeration of new books, as local publishing increases in every part of the country and its productions are very often only to be found in the immediate neighborhood where they are produced. The law enacting that a copy of every book on which copyright is claimed must be deposited in the library of Congress, at Washington, must, however, afford authentic material for estimating the literary activity of the country, when its provisions are fully understood and carried out. To turn from quantity to quality, the permanent accessions to the library acquired during the past year are said to be fully up to the average. They include several books destined to a lasting place in public estimation, as Mr. Grote's "Socrates and Plato," J. S. Mill's "Examination of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy," Palgrave's "Travels in Arabia," Lecky's "History of the Progress of Rationalism in Europe," Smiles's "Lives of Boulton and Watt," and many others.

—The intrusion of religious societies established for a specific purpose in the general business of publication is a grievance of long standing in England, and has lately called forth much correspondence in the literary papers. There are there in operation the two great corporations, the "Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge" and the "Religious Tract Society," including among their various supporters partisans of both the Church and Dissent, and each working with large capitals supplied by public beneficence. Not content with supplying cheap devotional and religious books, they now bring out, in superior style, illustrated works, books on natural history, general literature, etc., sometimes with a slight tinge of "seriousness" thrown over them in remembrance of their original objects. In this country organizations of the same character exist in closer connection with special religious bodies, as the Methodist Book Concern, mentioned last week, and the two similar "Boards" representing the divisions of the Presbyterian Church. They have restricted themselves much more to the purposes of their foundation than their English brethren, though even here there is a tendency to infringe upon the regular business of private establishments. By many, the great diminution of the publications in this country of religious books, a noticeable fact in the trade experience of the last twenty-five years, is attributed to the interference of these concerns. It is a great question for examination whether private enterprise does not more legitimately and economically answer the purposes aimed at, than

these elaborate organizations, which, in their desire of making a profit sufficient to cover their large expenses, are constantly tempted to outstep their regular boundaries.

—A valuable service has been performed for old French literature by M. Gustave Brunet, whose new work, "La France Littéraire du 15me Siècle," is just ready to appear. It gives a catalogue, with critical notices, etc., of every book known to be printed in the French language from the introduction of typography in France, by Ulric Gering at Paris in the year 1470, to A.D. 1500. M. G. Brunet, through a curious coincidence of name and pursuit, is often confounded with the veteran bibliographer, J. C. Brunet, the fame of whose "Manuel du Libraire" has penetrated to every country where books are known and valued. M. Gustave Brunet is a native of Bordeaux, and is an accomplished and elegant writer, in contrast to his namesake, who somewhat sternly confines his attention to the technicalities of the science of books. M. G. Brunet has shown, by his articles in MM. Didot's "Biographie Générale," a knowledge of early English books and authors exceedingly rare in France. His "Dictionnaire Bibliographique," forming one volume of the Abbé Mignes' great collection of encyclopædias, is the fullest of interesting facts and most readable of all the works on the subject. A *catalogue raisonné* of English books of the Elizabethan period, somewhat similar in design to the work of M. Brunet, has been undertaken by Mr. Carew Hazlitt and will be published in monthly parts by John Russell Smith. It is not so strictly confined to one period, however, and will be mainly devoted to the light literature of the day, and the drama, the very branches that, it must be said, have almost monopolized the researches of English literary antiquarians, through the halo of association that clusters round the name of Shakespeare, to the undue neglect of other departments of our early literature.

—A controversy, conducted with some asperity, has been maintained in England respecting the well-known commodious "Tauchnitz" series of reprints of modern English books, which enjoy a large circulation on the Continent of Europe, and are preferred by many persons here to the American reprints of light literature for their handier shape and clearer typography. It is well known that these editions are always printed with the author's consent, and for a pecuniary consideration in his favor; but some one (perhaps a disappointed applicant) asserts in print that the price so offered is, in most cases, merely nominal, and actually a cunning device of the Baron Tauchnitz to ensure the writer's sanction for his reprints at the very lowest possible expenditure of cash. These charges have called forth the baron's agents, and, in the opinion of third parties to whom the question was referred, facts completely disprove the accusation and do credit to his liberality. It is proved that, for sales of two books alone, in 1865 he paid respectively £225 and £150. These sums show a very fair share of the profits of the continental market, while the gratification they afford to an author confirmed in the possession of the usufruct of his own brains is not to be measured by money ratios alone.

MR. WHITTIER'S NEW POEM.*

As the village newspaper, with its tidings of the great world outside, to the snow-bound people described in Mr. Whittier's exquisite idyl, so the poem itself to us, long prose-bound. The heaven of song was not clouded for ever, after all, and some of the immortals are still living. Here is drink from Castaly, breath from the meadows of Arcadia, and we know both flavor and fragrance, in spite of the travesty of Piscataqua and Amesbury. Nay, Memphremagog even shall not make us doubt the divine source of the stream.

If the poem has any incident, it is very slight, and it lies in the clear current of thought and feeling, like some bit of rock in the course of a creek; the water plays round and over it, breaking into a louder warble, and dancing back to it, a little, without much pause. The poem is essentially descriptive and meditative, and it is the poet's graceful art to give his landscape human interest and his musing the charm of narration. It tells of a snow-fall in the country that buries the old farm-house in pathless drifts; of the boy carving the avenues to the road; of the circle round the evening hearth; of the talks, the tales of childhood, dissolving into age's tearful reminiscences of them; of faces glowing and fading in the pathetic verse, while the poet speaks of the lost as they were and the lost as they are; of the children's happy slumber, broken next day by the jolly tumult of the farmers, gathered from far and near, and come to open the road-way, with multitudinous teams and sledges. It tells of these things very simply, and makes them delightful with as little effort as the flowers bloom.

The description of the snow-fall, and of the estrangement of all familiar things by the fallen snow, is fine and faithful, but does not equal, it seems to us, in wintry feeling, the picture of the succeeding day, when—

> "The sun through dazzling snow-mist shone,
> No bell the hush of silence broke,
> No neighboring chimney's social smoke
> Curled over woods of low-hung oak.
> A solitude made more intense
> By dreary-voiced elements:
> The shrieking of the mindless wind,
> The moaning tree-boughs swaying blind,
> And on the glass the unmeaning beat
> Of ghostly finger-tips of sleet."

Then, for a scene suggested by a few strokes, bold and sharp, we think this glimpse of the night following that gloomy day to be one of the finest things in poetry:

> "The moon above the eastern wood
> Shone at its full; the hill-range stood
> Transfigured in the silver flood;
> Its blown snows flashing cold and keen,
> Dead white, save where some sharp ravine
> Took shadow, or the sombre green
> Of hemlocks turned to pitchy black
> Against the whiteness at their back."

This is a glance out of window, from the room where the great fire on the hearth

> —— "beat
> The frost-line back with tropic heat;
> And ever, when a louder blast
> Shook beam and rafter as it passed,
> The merrier up its roaring draught
> The great throat of the chimney laughed.
> The house-dog, on his paws outspread,
> Laid to the fire his drowsy head;
> The cat's dark silhouette on the wall,
> A couchant tiger's seemed to fall;
> And for the winter fire-side meet,
> Between the andirons' straddling feet,
> The mug of cider simmered slow,
> The apples sputtered in a row,
> And close at hand the basket stood,
> With nuts from brown October's wood."

The poet figures himself once again one of the group that sat before this fire, and recalls its simple and homely joys, so rich for all their scantness; and loses himself in contemplation of

> "The dear home faces whereupon
> The fitful firelight paled and shone;"

and with the tenderest touch, as he recalls them all, portrays the character of each member of the charmed circle. All this is the more interesting because it is the poet's own early home which he describes, and it is the poet's mother, father, sisters, and kindred with whom he makes us at home. It is done with the most natural and winning grace, and with an affection and tenderness for them that seem also to include the reader. Of these sketches that of the mother and that of the maiden aunt we think the best, for though they are done with less elaboration than that of the younger sister, they embody far subtler feeling and truth. Of the loss of our beloved, we can only say that we live in the hope to meet them again, and Mr. Whittier can say no more of this sister (though he says it ever so beautifully and pathetically), whose whole being seems summed, to him, in the fact that she was, and is no longer, with him. But the mother has the charm of a type, with her wondrous vast experience and knowledge, which impress childhood much more than the more reticent paternal wisdom, and give an epic grandeur to the tales she tells of Indian warfare and backwoods life:

> "So well she gleaned from earth and sky
> That harvest of the ear and eye,
> We almost felt the gusty air
> That swept her native wood-paths bare;
> Heard the far thresher's rhythmic flail,
> The flapping of the fisher's sail,
> Or saw in sheltered cove and bay
> The ducks' black squadron anchored lay, (*sic*)
> Or heard the wild geese calling loud
> Beneath the gray, November cloud."

The aunt, whom

> —— "fate
> Perverse denied a household mate,"

and who kept all the sweetness of her girlhood and the sacred illusions of youth along with its memories, is hardly less an actual presence, we say, than this mother, whom we all know. Neither the uncle nor the schoolmaster is so well realized to our imagination. As to that other guest, the woman of fierce pride and will, who sat with the awed country-folk that night, by their quiet fireside, and who now wanders, a religious fanatic, somewhere in Syria,

> ——"startling on her desert throne
> The crazy Queen of Lebanon
> With claims fantastic as her own,"

how the nature of this woman, thrown against the greyish ground of the

* "Snow-Bound. A Winter Idyl. By John Greenleaf Whittier." Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866.

New England life, glows and burns like a bit of crimson color among the cool tints of a twilight landscape!

"A certain pard-like, treacherous grace
Swayed the lithe limbs and drooped the lash,
Lent the white teeth their dazzling flash;
And under low brows, black with night,
Rayed out at times a dangerous light;
The sharp heat-lightnings of her face
Presaging ill to him whom Fate
Condemned to share her love or hate.
A woman tropical, intense
In thought and act, in soul and sense,
She blended, in a like degree
The vixen and the devotee,
Revealing with each freak or feint
The temper of Petruchio's Kate,
The raptures of Siena's saint.
Her tapering hand and rounded wrist
Had facile power to form a fist;
The warm, dark languish of her eyes
Was never safe from wrath's surprise."

We find the lurking humor, which peers out here and there in the poem, a very delightful element of it, and count the story of that

"Gentlest of skippers, rare sea-saint!
Who, when the dreary calms prevailed,
And water-butt and bread-cask failed,
And cruel, hungry eyes pursued
His portly presence, mad for food,"

was providentially saved from being eaten by his crew through the appearance of a school of porpoises, to be hardly surpassed in delicacy even by the picture of literary destitution in the snow-bound farm-house:

"And poetry (or good or bad,
A single book was all we had),
Where Ellwood's meek, drab-skirted muse,
A stranger to the heathen Nine,
Sang, with a somewhat nasal whine,
The woes of David and the Jews."

This "Winter Idyl" is the most artistic of all the poems of Mr. Whittier. The only other poem comparable to it in grace of feeling and expression is "Maud Müller," which lacks its harmonious self-agreement. It is marred by none of the poet's peculiar faults; not even by one of those amazing inadmissible rhymes which he sometimes permits himself; and if his later manner seems to owe much to the great master of manner, we are not the less grateful for the beauty of his poetry, and we accept it as one of the most genuine autographs of our most purely American life. Such a poem as this winter idyl has an original value in its way as great as the "Biglow Papers" in an utterly different way; and it would not be a matter of surprise to us, some hundred years hence, to find that Whittier, who seemed at first to have an exceptional vocation to sing only the poetry of a great moral and political movement, had, in his riper and deeper growth, been truest of all our poets to whatever was worth poetizing in our time and country.

A NOBLE LIFE.*

Noble lives have always been a sort of specialty with the author of "John Halifax." Few novelists, in this age of sympathy with picturesque turpitude, have given us such flattering accounts of human nature, or have paid such glowing tributes to virtue. "John Halifax" was an attempt to tell the story of a life perfect in every particular; and to relate, moreover, every particular of it. The hero was a sort of Sir Charles Grandison of the democracy, faultless in manner and in morals. There is something almost awful in the thought of a writer undertaking to give a detailed picture of the actions of a perfectly virtuous being. Sir Charles Grandison, with his wig and his sword, his high heels, his bows, his smiles, his Johnsonian compliments, his irreproachable tone, his moderation, his reverence, his piety, his decency in all the relations of life, was possible to the author, and is tolerable to the reader, only as the product of an age in which nature was represented by majestic generalizations. But to create a model gentleman in an age when, to be satisfactory to the general public, art has to specify every individual fact of nature; when, in order to believe what we are desired to believe of such a person, we need to see him photographed at each successive stage of his proceedings, argues either great courage or great temerity on the part of a writer, and certainly involves a system of bold cooperation on the reader's side. We cannot but think that, if Miss Muloch had weighed her task more fairly, she would have shrunk from it in dismay. But neither before nor after his successful incarnation was John Halifax to be weighed or measured. We know of no scales that will hold him, and of no unit of length with which to compare him. He is infinite; he outlasts time; he is enshrined in a million innocent breasts; and before his awful perfection and his eternal durability we respectfully lower our lance. We have, indeed, not the least inclination to laugh at him; nor do we desire to speak with anything but respect of the spirit in which he and his numerous brothers and sisters have been conceived; for we believe it to have been, at bottom, a serious one. That is, Miss Muloch is manifestly a serious lover of human nature, and a passionate admirer of a fine man and a fine woman. Here, surely, is a good solid basis to work upon; and we are certain that on this point Miss Muloch yields to none in the force of her inspiration. But she gives us the impression of having always looked at men and women through a curtain of rose-colored gauze. This impediment to a clear and natural vision is nothing more, we conceive, than her excessive sentimentality. Such a defect may be but the exaggeration of a virtue, but it makes sad work in Miss Muloch's tales. It destroys their most vital property—their appearance of reality; it falsifies every fact and every truth it touches; and, by reaction, it inevitably impugns the writer's sincerity.

The volume before us contains the story of an unfortunate man who, born to wealth and honors, is rendered incompetent, by ill-health and deformity, to the simplest offices of life, but whose soul shines the brighter for this eclipse of his body. Orphaned, dwarfed, crippled, unable to walk, to hold a fork, a book, or a pen, with body enough to suffer acutely, and yet with so little that he can act only through servants upon the objects nearest to him, he contrives, nevertheless, to maintain a noble equanimity, to practise a boundless charity, and to achieve a wide intellectual culture. Such is Miss Muloch's noble life, and this time, at least, we do not contest her epithet. We might cite several examples to illustrate that lively predilection for cripples and invalids by which she has always been distinguished; but we defer to this generous idiosyncracy. It is no more than right that the sickly half of humanity should have its chronicler; and as far as the Earl of Cairnforth is concerned, it were a real loss to the robust half that he should lack his poet. For we cannot help thinking that, admirable as the subject is, the author has done it fair justice, and that she has appreciated its great opportunities. She has handled it delicately and wisely, both as judged by its intrinsic merits and, still more, as judged by her own hitherto revealed abilities. She has told her story simply, directly, and forcibly, with but a moderate tendency to moralize, and quite an artistic perception of the inherent value of her facts. A profound sense of the beauty of the theme impels us to say that of course there are many points in which she might have done better, and to express our regret that, since the story was destined to be written, an essentially stronger pen should not have anticipated the task; since, indeed, the history of a wise man's soul was in question, a wise man, and not a woman something less than wise, should have undertaken to relate it. In such a case certain faulty-sketched episodes would have been more satisfactory. That of Helen Cardross's intimacy with the earl, for instance, would probably have gained largely in dramatic interest by the suggestion of a more delicate sentiment on the earl's part—sensitive, imaginative, manly-souled as he is represented as being—than that of a grateful nursling. Such a feat was doubtless beyond Miss Muloch's powers—as it would indeed have been beyond any woman's; and it was, therefore, the part of prudence not to attempt it. Another weak point is the very undeveloped state of the whole incident of the visit of the earl's insidious kinsman. If this had been drawn out more artistically, it would have given a very interesting picture of the moves and countermoves about the helpless nobleman's chair, of his simple friends and servants, and his subtle cousin.

Good story-tellers, however, are not so plentiful as that we should throw aside a story because it is told with only partial success. When was more than approximate justice ever done a great subject? In view of this general truth, we gladly commend Miss Muloch as fairly successful. Assuredly, she has her own peculiar merits. If she has not much philosophy nor much style, she has at least feeling and taste. If she does not savor of the classics, neither does she savor of the newspapers. If, in short, she is not George Eliot on the one hand, neither is she Miss Braddon on the other. Where a writer is so transparently a woman as she and the last-named lady betray themselves to be, it matters more than a little what kind of woman she is. In the face of this circumstance, the simplicity, the ignorance, the want of experience, the innocent false guesses and inferences, which, in severely critical moods, are almost ridiculous, resolve themselves into facts charming and even sacred, while the masculine cleverness, the social omniscience, which satisfy the merely intellectual exactions, become an almost revolting spectacle. Miss Muloch is kindly, somewhat dull, pious, and very sentimental—she has both the virtues and defects which are covered by the untranslatable French word *honnête*. Miss Braddon is brilliant, lively, ingenious, and destitute of a ray of sentiment; and we should never dream of calling her *honnête*. And, as matters stand at present, to say that we prefer the sentimental school to the other, is simply to say that we prefer virtue to vice.

* "A Noble Life. By the Author of 'John Halifax, Gentleman.'" New York: Harper & Brothers. 1866.

LITERATURE IN LETTERS.*

On the volume before us the publisher's art has been well bestowed. The idea of the book is a happy one, and the editor shows himself a man of cultivation and of taste. From an immense mass of literature, amounting, as he says, to many hundred volumes, Dr. Holcombe has selected one hundred and ninety-seven letters from the pens of about a hundred different writers, all persons of note in their own departments, and all English and American with the exception of Mme. de Sévigné and Humboldt. The list of authors includes all the best known names in literature, and the selections are characteristic of each. The topics are so numerous and diversified that they must be massed rather than classified; but in a book of this nature precise classification is no advantage. The editor arranges his materials under four heads. Book the first contains letters of "gossip, society, and manners." Book the second comprises letters of "pleasantry, sentiment, and fancy." Book the third embraces sketches of "nature, art, and travel," in letters. Book the fourth takes in letters on "public history," some of them very interesting and curious. Book the fifth is devoted to "literary biography, anecdote, and criticism." Book the sixth and last includes letters of "moral and devotional reflection," from Oliver Cromwell all the way to F. W. Robertson; from Dr. Doddridge down to Thomas Jefferson.

The title, "Literature in Letters," is not as suggestive as it might be. "Life in Letters" would be better; for life it is, public and private, in cabinet and field, in parlor and closet, in saloon and sick chamber, in boudoir and prison-cell, in throne-room and cabin. When we say life in letters, or literature in letters, or anything else in letters, provided the letters be the best of their kind, we say, life, literature, or what not, in the most charming form under which they can be presented; and not in the most charming form, merely, but in the most entertaining and instructive form. We believe in letters, when they deserve the name of letters, more than in dissertations, essays, histories, for they contain the essence of dissertations, essays, histories, undiluted and "undoctored" by scribes and commentators. The letter is a genuine production of the mind in its creative moments. It is born of genius, if it has any birth worthy to be spoken of or recognized at all. It is written to some dear friend, or to a person who for the time being stands in an intimate relation; it is called forth, therefore, either by an impulse of affection, or by a special private demand, which gives flavor to the thought, limits the message contained in it to one person, and gives a confidential character to the writing. It goes folded and sacredly sealed, or did before the labor-saving envelope came in vogue. No publisher is to see it; no printer is to lay upon it his grimy hand; no one is to scrutinize it save the one who is already prepared for what it contains.

It is therefore written in sincerity. Why should it not be? Why write letters at all unless they are written sincerely? Their very purpose is to say what the writer is moved to say in privacy. There is no temptation to put on airs, to take a position, or to strike an attitude. The great man says in his letters what he would not dare to say in his speech or his book. He unburthens his mind. If he knows anything, it comes out in his correspondence; if he feels anything, it comes out; if he thinks anything, it comes out. The letter is a written soliloquy, or aside, uttered to a trusted ear. The discovery of a fresh heap of letters revises the judgments of history. The letter is most precious for another reason: it is oftenest the production of a leisure hour, when the mind, in an undress as it were, with no thought of care or business, indulges in an overflow of chat on matters near the heart. It belongs to an age of leisure, at least to an age when leisure is possible, and obtainable, and allowable without eternal disgrace. The gentlemen and ladies who have given us the contents of this charming volume doubtless enjoyed such leisurely privilege. They belonged to another and a quieter generation than ours. None of them are alive now; most of them have been long dead; the most recent of them is Mr. F. W. Robertson, of Brighton; and he passed his days in a small, stupid town, aloof from men, surrounded by very uninteresting people, and driven by the sheer necessities of his position to reach out by letter after living souls with whom he could have no speech. What Londoner or New Yorker would ever have found time for those painfully conscientious epistles on points of literature and philosophy? Theodore Parker, it is true, wrote letters interesting, confidential, long, and innumerable, and he lived in Boston, with London, Berlin, and Paris sitting in his study; but Parker was a prodigy; he had leisure for everything, for he made time; he really had all the time there was. But we doubt if literature will ever be found in letters again. People do not write letters in our days; they scribble notes in characters that would satisfy Chesterfield, who said that no gentleman ever wrote a good hand. Letter-paper even is out of date; the art of folding is forgotten; seals are banished; gluten has superseded wax. The dainty sheets of billet-paper suggest broadly enough that people have nothing to say to one another; that they must not say it if they have, for nobody wants to hear it. The time is short, and business is business. Brains, too, are brains. If a man has an idea—how it may be with women we would not presume to say—but if a man has an idea, it is worth so much money; he cannot afford to put it into a letter; he keeps it for a book, a pamphlet, a newspaper article, which the editor will pay for and the public will praise. The letter receives the refuse of his mind, not the essence of it. We make literature out of newspaper clippings; we overhaul the journals; and a very different sort of literature it is likely to be from that which private correspondence furnishes the materials for. The least interesting portion of modern memoirs is usually the epistolary portion. That is meagre; or, if not meagre, is dull and heavy, as if it was prepared when the man was sleepy and bed-time was near at hand.

We turned over the handsome leaves of Dr. Holcombe's volume with ever new sensations of surprise. When did these rulers, statesmen, scholars, poets, historians, gentlemen, and ladies of society find time for such elaborate and brilliant compositions? Were their lives slow, after all? Had they less to do than we have? Were their days longer? Did they rise earlier in the morning? They certainly did not retire later at night. Was there less demand than there would be now for their literary wares? Were magazines and journals less importunate or less pecunious? Were wits worth less money in the market? Did no market offer for the lighter creations of the mind which now go to make up the contents of manifold weeklies and monthlies? Were they less taciturn than we are? We suspect the secret of epistolary copiousness lies somewhere about this point.

They were less taciturn. The interchange of letters is a social matter peculiar to people who meet frequently, or live a great deal in one another; who have strong personal sympathies, and find communication a necessity. The oftener people see one another, the oftener they write letters to one another. People who live solitary never write letters, for letter-writing is a species of conversation, and when conversation is not cultivated as an art, letter-writing is not. A tongue-tied generation like ours cannot wield a fluent pen.

There, for instance, is this beautiful letter of Daniel Webster's about morning. We take it as a good illustration of our theory, because the letter itself is a genuine product of the epistolary spirit, and we are in a condition to appreciate all the circumstances under which it was penned. Mr. Webster was a very busy man, of many grave affairs public and personal, of active mind, interested in literature, statesmanship, politics. But his letter covers three of these generous pages. It is a beautiful, sententious monologue, held forth to a very charming woman of his acquaintance in Boston. It starts off at once on its theme with graceful abandonment to his feeling. It does justice to morning in all its bearings, poetical, practical, philosophical, romantic; calls up David, Milton, Shakespeare, and even finds time to wonder how the first morning struck Adam in Paradise. We heard this letter read by fair lips some twenty years ago, and marvelled that a man like Mr. Webster should have deliberately put so much fancy away in an envelope. No public man would think of writing such a letter to-day The secret of its composition is revealed by the time and place thereof, as given by Dr. Holcombe—Richmond, 1841, five o'clock A.M. You see it was done a good while ago; far back in the dawn of our history; before modern existence began; when newspapers were a rarity, short and far between, and magazines were not; when books were by no means so plenteous that the mind could not gasp out a thought between their appearance; and friends were not so pre-occupied with their separate cares that never a vacant hour came for talk. Mr. Webster was writing in Richmond, too, stupidest of stupid towns, when he had nothing else to do, and must naturally have felt a longing to communicate with his dear friend in some civilized part of the world. Add to all this that amazing item, the five o'clock in the morning, and the problem is solved. Who gets up at five o'clock in the morning? Whoever does it must certainly stand in need of his friends.

But we intended saying something about Dr. Holcombe's book, and we have scarcely allowed ourselves space for a word. This volume is just the volume to have by one for the little tid-bits of idle vacancy that come almost every day. A few minutes are sufficient for a letter, and each letter is a complete whole in itself. Each letter has a touch of character in it, if not a touch of genius. Each has an occasion and a peculiar interest attached to it from the circumstance that called it forth. Each has a choice bit of description, a piece of sentiment, a reflection, a touch of wit or satire, an inner view of some event in private history, a sketch of social life and manners from one who lived in the midst of them, or a disclosure of hidden

* "Literature in Letters. Edited by James P. Holcombe, LL.D." New York: D. Appleton & Co. 12mo, pp. 520.

policies from an actor behind the curtain. There is something in the book for every mood. One cannot open it at the wrong place; for wherever he may open he will come upon instruction and entertainment. The volume seems to be edited, too, with good taste and with modesty, as if the editor knew what place in literature it was fitted to fill and was perfectly satisfied with it; and that, in our ambitious days, is no small merit.

DE TOCQUEVILLE AS A LEGISLATOR.*

THE ninth and concluding volume of the "Works" of De Tocqueville, which we have now before us, will be found by most readers hardly less interesting and instructive than any other of the collection. If it does not contain any of the author's renowned masterpieces, it carries us through an unusual variety of topics, political, historical, and literary, over all of which the warm and placid rays of his philosophical and humane spirit are profusely scattered. It presents to us De Tocqueville, entire, as he was in the period of his maturity and vigor, from the time when he had, as the author of "Democracy in America," occupied so high a place among the foremost thinkers and writers of the age, almost down to the fatal day—the second of December, 1851—which sent some of the most active minds of France into an involuntary retirement, in which our philosophic statesman found no rest, but sufficient *otium cum dignitate* to write his "Ancien Régime." In academical and parliamentary speeches or short addresses, in literary and legislative reports (as for instance on Cherbulliez's "Démocratie en Suisse," on the abolition of slavery in the French colonies, on prison reform, on the affairs of Algeria, and on the revision of the constitution), and in independent elaborations on penal colonies, on emancipation, on the history of Cherbourg, this volume re-introduces us to De Tocqueville, the writer and orator, philosopher, legislator, and minister of state; the independent enquirer so full of moderation; the aristocrat by birth, habits, and tastes, whose task of life it is to study the laws, and to co-operate in smoothing the ways of political equality; the friend of democracy in the New World who trembles at its advent—under different auspices—in the Old; the son of legitimists, but republican by conviction, who sincerely defends the constitutional throne of Louis Philippe; the staunch partisan of liberty and opponent of centralization who above all abhors demagogism; the zealous advocate of the rights of the poor who sees in socialism the worst kind of servitude; the ardent religionist with whom unlimited freedom of conscience and the separation of church and state are the dearest of political tenets; the Catholic by education to whom England and the United States are models of a religious society; the man of the minority who is always charitable and gentle in judging the leaders of the majority; the writer and speaker who charms us by his diction without ever sacrificing simplicity or lucidity to flowery ornaments. But it is, we believe, the parliamentary part of the speeches contained in this volume, scanty as it is, which shows him, as a man of active thought, in best relief. We shall here call the attention of our readers to a few extracts which we regard as either particularly characteristic or historically interesting.

It was full six years before the revolution of 1848, and nearly ten before Louis Bonaparte executed his *coup d'état*, that De Tocqueville, in a speech in the Chamber of Deputies on the state of the country, in which he pointed out the general relaxation of public morals, a growing desire for office, the indifference of the people amidst attacks on society, the pernicious effects of a governmental policy which addressed itself to the worst, instead of to the better, impulses of the citizens, and the equally demoralizing effects of political coalitions based not on principle but on interest, among others spoke the following words:

"Yes, gentlemen, it is necessary that somebody should declare, and that the people, who hear us, should learn, that the representative system is in peril. The nation, which feels its inconveniences, does not sufficiently appreciate its advantages. . . . And liberty, too, let me be permitted to say, is in peril. Undoubtedly, when we have the entire use, and sometimes, I will grant, witness the abuse, of liberty, it may appear puerile to say that it is in peril. It is true that these perils are not immediate, but allow me to affirm that it has been by this mode of action that nations in all ages have lost their liberty. To be sure, I see no one man great enough to become our master; but I say—and may my country tolerate my words respectfully—that thus have all nations proceeded when preparing for themselves a master. I know not where he is, or from which quarter he is to come; but he will come, sooner or later, if we long continue to follow this road. . . . Now, gentlemen, if all this be true, what is the result? It is that the public spirit in this country, assailed in its very principle, is threatened with destruction. It results that instead of opinions, which, as I have just said, might serve as a solid basis, be it to an opposition, be it to a government, we meet only with a collection of petty private interests, mobile and transient, which can afford no point of support to anybody, neither to the government nor to the opposition, and which necessarily surrenders the whole of society and the government which rules it to a perpetual mobility, from which nothing can spring but anarchy and universal ruin."

In two powerful speeches in opposition to the foreign policy of M. Guizot, delivered in 1843 and 1845 respectively, he displays no less sagacity, and considerably higher talents as a parliamentary orator. Both are keen and outspoken in their criticisms, though polite and even deferential in tone, and replete with political reflections of a high order; which, however, want of space forbids our reproducing here, though we cannot refrain from quoting the concluding words of the second speech, in which he showed the tameness and colorlessness, the timidity and the fear of a policy which characterized Louis Philippe's foreign efforts:

"What state is there in Europe, little or great, which believes that in any affair, small or great, but from which difficulties might arise, France would step forward, would remain at the breach, would pursue her enterprises to the end—enterprises, let me add, most just and most necessary? Where is the state, where can you find a cabinet, which would indulge (forgive the expression) in such dreams? There is none. It is known everywhere that you will take nobody's side, that you will not do anything. Well, if it is possible in this way to secure the tranquillity of a reign, it will never be possible thus to establish the permanency of a dynasty. None has ever been founded in this manner. Dynasties are not thus planted in the soil. No, gentlemen. Sooner or later my country will see that what I say here is demonstrated by experience."

Thus spoke De Tocqueville years before the revolutionary tempest of February burst upon France. One month before that event, in the debates on the proposed address to the king, at the opening of the session of 1848, he gave utterance to his forebodings in a more definite form. Now, for the first time, he is convinced of the correctness of his fears, for he sees that his impressions are shared by others. "A certain uneasiness, a certain apprehension, has taken hold of men's minds. For the first time in sixteen years the feeling, the instinct of instability, that precursor of revolutions, which often announces and sometimes produces them, has grown in the country to an alarming degree." The cabinet itself admits the existence of that impression, but it attributes it to some particular causes, to political accidents. He is afraid symptoms are taken for the disease, and that the latter is more widespread and more profound. It has its seat in the public mind, in the public morals. The ruling class shows signs of growing depravity, political as well as private. The governed or laboring classes are imbued with ideas hostile not only to certain laws, to a certain ministry, to a certain government, but to society itself. He is convinced that French society is sleeping on a volcano. The government, by its unmanly, surreptitious, unconstitutional, and immoral way of regaining or extending power, by making use, for this object, of "the passions, the foibles, the interests, and often of the vices" of men, has in no small degree contributed to bring about this threatening condition of things. There is always some accidental reason, an event or a man, pointed out in history as the cause of the overthrow of a ruling class; but "the real, efficient cause which makes men lose their power is their becoming unworthy of wielding it." The ancient monarchy in France was not overthrown by the deficit, by the oath in the tennis-court, by Lafayette, or by Mirabeau. No; "the ruling class, by its indifference, by its selfishness, by its vices, had become incapable and unworthy of rule." He then adds:

"Do you not feel, by a kind of instinctive intuition, which cannot be analyzed, but which is sure, that again the soil of Europe trembles? Do you not feel—what shall I say?—a revolutionary wind moving through the air? Nobody knows where this wind rises, whence it comes, or whom, mark me well, it will carry off; and in such times you remain calm in the face of the degradation of public morals—the word is not too strong.

"I speak here without bitterness; I speak to you, I believe, even without any party promptings; I attack persons against whom I feel no anger; but I am bound to tell my country what is my profound and decided conviction. Well, then, my profound and decided conviction is that public morals are degenerating, and that their degradation will lead you, in a short time, very short, perhaps, to new revolutions. Does the life of kings hang on threads more substantial and harder to sever than those of other men? At this moment have you the certainty of a morrow? Do you know what may occur in France a year, a month, or even a day hence? You know it not; what you know is that the tempest is on the horizon, that it advances towards you; will you allow yourselves to be surprised by it? Gentlemen, I implore you not to do so—implore, not ask you merely. I would fain sink on my knees before you, so real and so alarming does the danger appear to me; so strongly am I convinced that to signalize it is not to have recourse to a vain form of rhetoric."

It certainly was not, yet the majority whom De Tocqueville thus addressed allowed themselves to be taken by surprise. The eruption of the volcano did take place a few weeks later, burying the chamber, the ministry, the throne under its lava. France was convulsed by agrarian contests. In September of the same year we hear the orator addressing another national

* "Œuvres complètes d'Alexis de Tocqueville. IX." Paris. 1866.

assembly, the constituent, but, without having changed principles, he has changed the *rôle*, the position. He is no longer applauded by the left, as heretofore, but by the right and the centre. He speaks against the "right to labor," which has been proposed to be inserted in the new constitution. In June following, De Tocqueville spoke to the legislative assembly, as minister of foreign affairs, amidst passionate interruptions from the left. The policy he defended was certainly no less tame and timid than that which he assailed in the times of Guizot. It would be hard to say whether it was more justified by circumstances. At all events, it did not lead to the end aimed at—the preservation of liberty. De Tocqueville's worst forebodings had not been exaggerated. The master came.

ELOCUTION IN THE SCHOOLS.*

THE book whose title is given below is one of a large class. There are "speakers" innumerable, or "speech-books," as the school-boys more accurately call them, all containing selections in prose and verse, and almost all a preliminary essay on elocution, with rules and pictorial illustrations of gesture.

Of this book about sixty pages are devoted to the preliminary essay on elocution. It appears from some "Suggestions to Teachers," which come first, that the book is not intended to be used "without a master." That is well. We know of "Latin without a master," French, Greek, English, German, fencing, painting—all those are possible studies; but elocution? No; so far as elocution is a thing to be studied, it is less a matter of rule than of feeling, less a science than an art. There are rules that can be given, principles that should be understood, maxims worth knowing, but the manual that would contain all these in their best form would still be but an insufficient guide to the whole art of oratory. We are happy to agree with our author in this; but if this book is to be used by a class under the guidance of a teacher, there is much in it that might with advantage be omitted. Such advice as this, for instance, could hardly be given to a class like a rule in arithmetic, to learn by heart, and is surely unnecessary as a hint to the teacher:

"Advance, retire, or change, with ease, except when the action demands energy or marked decision. Adopt such positions only as consist of (*sic*) manly and simple grace, and change as the sentiment or subject changes, or as you direct attention (*sic*) to different parts of the audience."

And with the greatest advantage might be omitted all the pictures of boys making different gestures. If these are intended for boys to imitate, say before the looking-glass, they can only do mischief; if for any other purpose, they are simply of no value or interest. They are wretchedly drawn, so badly that but few of them give any clear idea of the gestures which it is intended to represent, and, so far as we can get at the gestures intended, they are falsely conceived and without meaning or propriety. One or two of the simplest might, on some occasions, be used as directed; but there is no distinction pointed out between one and another, nor is it possible to show that many of them might not be used in the directly contrary sense from that intended. What does it amount to—a drawing of a boy with his feet apart, his right arm stretched out, with hand open, and his left arm behind him and straight, entitled "Animated Gesture, No. 1?" Or this of a boy with right arm half raised in a knock-that-chip-off-my-shoulder attitude, called "Defensive?" Is it expected that a boy will learn from these how he ought to gesticulate when animated or on the defensive? It is really unnecessary to discuss them; there is no meaning to be found in them, no system unites them, no principles are explained or enforced by them; they are merely a disfigurement of the book. It is not as if it were impossible to analyze gesture, which has, indeed, been well analyzed and reduced to a perfectly intelligible and simple system, the knowledge of which will save anybody who knows it a world of trouble when he wants to study oratory in earnest. But in this pictorial review of gesture we find no hint even at the primary and essential doctrine that gesture ought not to be descriptive; on the other hand, the tendency of this would be to lead boys to act and impersonate what they ought only to indicate.

The proposed drill on the elements of sound is good, well calculated to give a better utterance and a voice more under control to those who pursue it.

The division of quality of voice into pure, orotund, guttural, aspirate, and tremor is not without usefulness, and is referred to in the notes to the selections in prose and verse. But the notes themselves are generally very weak, because vague, because teaching nothing. "High, aspirate, long pauses—*imagine the scene and adopt such expression and gesture as will portray it to the listener.*" Exactly so; why not print the clause we have italicized at the head of every page and leave out the useless notes? It would be well, for instance, to save the book from the ridicule it will get from smart boys when they read this note on page 123:

"*a* slow; voice slightly tremor; with as much variety as would be given by an old man in the circumstances. *b* change the voice; endeavor to give the full but subdued voice of a faithful slave. *c* raise both hands."

There is more of it on the next page, but that will suffice. It would be easy enough to find ridiculous things scattered through this book, but we have no such wish. We know the difficulty of writing a good and practically useful manual of oratory; but it is possible to do it, and at all events nothing should be done in that direction unless it can be much better done than this.

The selections are not always wise. It is well to take modern pieces, and pieces the student will enjoy; but the compiler of such a book should remember that it is not a book of elegant extracts he is making, but a collection of pieces for students to learn oratory with, a collection of "good pieces to speak." A worse piece to speak, or one that boys will blunder over more hopelessly, than selection XIII., "The Drummer's Bride," we do not remember to have seen. The notes at the foot of the page will help the poor boy to go as crazy as the lunatic in the poem, if he tries to attend to the "music of the sub-vocal M," and "shriek this impersonation," and do all the other things he is told to. This bad imitation of Poe is not the worst poem in the book, either, at least for a boy's speech; "The German's Bell" and "The Frenchman and the Flea Powder" certainly are worse, and "On the Shores of the Tennessee" wholly inappropriate and not to be properly spoken by any boy alive.

Sheridan Knowles took the pains to write a debate for his pupils to deliver, three or four on each side of the question, Was Cæsar's crossing of the Rubicon justifiable? Many collections of poetry have been made within a few years. It is reserved for some teacher of elocution to compile a good speech-book, a thing the schools need sadly.

A BIRD THAT MIGHT SING, BUT WON'T.*

WHEN it is known that the "course and consequences of the late civil war" are discussed in two out of the eighteen chapters, and in about a hundred out of the four hundred and forty pages of Mr. Foote's book, it will hardly be consulted with high expectations by those who would gladly penetrate the secrets of rebellion. The author has wasted a great deal of paper in an effort to disprove the irrepressible conflict announced by Mr. Seward, being quite as confident as Mr. Buchanan that continued compromising would have staved off the crisis. He asks Northern readers to throw away their time over this precious argument, around which he spins his wordy web of personal opinions and reminiscences, eking out his own material with liberal quotations from the political speeches of Webster, Calhoun, etc. Once, according to his own account, a most devoted Union-saver, afterwards simply "an insurgent who has voluntarily come within the military lines," he now assumes the *rôle* of the magnanimous patriot, who, having been a sport of fortune, desires to be charitable to all his former enemies, and conceal his complacent egotism by frequent and unlimited laudation of others. We shall not track him in his historical meanderings from colonial times to the present day. In 1846, he says, there was no probability that abolition could be effected by all the agitation of the period. Up to that time the irrepressible conflict was a myth. In 1848, if we understand him, the seeds of the discord just terminated were sown, quite accidentally, at the Democratic Convention in Baltimore, by William L. Yancey, on the one hand, and the Barnburners, on the other. Fillmore bridged the impending breach with the compromises of 1850, and if he had continued in office; if Mr. Pierce and Mr. Buchanan had never been elevated to the Presidency; if Clay and Webster and Calhoun had lived; what has been might not have been. It is amusing to listen to Foote's reiteration that Pierce was elected on a "finality" platform! There was no excuse for the thing not staying put And yet nothing can be settled that is not right.

In all these preliminary chapters there is a plentiful lack of information and an abundance of that which is stale and out of date. When we have reached, as we think, the inside view which is so provokingly postponed, Mr. Foote responds, with the needy knife-grinder,

"Story, God bless you! I have none to tell you."

But he warns us pregnantly that "the time is coming when it will be safe

* "Lessons in Elocution; with Numerous Selections, Analyzed for Practice. By Allen A. Griffith, Professor of Elocution and Principal of Batavia Institute." Second Edition. Adams, Blackmer & Lyon, Chicago; Barnes & Burr, New York.

* "War of the Rebellion; or, Scylla and Charybdis. Consisting of Observations upon the Causes, Course, and Consequences of the Late Civil War in the United States. By H. S. Foote." Harper & Bros., New York. 1866.

to disperse much of the mystery which now veils the past. When that time shall have arrived, the curtain which conceals certain transactions of enduring interest will be doubtless uplifted by the hand of some man who will dare to speak *the truth, and the whole truth, both as to men and their acts.*" At present he modestly declines informing us how he came to join the secession movement, the aim of whose leaders, by the way, he states to have been to "participate prominently in dominating over the widespread affairs of both the eastern and western hemispheres." For the rest, we are told that the scheme of disunion was long before secretly prepared, but not how long; that the State-rights doctrine was an utter failure when sought to be carried out in the Confederacy; that Davis was a stubborn, supercilious despot, under whom no liberty existed from the Potomac to the Rio Grande; that Benjamin's integrity was not without blemish; that Mallory, Memminger, and Northrop were utterly incompetent to hold the offices they did; that Seddon was tyrannical towards the people, fawning towards his master, and guilty of the most corrupt and soulless practices for his own aggrandizement; that ten-minute rules and secret sessions were Davis's instruments in managing the Confederate Congress; that the most despotic measures were introduced by the ultra State-rights advocates;—which we do not learn for the first time. Mr. Foote agrees with General Jordan, that Davis's retention of unworthy subordinates and generals, and his direct interference in military operations, were the causes of disaster and ultimate defeat. We suspect that the ex-senator also believes that, had he had his own way, and ousted Davis from the Presidency, he might have saved the Confederacy as he had often saved the Union.

We congratulate Mr. Foote on having advanced somewhat since his peacemaking proposition to Mr. Seward that slavery should definitely cease by January 1, 1900, and that all negroes born after 1890 should be free-born. There is not only sense but earnestness in his exhortations to the South to "preserve the newly enfranchised race from all possibility of being hereafter resubjugated," and, for the future concord and safety of the whole population, to do away effectually with "all serious inequalities in civic rights." He is inclined, it is true, to side with the President in asserting the right of the several States to regulate suffrage for themselves; but he denounces, in unsparing terms, that mock freedom which is bestowed without admission to the courts and the witness-box. For so much of assistance in reforming the temper of the South, we can afford to endure the windy disquisition to which it is appended. In every other respect—as a biography or an historical exposé—the work is valueless.

MR. TUCKERMAN'S CRITERION.*

This volume contains twelve essays on a variety of pleasant topics, ranging from inns to sepulchres, from actors to doctors, from newspapers to bridges. They are slight in construction, and they are intended rather to amuse and entertain the reader than to instruct him with philosophy or reflection. They give to him the accumulations of wide reading and of various experience, and are full of literary illustration and anecdote. They show, like the other volumes on which Mr. Tuckerman's reputation as an author has been founded, his fondness for discursive treatment of the subjects upon which he writes, and they display alike a receptive and impressible mind and a kindly disposition. The want of force or originality of thought is supplied by a cordial appreciation of excellence in others, and by a general good sense and good feeling, The book is one which may give pleasure to many readers.

We are tempted to find fault with a tendency on Mr. Tuckerman's part to accept commonplaces as truths, and to substitute a plausible statement for an exact or profound opinion. There is, too, a somewhat loose mode of arranging his materials, so that the effect of many of his pages is that of the ragged patchwork of a compilation rather than the beautiful and orderly mosaic of a genuine literary composition.

Occasionally Mr. Tuckerman falls into errors which, in a writer of so much culture, are a little surprising. For instance, in his first essay, on page 6, in discourse about taverns, he says that "Clement's Inn was the scene of that memorable dialogue between *Shallow* and *Sir John*." Now Clement's Inn was no tavern, but one of the inns of court; nor was it the scene of "that memorable dialogue." On the contrary, the dialogue to which Mr. Tuckerman undoubtedly refers was the one between *Justice Shallow* and *Silence* which took place in the court before the justice's house in Gloucestershire, when *Shallow*, speaking of *Cousin William*, says, "He must then to the inns of court shortly: I was once of Clement's Inn, where, I think, they will talk of mad *Shallow* yet.' *Sir John* afterwards comes in, and *Shallow* again refers to the time "when I lay at Clement's Inn."

So, too, on the next page, Mr. Tuckerman says, with amusing inconsecutiveness, "The author of 'Peter Wilkins' resided for a time at Clifford's Inn, and Dr. Johnson frequented all the taverns in Fleet Street." But Clifford's Inn, we repeat, had no more resemblance to a tavern than the Hôtel de Rambouillet has to the Hôtel du Louvre.

Other slips of this sort occur now and then, but we have no disposition to pick flaws in a book which leaves one with so kindly a feeling toward its author as this.

* "The Criterion; or, The Test of Talk about Familiar Things. A Series of Essays. By Henry T. Tuckerman." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866. 16mo, pp 377.

THE MAGAZINES FOR MARCH.

The "Atlantic Monthly" starts with the third instalment of passages from Hawthorne's note-books, containing some charming "studies" made in an excursion in Maine in 1837. Some of the sketches are admirable, and the very commonplaceness of the subjects, the frequency with which we all of us light on just such scenes and people every time we leave home, gives one an increased sense of the advantage which a genius has in his rambles over the rest of the world.—"An Old Man's Idyl" is an excellent specimen of that kind of verse which every editor receives nowadays in great quantities, and which the conductor of a popular magazine since defunct (the magazine, we mean) once told us he bought by the pound, and kept a stock of on hand. It is not positively bad; there are several pretty things in it, a vein of very pleasing sentiment running all through it, and a good jingle in it, such as Hungarian spurs make in a waltz; but, then, it is hardly poetry, and it certainly is not prose. There are, we venture to say, ten thousand young women north of Mason and Dixon's line who can write verses in which men walk with their darlings by the rivers of life, with the burthens of being weighing lighter on them than a linnet's feather, and love's sweet miracles throwing mantles of joy over them which outlast time, and with sounds like marriage chimes growing up out of the rosy meadows, etc., etc.—A "Ramble through the Market" is a rather loose description of Quincy Market, in Boston, interspersed with some not very profound observations on cookery and digestion.—"The Freedman's Story" is concluded.—"Nantucket" describes very pleasantly a fortnight's visit to that remarkable island, which the writer describes as "the gem of the ocean without the Irish, which he considers an improvement"—a blasphemous speech which he would not have ventured on in New York. We commend him to the attention of Mr. B. Doran Killian, or whichever of the Fenian officials it is who is charged with the chastisement of Saxon impudence.—The "Snow Walkers" is a charming article, describing the habits of the various little animals which leave their tracks on the winter snows in wood and meadow. The fox, the partridge, the dormouse, the squirrel—all have their winter life described with a graceful touch. Even the skunk is made to look attractive, and we learn that his secretion has some repute as an eye-water.—We have in the "Amazonian Picnic" a rather realistic sketch of an excursion made by some members of Mr. Agassiz's party on the Amazon.—"Dr. Johns" has reached the forty-ninth chapter.—"Communication with the Pacific" preaches a new route to the Pacific, through Montana from St. Paul, through the Big Hole Pass, and down the Columbia River to Puget's Sound.—Mrs. Stowe replies, in one of the best of her "Chimney Corner" papers, to the criticisms of a writer in the *Evening Post*, who maintained that it was the proper business of women who could afford it to look well and cultivate the graces. She maintains that married women in America would retain their good looks longer if they did more housework before they were married, which is true. But then housework is, for some reason or other, so exceedingly disagreeable to all women, even when the house is their own, that we see no great chance of a general resort to it by those who can by any possibility avoid it. Sweeping a room or cooking a dinner is probably as repulsive a form of exercise as could be found, valuable as the results might be. These are undoubtedly things that every woman ought to know how to do, but then nothing will induce women to do them habitually except sheer necessity. For any particular kind of exercise to be generally adopted, and to produce any marked effect on the health of a large class, it has to be in itself agreeable. We could never get men to strengthen their muscles by raising the dust in a dirty parlor, or perspiring over meats and confectionery in a hot kitchen, or even chopping wood, and, in our opinion, it is vain to expect women to submit to this ordeal when their circumstances enable them to avoid it.—"Poor Chloe," said to be a true tale of slave-life in old Massachusetts, and the ninth chapter of "Griffith Gaunt," make up the number.

"Harper's Monthly" opens with an illustrated article entitled "In and Around Richmond," *temp.* McClellan's and Grant's campaigns against the

rebel capital. Of course it is from a Southern hand, but is none the less pleasant to read for what it has to tell us—little, it is true, beyond a few picturesque reminiscences. All will subscribe to the meaning of the somewhat intricate sentence, "Had the South evinced, as developed, the same aptitude for manufacturing industry before as during the war, it would probably never have occurred." The tail-piece, "Ruins at Richmond," in which a Federal sentinel and three little colored boys are the principal objects, we incline to regard as mildly satirical. It is significant that, odious as the Harpers have become throughout the South by their loyalty to freedom, it is to them that such men as General Jordan, Senator Foote, and the writer of the present article, come for a hearing.—"The Burrowers at Home," a lesson in natural history, profusely illustrated, is preceded by Jean Ingelow's "Sand-martins," which, not alone because it is borrowed fruit, is by far the most delicious poetry of the number. "Summer Longings" is mediocre, and "The Cumberland" will "roll" neither on nor under the tongue. In "Battle Memories" there are some good verses under the title of *Port Hudson;* but *Before the War* and *Gettysburg* are laudable prose measured off into unjustifiable stanzas.—"The Second Life of Washington" has a ministerial flavor about it, and is rather fantastical in working out the notion of the *post-mortem* influence of the Father of his Country. In view of the malign effects of the site of our capital on the legislation of the past half century, and of the proposition now pending in Congress to remove it to some point nearer the centre of the continent, it is hazardous to exclaim: "What a power that metropolis has been to the nation! and what foresight he who gave it its name showed in his choice of the seat of Government!"—"What Hope Bell found in her Stocking" was an engagement ring.—A chapter from Harper's "Pictorial History of the Great Rebellion" gives a succinct account of the seven days' battles on the Peninsula, with abundant foot-notes referring to or quoting both Confederate and Federal authorities. The admirers of General McClellan, who are now equally the admirers of General Lee, will be pleased to learn, from their parallel reports, how lightly the latter esteemed the ability and truthfulness of the former. The conclusion is impartial enough, and approximately correct: "Never in all history was better fighting, and never worse generalship, on both sides."

"Beadle's Monthly" is, in more senses than one, "a journal of to-day," as it styles itself, having reached only its third issue. It follows as closely as it can in the wake of "Harper," though as yet *non passibus æquis.* The March number has illustrated articles on "The North-west Passage by Land," taken from an English work, on the barometer, and on finger-rings. We infer that the poetry is native—even, we apprehend, to the grammar of the line,

"When who *could* I love but Tom Blake?"

to which the answer, "Lindley Murray," might seem impertinent—and the rather entertaining description of the oil regions. The rest is hardly worth the determining whether it be "original" or "selected."

In concluding its second volume, the "Catholic World" announces that the next and all succeeding numbers will be open to original contributions. In the March issue we find, indeed, but a single article—"The Birthplace of St. Patrick"—which is not manifestly a selection, and even this may be. There are two translations from the French: "Positivism," a review of the doctrines of Comte, Littré, and Taine; and "The Last Attempt of Charles II. to Emancipate the Catholics of England." "California and the Church," from the "Dublin Review," is partly based on Mr. Hittel's "Resources of California," noticed in No. 27 of The Nation. A very amusing contrast is presented between the Spanish and what the "Review" is pleased to call the Yankee baptisms of localities and settlements. In this way *Santa Cruz* and *Yankee Doodle, San Pedro* and *Hell's Delight, San Paolo* and *Git Up and Git, Buena Vista* and *Bob Ridley Flat,* are brought in juxtaposition. The superficial inference, however, must not be insisted on too strongly. Pithole will figure more respectably in history than Holyrood Palace; and besides, the sonorous Spanish does not always embalm, even in California, the most spiritual notions. *Monte Diablo,* that famous landmark to the voyager to *El Dorado,* is not far from synonymous with *Hell's Delight.*

The best of the stories in "Our Young Folks" seems to us Miss Mary N. Prescott's "A Pair of Shoes." "The Nutcrackers of Nutcracker Lodge," by Mrs. Stowe, is in her happiest vein, but the children will not comprehend it so well as their mothers and fathers. The moral of this burlesque on "Young America" is much more effective than that of "The Disobedient Crow." The illustrations are in the main well executed, but, for the life of us, we can't make right the perspective in the cut on page 161.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Literature in Letters. Manners, Art, Criticism, Biography, History, and Morals, illustrated in the Correspondence of Eminent Persons. By James P. Holcombe, LL.D. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

The Origin and Antiquity of Physical Man Scientifically Considered. By Hudson Tuttle. William White & Co., Boston.

The Theologies. By Gerrit Smith. Rev. C. A. Hammond, Peterboro', N. Y.

Life of Robert Owen. Ashmead & Evans, Philadelphia.

The Brigand; or, The Demon of the North. By Victor Hugo. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

Fine Arts.

PHOTOGRAPHY AS A HANDMAID OF PAINTING.

Photography has been used to multiply representations of works of fine art almost as much as to portray human countenances. Statuary and other works of sculpture have been continually reproduced in this manner. Statues and groups were favorite subjects for the very first stereoscopic slides. These were indeed for a long time almost the only alternative with the geometric figures in perspective of white lines on black ground, which accompanied the early instruments; and even now, when a stereopticon is exhibited in a darkened hall, it is some statue or group which causes the greatest delight among the audience. Sun-pictures of statuary are, in fact, a very important means of studying fine art, and a very pleasant way to be brought into contact with fine art, and, for all those many people who have not sculpture within easy reach, a very much needed assistance. But photographic renderings of pictures are much less happy and, therefore, of much less value. Every one who buys or looks at such things will have noticed how few of the many little photographic representations of noted pictures are taken at first hand from the pictures themselves, how large a majority are from engravings. For ten years past every traveller in Europe has loaded himself with such little hints at the motives and meanings of great pictures in Venice and Florence—all taken from engravings. The business itself has become of great commercial importance, and the copies have a certain inferior artistic value because they are generally or often taken from proof impressions of the engravings to be copied. Few persons will buy an "artist's proof" for a hundred dollars when they can get a tolerable print for fifteen; but many will prefer a photograph from the proof to the fifteen-dollar print, and this preference is certainly confirmed rather than weakened by the still lower price of the photograph; so that photography from pictures, through the medium of engravings, is an important minor application of fine art. Why has it become so? Because works of color do not photograph well; because a painting in full color passes through the camera and comes out of it a ghost, or rather a caricature of itself.

The photograph will not take color, and scientific experimenters are trying to make it do so. But it also misrepresents colors, assigning to them amounts of light and shade to which they have no claim, turning dark into light and light into dark, to the destruction of intended harmonies. Every picture of any merit has a system of light and shade as well as of color, and its system of light and shade is put out of balance and order by the false report of the camera. Light yellow, for instance, takes darker than a blue many shades darker. The flunkey in *Punch,* who shows the carte-de-visite of himself to the housemaid, has experienced the trouble, and answers her admiring exclamation, "Law, Thomas! it 's the wery moral of yer," with "Yes, it 's a pretty thing; pity the yellow of the uniform comes out so black!" Goupil & Co. publish as No. 381 of their "Galerie Photographique" a fine photograph of that picture by Florent Willems, "Au Roi!" of which we spoke three or four numbers back. In the photograph, the young man who is said to be a portrait of the artist, the belated *convive,* whose glass is being filled, appears dressed in a much darker color than, for instance, does his *vis-à-vis,* the guest with his back to the window. But the picture shows this latter to be in blue, certainly not lighter than the brilliant red of the other's doublet. The wine-cooler in the lower right-hand corner of the picture is gilded in the painting; in the photograph it seems to be japanned black. The red frame-work of the chairs comes out nearly as dark as the black velvet of the tall gentleman with his back to us. And yet this is a very fine photograph. There are very few which are better in any respect. It is more valuable as a rendering of the picture than any engraving would be unless made with unusual care and skill. But it is evident from this why, when an engraving exists, it is the natural resource to make copies of it rather than to take copies, accurate in drawing but utterly wrong in light and shade, from the painting itself.

As the high number, 381, of this photograph shows, these from pictures are popular also. One photograper in Paris, Bingham, has done much to bring to relative perfection this difficult process of photographing works of color. The pictures he has produced are wonders of delicacy and approximate truthfulness. Similar work has also been well done by other operators in France and in England. It has also been attempted in America, and sometimes with fair success, but the attempt has not been persisted in and followed up. Messrs. Gellatly & Lecky, of 86 Nassau Street, this city, now announce that they intend to "devote their entire attention to copying works of art by photography," and hint that books may receive needed illustration by their means. It is to be desired that they shall succeed pecuniarily in their enterprise so far as to feel encouraged to prosecute it, and to aim at and attain higher excellence. Our painters have evinced a general desire to have photographic copies taken of their works, and Messrs. Gellatly & Lecky are sure of custom. We hope they will do so well as to keep all their customers and establish their artistic business on a permanent basis of good work done and reasonable profits made. At present the six pictures of theirs which are before us are not better than Philadelphia photographs we have seen of pictures by Mr. Lambdin and Mr. W. T. Richards; or Boston photographs of pictures by Mr. W. Hunt; or New York photographs of pictures by many artists. Small parts are thoroughly well rendered, as in photographs from pretty little pictures by Mr. J. G. Brown; but these same pictures are badly taken in other parts, and it is easy to guess what the colors were which have "come out" exceptionally well. The photographers should pick out for their specimens copies of pictures in which color is subdued and drawing dominant.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

THE essential condition of a thoroughly successful treatment of an average ore of a precious metal, whether by fire or by chemical solvents, is the complete reduction of the ore to an impalpable powder. Gold, for example, is often diffused in microscopic particles through the hard quartz or pyrite, in which it habitually occurs, and in a ton of the quartz or pyrites only a few ounces of metallic gold may be contained. It is perfectly obvious that we can never be sure of getting all the gold out of the enveloping quartz or pyrites unless the whole mass of ore be completely reduced to an impalpable powder as fine as the minutest particles of gold which it contains. The machinery now chiefly relied on for the reduction of ore to a powder consists of heavy stamps, which are raised by steam or water-power and allowed to fall upon the ore to be crushed. The action of stamps may be compared to that of a pestle and mortar. They produce a large proportion of fine sand and a little real dust; but the principal product of the best stamps is never an impalpable powder of microscopic fineness, but a sand very many of whose particles will not pass through a sieve of fifty threads to the linear-inch. Just here is an obstacle to the perfect working of the ores of the precious metals which has never yet been practically overcome, although al most every week for years some new process has been brought before those interested, theoretically so admirable that the utmost confidence in its success has been felt, and large amounts of money have been freely expended to put it to the test of practical operation. The back-yards of hundreds of houses in San Francisco are encumbered with the wrecks of machines, on each of which men have embarked their fortunes. Yet the fact that the present processes often fail to yield even one-half of the amount of metal which the accurate methods of chemical analysis reveal in the quartz, while thousands of mining enterprises are abandoned every year after their owners have been beggared which would be most valuable properties if but a small degree of this loss could be overcome, constantly stimulates energetic enterprise as well as feverish speculation in the trial of new appliances, and the renewed trial of old methods under new circumstances. Until the frightful waste which attends the present processes of extracting the precious metals is overcome, they can be mined with profit only where a deposit is found which is not only comparatively rich, but the richness of which can be depended upon to extend far into the darkness of the earth—a case which does not occur one time in ten thousand where specimens of high promise are found at the outcrop. As long as mining is pursued with this uncertainty it must have, in most cases, more the character of gambling than of a regular business capable of yielding sure returns to industry and intelligence, and must be a curse to those who engage in it and to the communities whose prosperity is dependent in any great degree upon them.

It is thus obvious that the subject is one of vast importance to our country and though little confidence can reasonably be felt that any invention will prove of great value for general application until it has been for some time in actual use under the management of persons who have no interest in it, except that which is common to all owners of gold mines, the progress of experiments should have studious attention.

Machinery, patented by Messrs. J. D. Whelpley and J. J. Storey, has been in operation during the last year in Boston, which seems to justify more than usual consideration. Two separate machines combine their different operations for the reduction of ore, previously broken into pieces of not more than three or four inches in diameter, to a fine flour or dust, which is at least a million times finer than average stamped ore. These two machines are, the "crusher," which converts the ore into a gravel mixed with sand, and the "pulverizer," which reduces the sand and gravel to the condition of a floating dust. The crusher may be described as follows: A circular iron table, three feet and a half in diameter, and weighing eight hundred pounds, revolves on an upright shaft at the rate of one thousand and twenty-five turns a minute. This whirling table forms the bottom of a cast-iron tub, eighteen inches deep, whose thick sides are perforated with numerous holes about half an inch in diameter. Upon the upper surface of the whirling table, and near its circumference, are bolted six, or sometimes eight, blocks, made, like the lower sections of the perforated tub, of the hardest possible iron—Franklinite iron. When the velocity of the whirling table is between one thousand and one thousand and fifty revolutions a minute, the extreme ends of these cutting blocks move with a velocity of about two miles a minute. When there is no stone in the tub the table revolves freely with but little friction, and acts as a fly-wheel to regulate the other machinery, but the instant that material to be crushed is thrown into the tub, the consumption of steam-power begins, the lumps of stone are splintered into small fragments by concussion with each other and with the edges of the cutting blocks, and the gravel so produced is swept out through the holes in the grated sides of the tub.

The quantity of steam-power necessary to drive the table is said to be approximately one and a half horse-power per hour for each ton of quartz crushed, five tons of quartz per hour requiring seven and a half horse-power, ten tons fifteen horse-power, and so on. It is recommended not to feed more material to the crusher than will exhaust ten to fifteen horse-power. So vague and uncertain, however, are all existing rules for the measurement of steam-power that too much weight should not be attached to these estimates of the power consumed. Of course, if a softer material than quartz be supplied to the crusher, less power will be consumed, or more material can be crushed in an hour.

It is evident that a machine thus constructed and driven at such an enormous velocity is abundantly capable of reducing even the hardest ores to a fine gravel at a very rapid rate; but the doubt naturally suggests itself, will not the machine be itself destroyed in the operation? This is a point upon which only extended practical experience in the use of the table can be decisive. It appears at present that the wear of the machine is confined to the exposed faces and edges of the splintering blocks and to the lower portion of the perforated sides of the tub. These wearing parts are so made as to be readily replaceable in sections. In general, the higher the velocity of the whirling table, the less it wears in proportion to the amount of work done It is asserted that one set of cutting blocks will reduce one hundred and fifty to two hundred tons of ordinary quartz, and a much larger quantity of marble, sandstone, pyrites, or ordinary silver ores. The crusher yields incidentally a small proportion of fine dust, but it wil not work economically as a pulverizer. The reduction of the gravel delivered by the whirling table to the condition of fine dust is accomplished by a distinct machine, the pulverizer. This pulverizer consists of four distinct parts or elements: a feeding mill, which furnishes a constant supply of the gravel to be reduced; an iron drum or cylinder containing an air-wheel of peculiar construction; a fan-blower which draws air, and with it the dust formed, out of the cylinder just mentioned; and, lastly, dust chambers in which the product is collected. Beyond the dust chambers an auxiliary fan-blower draws air out of these chambers, and so relieves the pressure upon them and prevents leakage This fan-blower is furnished with a set of arms or dashers, which dip into water and create a spray which wets down any dust fine enough to escape deposition in the dust chambers. The essential and peculiar part of this combination of machinery is the second element, the cylindrical drum with its air-wheel. The cylinder is eighteen inches in breadth and forty-two in internal diameter. Within the drum, on the shaft or axis, are three sets of strong iron arms, eight arms in a set, which carry at their extremities "paddles" six inches long by three and a half in breadth, made of the hardest possible iron cast upon a wrought-iron skeleton of wire. The diameter of

the "paddle-wheel" is forty inches, so that a space of one inch remains between the outer edge of each paddle and the cylinder. This wheel, with its twenty-four paddles, is driven at the rate of one thousand and twenty-five revolutions a minute, so that the extreme edge of each paddle has a velocity of more than two miles a minute. A strong current of air is drawn through this pulverizing cylinder by the action of the fan-blower, and no air can enter or leave the cylinder except by the aid of this blower. The dust escapes from the mill through an opening at the centre, about the shaft; but no dust leaves the drum except as it is drawn out on the current of air induced by the fan-blower.

The question is: What is the action which goes on within the mill, converting gravel into an impalpable flour? The paddle-wheel is not sufficiently strong, and the steam-power consumed, per ton of dust, is not sufficiently great, for any process of hammering, crushing, or grinding. The most plausible answer to the question is, that the paddles act like fans, producing whirls or vortices of air which put the particles of gravel into very rapid motion, and that it is the mutual clashing and friction of the particles which produces the dust. The wake of each paddle is a dust-mill. The dust atoms are found under the microscope to be rounded; the gold in the dust is found rolled into little pellets, the best form for the amalgamator; nails or other bits of metal which fall by accident into the mill, come out rounded as if they had been rolled on a beach. The quality and quantity of the yield of the mill are determined by the velocity of the paddles, and by the velocity and volume of the current of air which passes through the cylinder. A low velocity of the paddles causes the yield to be coarse and abundant; at a high velocity, with too small a current of air, the mill becomes heated, and the yield is small but exceedingly fine; a freer current of air will give a larger but coarser product. The art of using the machine consists in a judicious regulation of the quantity and velocity of the current of air which is drawn through the drum. The management of both crusher and pulverizer, particularly of the latter, obviously requires an engineer of unusual intelligence and capacity. The velocities used are very high, belts may break or shafts spring, the breakers in the crusher and the paddles in the pulverizer require timely renewal, and the proper regulation of the air-current in the pulverizer requires acute observation and constant watchfulness. The wear of the inside of the case, or external cylinder, of the pulverizer is not very rapid, and as the interior is lined with boiler-plate iron, which can be cheaply and easily renewed, the only wear which occasions much inconvenience and expense is that of the paddles. The cost of this wear of the paddles is said to be about twenty cents for each ton of quartz pulverized. It is asserted that a pulverizer in perfect operation will reduce hard quartz from the size of gravel to fine dust at the rate of thirty-one hundred pounds an hour, and that of this quantity one-third will be as fine as bolted wheat flour, another third will all pass through a sieve of ten thousand meshes to the square inch, and the remaining one-third will all be greatly finer than the best product of stamps. The whirling table will break the same quartz into gravel at the rate of eighteen tons per hour. One crusher will ordinarily feed ten or a dozen pulverizers. It is confidently stated that a single pulverizer, applied to the reduction of gold ores, delivers, with a small consumption of steam or water-power, as much powder as twenty ordinary stamps, and that the quality of the whole product will be beyond comparison finer than the best stamp work. For the better part of two years both the crusher and pulverizer have been in actual operation at Boston, and have been tested upon a large variety of substances. Quartz, granite, feldspar, bones, copper ores, barytes, ochre, manganese, corn, and sundry paints and drugs, have all been successfully reduced in these omnivorous mills. Considering the quantity and quality of the work done by them, they compare favorably with other machines, now used for like purposes, both in respect to first cost and to expense of running. They are also comparatively light for transportation. Not to dwell upon the application to the service of the druggist, agriculturist, or manufacturer, these inventions seem to promise some real advance towards a better dealing with the most difficult problems of metallurgy.

—The brilliant white light produced by burning the metal magnesium has lately attracted much attention. Magnesium is the metal contained in ordinary magnesia and Epsom salts, in soapstone and meerschaum, and might be a very common metal if uses were found for it. Within two or three years it has been produced in England in considerable quantities, and its price has rapidly fallen as the production increased, till it now costs in London only ten shillings an ounce. This weight corresponds to a considerable bulk because of the low specific gravity of the metal, which is seven times lighter than lead. In the metallic state it looks much like zinc, a metal to which it bears a close chemical as well as physical resemblance. Zinc may be readily burned in a coal fire, and in the burning it also produces a white light, due, like the magnesium light, to the incandescent particles of the solid oxide. A small ribbon of magnesium may be lit by the heat of an alcohol or gas lamp, and it will burn steadily so long as it is properly protected from currents of air, provided there be no flaws in the ribbon. A slight puff of wind may blow out the flame. The magnesium light is remarkable for other qualities besides its brilliancy. The ultra-violet portion of its spectrum is more than six times as broad as the common spectrum produced by sunlight. Hence the phenomena of fluorescence are very finely exhibited with the magnesium light. Its chemical and photographic power is intense. Dry chloride of silver is colored dark blue by it in a few seconds. If a mixture of equal volumes of chlorine and hydrogen be exposed in a glass cylinder to the light of a burning magnesium wire, a mist of hydrochloric acid will at once appear; and if a second burning wire be brought to reinforce the first, the two gases will, after a few seconds, unite with explosion, precisely as they do when exposed to direct sunlight. Bodies which will emit light in the dark after five or ten minutes' exposure to the direct rays of the sun, as do the phosphides of calcium, strontium, and barium, and some varieties of the diamond, of fluorspar, and of alumina, attain their maximum of phosphorescence from as many seconds' exposure to the magnesium light.

A perfect lamp for burning magnesium is yet to be invented. The product of the combustion is a white, solid, bulky ash, which consists of nothing but pure magnesia. It is difficult to get rid of this ash, which forms very rapidly and greatly dims the brilliancy of the light. Progress has, however, been made toward this most desirable end, both by English experimenters and by the American Magnesium Company, of Boston. One of the most ingenious suggestions which has been made is to reduce the magnesium to powder, mix it with sand, and let the mixture run into a jet of gas, as sand runs from an hour-glass. The greater part of the magnesium now manufactured is consumed by the theaters, and for such purposes it is certainly much more convenient and manageable than either the Drummond or the electric light. For light-houses and for signal-lights at sea and upon railways, the magnesium light possesses great advantages over any light which has ever been used for such purposes, but the actual employment of the metal for ships and light-houses must depend upon the invention of a lamp which will insure the uninterrupted combustion of the metal, and the complete and immediate removal of the smoke and ash. For fire-works mixtures of zinc and magnesium may be used with excellent effect. By the magnesium light photographers may work at night or in dark weather, and the interiors of caves, catacombs, and mines may be reproduced with all the distinctness of a sun-picture. Professor Smyth has obtained by its use photographs of the interior of the great Pyramid, and of the granite coffer in the King's chamber of the Pyramid. Colors look by the magnesium light just as they look by sunlight, so that in those countries of Europe where sunshine is scarce the light may prove a convenience to dealers in delicately-colored fabrics of silk, cotton, or paper.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, February 24, 1866.

GENERAL business continues depressed by the uncertainties impending over the future. Cotton falls slowly, owing to the large demand for consumption both at home and abroad, and the skill with which the market is fed; but still it falls steadily week after week. Produce and breadstuffs decline more rapidly. At present prices very few kinds of Western breadstuffs will bear transportation from the place of growth to the seaboard. Pork has been maintained by speculators at an unnaturally high price, on the theory that the crop was below an average; but the receipts at Chicago within the past fortnight have been so large as to discredit this theory, and the price has fallen $3 to $4 a barrel. A further decline seems probable in view of the large supply at the West, and the increased activity in money.

the foreign merchandise markets a profound dulness is reported, with little variation in prices. Dealers throughout the country are declining to buy, in the expectation of lower rates for gold; holders who sell for gold, and who are therefore quite willing that gold should decline, are thus far not pressing sales. Dry goods are dull, and the leading styles are moving less rapidly than was anticipated. The importations of all styles continue large, and thus far a large proportion of the goods imported go into market directly; but the importers' stores are not cleared out as rapidly as was expected. A notion pervades the whole country that everything is going to be cheaper by-and-bye, and no one buys more than he can help.

Government has again been a liberal seller of gold—to the extent, it is said, of over eight millions this week—and the tables are turned on the gold speculators. Instead of being able to lend their gold at ¼ to 3-16 per day to the bears, the bulls are paying 6 and 7 per cent. per annum for currency to carry their gold. Matters are returning, in a word, to their normal condition. Exchange is up to 108¼ to 108½—say 1 per cent. below the point at which specie can be profitably shipped as a remittance. But at the advance the supply of bills is in excess of the demand. A few parcels of five-twenties and some Erie shares are arriving by each steamer from Liverpool. But these importations are too moderate in amount to affect the general course of trade. They do not suffice to offset the steady return from England of American money sent thither for safe keeping during the dark days of the war. It is understood that Government will continue for the next thirty days to sell all the gold received for duties, and possibly something more.

For the first time in many months we have to report an active money market, caused by the accumulation of over $105,000,000 in the Sub-Treasury at this point. So large a withdrawal of money from the banks has led them to curtail their loans to their customers, and the consequence has been an active enquiry for money at 7 per cent. In some instances, yesterday and to-day, a commission has been paid, over and above the usual interest, for the use of money. It need hardly be observed that it is in the power of the banks to make money easy whenever they please. They hold $25,000,000 of Clearing House certificates which they can pay into the Sub-Treasury without notice, as money; and they hold, besides, over $90,000,000 of deposit certificates, which they can call upon the Sub-Treasurer to redeem in money on ten days' notice. It is notorious in banking circles that the Sub-Treasurer would willingly waive this notice if requested so to do by any bank in needy circumstances. But it is not the interest of the banks that money should be too cheap. Their profits are greatest when money is active, and it is therefore not unreasonable to assume that they will take no steps to relieve the existing pressure until they themselves feel it more severely than they do at present.

The loan bill was at last taken up in Congress on the 21st inst., and gave rise to a debate in which Messrs. Morrill, Hooper, Stevens, and Kelley took part. Nothing definite was elicited by the discussion. Mr. Stevens, in common with most people out of Washington, though from different motives, objects to clothe the Secretary of the Treasury with arbitrary control of the money market; but as he insists in his bill that the Secretary shall not sell bonds below par, it would seem that he has not learnt much since he introduced a measure forbidding gold to rise to a premium. Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, on behalf of the national banks, took ground boldly against contraction. Messrs. Morrill and Hooper advocate contraction, though differing on matters of detail with each other and with the Secretary of the Treasury. On the 28th the debate will be resumed. From all appearances, at present, the chances are that a substantial step toward contraction will be taken by excluding interest-bearing legal tenders from the reserve which the banks are obliged to hold, and by practically stripping them of their legal-tender character. This, if carried into effect, would reduce the currency of the country to the plain legal tenders, national bank notes, old state bank notes, and fractional currency—say $750,000,000 in all. What further steps Congress may take it is yet too soon to predict. It is now clear that the national income this year will be nearer $550,000,000 than $500,000,000, which will leave a surplus of fully $150,000,000, and perhaps $200,000,000, applicable to the reduction of the debt. Should this money be devoted to paying off the call loans and the debt certificates, the Treasury Department would become independent of the banks, and would be in a position to fund currency whenever its credit and the state of the money market presented a favorable opportunity for so doing.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	Feb. 17.	Feb. 24.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅛	104	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds, old	103⅞	102¾	....	⅝
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103⅛	102¾	....	¾
10-40 Bonds	94⅛	94	....	⅛
7.30 Notes, second series	99⅜	99⅛	....	¼
New York Central	93	91¼	....	1¾
Erie Railway	81¾	80⅞	....	⅞
Hudson River	104	102	....	2
Reading Railroad	101¾	100	....	1¾
Michigan Southern	71⅛	68⅞	....	1⅛
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	81¼	77	....	4¼
Chicago and North-western	29⅛	27¼	....	1⅞
" " " Preferred	56⅛	54¼	....	2¼
Chicago and Rock Island	106	103⅜	....	2⅝
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	95¼	92⅛	....	2¾
Canton	44⅛	44¼	....	⅛
Cumberland	45¾	44⅜	....	1⅜
Mariposa	12⅛	11¾	....	1⅛
American Gold	137⅛	137	....	⅛
Bankers' Bills on London	108	108¾	⅜	....
Call Loans	6	7	1	....

The advance of last week has not been sustained. Partly owing to the increased activity in money, and partly in consequence of natural extrinsic causes, prices have almost uniformly declined. Ever since New Year, in fact, the condition of the market has been the same. Railway receipts have been falling off, and the public, already disinclined to buy for the rise in view of the steady shrinkage of prices in all markets outside of the stock exchange, have been thereby confirmed in their indisposition to operate. Cliques have been formed among inexperienced but wealthy speculators with a view to corner this or that stock, or to put up this or that security. Each of these cliques has had its swing. Where the object was to "corner shorts," as in Pittsburgh, the clique has had the mortification of seeing the shorts hasten to cover and avoid the stock to be cornered ever thereafter. Where the object was merely to put up the stock by buying a large quantity, as in Rhode Island, the public have looked on with a curious kind of interest, but have taken no part in the game. It is safe to say that not one of these cliques will come out whole. The clique in Erie, managed by the veteran director of the road, supplied with unlimited means, and engineered with consummate skill, has already sunk over half a million dollars, and will probably sink as much more before it is finally dissolved. Already dark rumors of impending failures—to grow out of this Erie clique and the Pittsburgh clique—are whispered in the Street, and are leading to a pretty general enquiry for certified checks. Meanwhile the increasing activity in money is compelling holders of stocks on margins to sell them out for cash, and is tempting investors to realize in order to employ their money more profitably elsewhere. New York Central has been freely sold by the clique which forced it up to 93, and nothing further has been heard about the governor's alleged willingness to sign the bill increasing the rate of fare. Erie fell at one time during the week to 79¾, but has since rallied. The leading director of the board has been a large seller of "puts" at 79; they expire next week. Heavy sales of Fort Wayne are reported, and some uneasiness has been created by the quarter from which the stock comes. A meeting of directors is to be held in this city next month, and it has been surmised that the decreasing earnings may give rise to a change of policy. It is hardly expected, however, that the usual quarterly dividends will be suspended. Of Clevelandand Pittsburgh sales of some 15,000 shares were made

this morning, and the price fell in consequence to 75½, rallying afterward to 77. There are no indications as yet that the "pool" has sold out, and speculators are wary of touching the stock. Rock Island has fallen back to 103, though the parties who were such heavy buyers at 105 to 106 have not been traced in the market as sellers. Government securities have shared the fate of all stocks during the stringency of the past few days. Small parcels of five-twenties are coming back from Europe by each steamer, and at present prices pay a small profit on the importation. This operation, however, cannot last long; the London market will soon be cleared of floating stock, and, if money continues active, our market will not be sustained. Among the miscellaneous shares we note an advance of 20 per cent. in ten days in Atlantic Mail, based on grounds not known to the general public.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital,	**$2,000,000 00**
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865,	**3,765,503 42**
Liabilities,	**77,901 52**

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND

INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CASH CAPITAL, - - - $1,400,000 00

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

is one of those well-established and prudently managed Life Insurance Companies which distinguish this nation for enlightened benevolence, practical wisdom; and disinterested philanthropy. It offers superior advantages to the life-ensuring public. It is based upon fundamental principles of soundness, and gives abundant security in large accumulated funds. Through the admirable economy of its management large dividends are secured to policy holders. It is prompt in payment of losses, and accommodates the assured in the settlement of their premiums in life policies by receiving a note for one-half when the premium amounts to over $30.

THIS COMPANY offers PECULIAR ADVANTAGES to persons intending to ensure their lives.

Since its organization it has paid (chiefly to Widows and Orphans) for losses by death,

$912,342 00,

and

$412,748 00

in Dividends—a total of over

ONE AND A QUARTER MILLION

of Dollars, and now has, in its Capital and Accumulations, securely invested for the Payment of Losses and Dividends, a fund of

$1,400,777 16.

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the policy holders.

COMPETENT AGENTS WANTED.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

Insurance Scrip.
WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,
BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE
AND
TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE C
243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,
EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,
Issues
LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,
And Ensures Against
ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for $3,000, with $15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, $25 for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.
A. S. MILLS, Secretary.
T. B. VAN BUREN, Treasurer.

S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.
J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

PACIFIC
MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,
TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - - - - $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to.....	$1,707,310	
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866.....	189,024	
Total profit for eleven years.....		$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.		1,107,240

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.

THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE
ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.
MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS - - - - - - - - -	$414,729 18	
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages - - - - - - - - - -		$134,672 00
Temporary Loans - - - - - - - - - - -		92,630 00
Real Estate - - - - - - - - - - - -		10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank - - - - - - - - - -		5,000 00
Government Sec., value - - - - - - - - - -		144,514 00
Cash on hand - - - - - - - - - - -		18,042 34
Interest due - - - - - - - - - - -		3,085 58
Premiums due - - - - - - - - - - -		6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES - - - - - - - - - - -		$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS - - - - - - - - - - - -		198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against
DISASTER BY FIRE
At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the
PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,
pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers; whereby
(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)
of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed
FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,
the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

ASHER TAYLOR, President.
H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.
ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.
B. SEAMAN, Cashier.
ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865,	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

Celebrated Gold Medal
GRAND,
SQUARE,
AND
UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,
AND
CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

GROVER & BAKER'S

SEWING MACHINES

WERE AWARDED THE HIGHEST PREMIUMS
At the State Fairs of

New York,	Illinois,	Virginia,
New Jersey,	Michigan,	N. Carolina,
Vermont,	Wisconsin,	Tennessee,
Pennsylvania,	Iowa,	Alabama,
Ohio,	Kentucky,	Oregon,
Indiana,	Missouri,	California,

And at numerous Institute and County Fairs, including all the Fairs at which they were exhibited the past three years.

The GROVER & BAKER ELASTIC-STITCH SEWING MACHINE is superior to all others, for the following reasons:

1. The seam is stronger and more elastic than any other.

2. It is more easily managed, and is capable of doing a greater variety and range of work than any other.

3. It is capable of doing all the varieties of sewing done by other machines, and, in addition, executes beautiful embroidery and ornamental work.

GROVER & BAKER S. M. CO.,
495 Broadway, New York.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.

THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,

STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars:

They are more fire-proof.

They are more burglar-proof.

They are perfectly dry.

They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.

Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.
721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

Pacific Mail Steamship Company's

THROUGH LINE

TO CALIFORNIA,

TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,

AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street, at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, *via* Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

	First Cabin,	Second Cabin,	Steerage,
On Steamers....	$325.	$225.	$100.

Panama Railroad ticket invariably $25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, *via* HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

F. W. G. BELLOWS, AGENT.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

AGENTS WANTED. 538 Broadway, N. Y.

UNIVERSAL CLOTHES WRINGER,

WITH COG-WHEELS.

The World's Fair in London, the Mechanics' Institute, and Eleven State Fairs have decided that the U. C. W. is THE BEST.

We also WARRANT IT THE BEST and most durable Wringer made. Over 200,000 have been sold, and each family can testify to its superior merits.

"It saves its cost in clothing every year."—ORANGE JUDD.

"One of the most useful articles in my house."—MRS. HENRY WARD BEECHER.

"I heartily commend it."—REV. DR. BELLOWS.

Call or send for illustrated circular, with testimonials, retail prices, and terms to salesmen.

Money can be made rapidly selling them in every town.

R. C. BROWNING, GENERAL AGENT,
347 Broadway, New York.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale by all Dealers.

MANTEL ORNAMENTS,

Bronze and Marble French Clocks, Fine Vases, Parian, Bisque, and Bronze Statuettes, Groups, etc., etc.

We are now offering a fine assortment of the above goods at a reduction of 25 per cent., to make room for new goods now being bought by Mr. Ovington, who is in Europe.

OVINGTON BROTHERS,

FULTON, near CLINTON STREET, BROOKLYN.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PYLE'S SALERATUS. | PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
PYLE'S CREAM TARTAR. | PYLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices $60, $75, $100, $125, $150, $175, $200, and $225. Factory and Warerooms, 81 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

"AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE,"

FOUNDED 1855,

IS A RELIABLE EDUCATIONAL BUREAU.

1. To AID ALL WHO SEEK WELL-QUALIFIED TEACHERS.
2. To REPRESENT TEACHERS WHO DESIRE POSITIONS.
3. To GIVE PARENTS INFORMATION OF GOOD SCHOOLS.
4. To SELL AND RENT SCHOOL PROPERTIES.

J. W. SCHERMERHORN, A.M., Actuary,
M. J. YOUNG, Secretary,
G. M. KENDELL, Treasurer,
130 GRAND STREET, NEW YORK.

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JOHN O. FERRILL, Secretary.

"THE RIGHT TEACHER IN THE RIGHT PLACE."

Information of teachers will be furnished which shall embrace the following particulars:

Opportunities for Education; Special Qualifications for Teaching; Experience, where and in what grade of Schools; References and copies of Testimonials; Age; Religious preferences; Salary expected, etc.

Unless otherwise advised, we nominate *several* candidates, and thus give opportunity for good selection.

Those who seek Teachers should state explicitly what they will require of the Teacher, what salary they will pay, when the Teacher must be ready, etc., etc. Too full particulars cannot be given.

☞ Principals, School Officers, and Heads of Families are requested to give early notice of what Teachers they want.

TERMS.

TWO DOLLARS, upon giving the order for the Teacher, which pays for the "AMERICAN EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY" one year (see advertisement of Monthly in another column).

When a suitable teacher is secured, $3 additional.

NO CHARGE TO PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Testimony for the American School Institute.

I *know* your "AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE" to be possessed of *the most reliable and extended facilities.*—[REV. C. V. SPEAR, Principal Young Ladies' Institute, Pittsfield, Mass.

The benefits of a "division of labor" are happily conceived and admirably realized in the "AMERICAN SCHOOL INSTITUTE."—[EDWARD G. TYLER, Ontario Female Seminary, N. Y.

I have tried and experienced its practical usefulness.—[WM. F. WYERS, Principal, Westchester, Pa.

Experience has taught me that I may safely rely upon it when I want teachers.—[REV. J. H. BRAKELEY, Bordentown Female College, New Jersey.

I commend it to the entire confidence of all.—[REV. D. C. VAN NORMAN, LL.D., New York.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE week has been one of comparative calm. The President has blown one little blast more against the Radicals, but the Radicals maintain a masterly silence. In the meantime the Democratic journals are in agony lest by some unhappy combination of circumstances the quarrel should pass over without further consequences. The Chicago *Times* proposes for Mr. Johnson's consideration the arrest of Sumner, Stevens, and Phillips, and the forcible dissolution of Congress. The New York *Times*, in a philosophical discussion of the matter, has arrived at the conclusion that somebody must yield; that the President cannot be expected to yield, inasmuch as he is unwilling to yield, and that therefore Congress must do so. We propose that a commission composed of conservative politicians be framed to enquire by what authority Congress meddles in the government of this country at all. If we may judge by some of the articles and speeches we read, both House and Senate are sitting in Washington in consequence of some monstrous mistake, Mr. Johnson being charged with the sole management of the national affairs in virtue of his accidental accession to the presidential chair. It might be well, however, in any event, to let Congress linger on for the present, inasmuch as the dispersion of the members might injure the public credit. And we confess for our part we cannot wholly divest ourselves of the conviction that even if Mr. Johnson be not allowed to do exactly as he pleases, the national existence may by a great effort on the part of the people be still protracted. The Government was, no doubt, a very poor affair until he took charge of it, but still it lived, and, we flatter ourselves, will continue to do so even after he has retired. We doubt very much whether he will even do that whimpering over its mangled remains which he promised his hearers in Washington a fortnight ago.

THE constitutional amendment introduced by Mr. Bingham has been postponed till April, and April probably means indefinitely. This is supposed to be one step in a possible or probable compromise with the President. Meanwhile the concurrent resolution asserting the power of Congress to keep the rebel States out until it chooses to admit them by bill has been carried by a large majority. Conservatives oppose this on *à priori* grounds, and ask in alarm whether the admission of States by bill is not an admission that they are out of the Union. The fact is, that no *theory* of the powers of our Government, or of its relations with the rebel States, yet propounded has had, or has now, the slightest practical value. Not one of them can be made to cover one-tenth of the steps that have been taken to bring the South back to its allegiance. There is only one stand-point from which a clear view of the situation, or of the course we are steering, can be obtained—and that is the stand-point of the national safety. Whatever is necessary to establish the Government on a sure and lasting foundation, to ensure liberty and justice and security to every man, woman, and child living under it, is right, no matter what logical inferences may be deduced from it. And we should advocate this, though it furnished dialecticians with the means of drawing the conclusion that all black men were white, or that the President was an absolute monarch.

MR. JOHNSON, who seems not only never weary of pardoning, but never satisfied unless he is pardoning somebody, has, we suppose in default of rebels, taken to pardoning counterfeiters, and has within a few days let loose—and this is the second or third case of the kind—a convicted forger of fractional currency. The counterfeiting of fractional currency is *par excellence* an offence against the poor, and, consequently, perhaps less entitled to indulgence than any other in the statute-book. We respectfully suggest, therefore, that Mr. Johnson have a more careful examination made of the revolted States, as we have no doubt numerous objects for Executive clemency may yet be discovered there, and the Northern counterfeiters be thus left to serve out their terms.

MR. ROGERS, a representative from New Jersey, enjoys the unusual satisfaction of lying down at night with a clear conscience. This is owing to the fact that he did not vote for the amendment by which slavery was abolished, and which he styles "that most wicked and unjust measure." Another title to undisturbed repose, we imagine, he derives from his opposition to the amendment proposed by Mr. Bingham, which would, as Mr. Rogers so feelingly shows, abrogate those statutes of the late slave States which regulate the penalties for crime according to the color of the culprit. Indeed, to take the instance adduced by him, we do not see how any good citizen could rest quietly in his bed, if he knew that the penal code of Kentucky had been suddenly so altered that a black man guilty of rape could be only imprisoned, or else a white man equally guilty must be hung. On the one hand, society would be exposed to fresh assaults from those for whom punishment would have been thus abated; on the other, to more reckless violence on the part of the irritated and desperate white population, subjected to additional rigor. The alternative is deplorable.

THE Senate has asked the President again for copies of the orders, letters, instructions, commissions, and so forth, used in reconstructing. The same request was made last December, and up to this time has met with no response, and yet these documents would certainly throw much light on the process of reconstruction and would gratify much legitimate curiosity. It would be interesting to learn, for instance, what passed between Mr. Johnson and Governor Humphreys, of Mississippi, who was elected fresh from the battle-field, and before he had been pardoned, and whose first message was as truculent a denunciation of the federal Government as ever appeared in the palmy days of the Confederacy.

READERS of Mr. Olmsted's "Journey in Texas" may remember his account of a hospitable farmer, Mr. Dagmer, and his two manly sons, who entertained him at Sisterdale, on the Guadalupe, and of whose enlightened sentiments in regard to slavery he speaks in terms of admiration. A correspondent in Texas states that the two sons of Mr. Dagmer were murdered by the secessionists early in the war, while the

father was in prison. The latter is now a prominent member of the State Constitutional Convention of Texas, and has distinguished himself by a speech in which he avowed his willingness to give the right of suffrage to such of the negroes as could read and write the English language intelligently.

CERTAIN citizens of Tennessee, convened at Nashville on the 22d ult. to endorse the President, undertook among other things to parse the word loyalty, which they did by resolution. From this it appears that loyalty has tenses like a verb, but it is defective: that is to say, it wants the past. Thus, on the authority of these gentlemen, it is quite correct for an ex-Confederate or a neutral or a Copperhead to say: "I *am* loyal," and "I *shall be* [or, still better, by Southern usage, *will be*] loyal;" but it would be a solecism for him to declare that he *was* loyal. It will be seen from this how utterly useless it is to enquire into any man's antecedent relations to the Government. Once rid of all ungrammatical distinctions, we arrive at a second resolution, which runs as follows:

"*Resolved*, That in restoring Tennessee to her equality of rights and influence in the Union, her citizens are entitled to a full compensation for the loss of that property of every kind, so far as practicable, of which it was the policy of our country in the late struggle to deprive them."

THE jealous advocates of State rights should look after the bill proposed by Mr. Green Clay Smith, of Kentucky, in the House on Friday. Congress is asked, in the interest of the liquor traffic, to allow the license granted under the internal revenue act to legalize the commercial transaction for which it is taken out. Such legislation would nullify the Maine law wherever it now exists, and would in effect establish the principle that a State has no right to repress the growth of vice, or even to pass a sumptuary law, if she deems it expedient, for her own citizens, provided such a course would diminish the sources of the Federal income.

THE Massachusetts Commissioners appointed by the last Legislature to investigate the hours of labor and the condition and prospects of the working classes, made their report last week. After a fair hearing of employers and employees, they concluded against an eight-hour law, because it could not equitably be applied to all kinds of labor; because it would be rendered void by special contracts; and because it could not possibly be observed by a large proportion of the industrial interests of the country. They present evidence, however, of marked and deplorable abuse in the employment of children of tender years in manufacturing establishments, contrary to State law; and they recommend that the time for schooling prescribed be doubled, and that the law be relaxed in favor of those employers who adopt in good faith the English "half-time system." They also urge the appointment of one or more inspectors, of ample powers, who shall see that the laws on this subject are faithfully obeyed, and bring suits, if necessary, for their enforcement. There should be, in their opinion, a law for the annual collection of statistics in regard to the condition and needs of the industrial population.

ONE hundred thousand dollars raised by voluntary subscriptions have been presented to General Grant, with a letter from one of the subscribers. No better deserved testimonial has ever been offered to a distinguished man, and the secresy with which the money was collected, and the silence which was at first maintained with regard to the names of the contributors, lent a grace to it by which but few movements of this kind have been marked. We are, therefore, very sorry to see that somebody has been guilty of the treachery and bad taste of furnishing the list to the New York *Herald*. There are several other heroes who have deserved well of the nation whom we should like to see rewarded in the same manner, if it could be done without furnishing occasion to lovers of notoriety to advertise their liberality.

THE well-meaning telegraph reported last week that the executive of a neighboring State had appointed *Wednesday*, the 13th of April, for the execution of a murderer. The fact is, the date falls on Friday, which is thus, according to a custom more venerable than defensible on any but superstitious grounds, once more to be branded as a *dies nefastus* by being made the "hangman's day." It may be doubted whether the supposed reproach of this coincidence should be understood as resting on the criminal or on the nature of his punishment. If the former, it would be puerile; if the latter, it would be an odd concession to the opponents of the gallows.

THE Jamaica Legislature came to the very sensible conclusion, about the time of the suppression of the "rebellion," that the best mode of hiding its own shame and spiting the blacks was to die; so it petitioned the Crown to accept a surrender of the Colonial Charter and govern the island as Parliament might please. The Crown has taken the colony at its word, and a bill has been introduced by Lord Cardwell into the House of Commons abolishing the wretched caricature on constitutional government which has ruined the island. It is now to be placed on the same footing as Trinidad for an experimental period of three years and governed as a Crown colony. The first measure of reform ought to be the abolition of the Established Church, and the conversion of its revenues into an educational fund; the substitution of paid magistrates, sent out from England, for the existing local justices of the peace, bred in the slavery system, or inheriting its prejudices; the reduction of the duties on necessaries, and the equalization of taxation. Jamaica has rendered some service to the world in demonstrating the extent to which slaveholding unfits men for the administration of justice amongst a dependent or inferior race.

MATTHEW ARNOLD, the son, as most of our readers know, of Dr. Arnold, of Rugby, has published in "Macmillan's Magazine" an onslaught on the English middle class, now the governing class of the country, which, for keenness, bitterness, rhetorical finish, as well as power, has been rarely equalled. As a piece of English composition, it is worth being lectured upon in colleges. He makes out a terrible bill of indictment against the British bourgeoisie for their ignorance, bad manners, timidity, and political and social incapacity; and predicts for England, if she continues under their guidance, and they do not mend their ways, a fate somewhat like that of Holland. Already, he declares, she has fallen below both France and the United States in the scale of nations. The unhappy middle class, however, take their whipping in such good part, and "come up so smiling" after every knockdown, that one cannot help believing that there is still hope of their improvement. The article is, apparently, highly enjoyed all over England. Professor Arnold has certainly gained in popular estimation by writing it, and the *Saturday Review* has replied to it in a splendid piece of intellectual fence. When one asks one's self what would be the fate of a professor of a Southern college, or even of a Northern one, who had ventured to write in this way of his countrymen, and what would be said and thought of the magazine which published his revilings, we get an idea of the extent to which slavery or something has made it difficult even for our ablest men to criticize national faults or shortcomings, without loss of reputation or social standing. And yet the question whether sound and healthy progress is possible without such criticism has still to be answered.

GEN. LA MARMORA has addressed to the Italian minister at Madrid a very frank and positive communication for the Spanish government, informing it that its solicitude for the temporal security of the Pope when the French troops shall have been withdrawn from Rome is impertinent, and that the treaty of the 15th September, 1864, which has been scrupulously observed by Italy, concerned only her and France. He also rebukes an official expression of hope, on the part of Spain, that certain provinces which now form a part of the kingdom may eventually be detached from it. This is, he says, to mistake the immovable foundations on which Italian unity rests, and the unalterable determination which exists to make it respected.

THE Prussian Chamber protested, by a vote of 265 to 35, against the judgment of the Supreme Court which sanctioned the prosecution of deputies for words spoken in debate. Bismark quoted for them, by way of menace, a police regulation relating to servants, that "if they provoke their masters to anger, they must not complain of being roughly handled;" and the Minister of Justice gave notice that he had ordered the prosecutions to be made.

An Austrian commission appointed to consider the propriety of introducing the decimal system of weights and measures has unanimously pronounced in favor of it.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, March 3, 1866.

A week of calm deliberation has succeeded to the warm political excitements of the preceding week. The fact that the President has gone no further in the direction of his imprudent speech of the 22d February, and the retention by all the members of his cabinet of their places, is generally looked upon as evincing an overruling desire for conciliation and harmony in the councils of the great Union party. That this is the feeling of the President is corroborated by the authorized publication of his talk with Governor Cox, of Ohio, as well as by the fact that little or no movement toward the political proscription of those in office differing from the Executive has been made. Still, it is by no means safe to conclude that any permanent concord will exist between the President and the present Congress upon measures concerning the political rights of the rebellious States. The grounds of difference all remain, and if the Executive should determine to follow up his first veto by a systematic endeavor to thwart the legislation of Congress, it is in his power to make an issue which will bring to his side all the elements of opposition to the party which elected him, together with the mass of the Southern people. So long as the latter, however, are unrepresented in Congress, through the resolute determination of that body to insist upon the loyalty not only of representatives, but of the constituencies behind them, the only effect will be to agitate the country and enhance the importance of that popular verdict which must, sooner or later, decide between Congress and the President.

The chief measure of importance in the legislation of the week is the passage by the Senate, by the strong vote of 29 to 18, of the concurrent resolution adopted by the House on the day succeeding the veto of the President, and declaring that no representatives shall be admitted from any State heretofore proclaimed to be in insurrection until Congress shall have declared such State to be entitled to representation. The chief significance of this resolution lies in the fact that it establishes the opinion of Congress, by an overwhelming majority, that the two Houses should act conjointly upon the whole question of representation of States, and that this question is entirely independent of the Executive. On these points the tenacity of this Congress will be found immovable. It is also noteworthy that precisely the same number of Union senators (with the addition of Mr. Lane, of Kansas) deserted the majority upon this question as changed their votes on the Freedmen's Bureau bill, after the veto message.

The second amendment of the Constitution recommended by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, after being partially discussed in the House, has been postponed until April. This is chiefly because many members of the legal profession see in the final clause of the proposed amendment, investing Congress with power "to secure to all persons in the several States equal protection in the rights of life, liberty, and property," a dangerous centralization of power. Unimpeachable Republicans object to it as authorizing the general Government to interfere and override State laws on the subject of property, the legal rights of women, etc. The postponement of the amendment by unanimous vote of the majority, while it gives time for maturing another proposition, is conclusive against the passage of the present one.

Mr. Trumbull's very stringent "Civil Rights bill," if passed by the House as it came from the Senate, would go far to render any such proposed amendment of the Constitution unnecessary, *i. e.*, provided it were to receive the signature of the President, which, it is confidently believed, it cannot do.

Mr. Fessenden's closing speech on the passage of the concurrent resolution from the Joint Committee of Fifteen, urged that the committee were obstructed by the President in procuring the needed information on which to base their action and final report on the condition of the rebel States. It is a significant fact that President Johnson, although three times requested by special resolution of the Senate or House to do so, has not hitherto communicated any of the facts or documents in his possession regarding the provisional governments he established and afterward withdrew in those States.

DIARY.

Monday, February 26, 1866.—In the Senate, several petitions were presented from Wisconsin and Michigan, praying for a prohibitory tariff on imports. Referred. Mr. Grimes presented a petition from citizens of Iowa, praying for a constitutional amendment distinctly recognizing the Christian religion as the true one, and the United States as a Christian government. Several petitions, asking for guaranties of loyalty etc., previous to the admission of any rebel State, were referred. Mr. Lane, of Kansas, moved to take from the table the credentials of the two senators of Arkansas, and to refer them to the Judiciary Committee. He urged that Arkansas is now peaceable and quiet, has abolished slavery and repudiated the rebel debt, and should be represented by her loyal senators, who had already taken the test-oath preliminary to being elected. Mr. Trumbull opposed the motion, as the Senate had postponed the claims of these men at the last session, until Arkansas should be declared entitled to representation. He moved that the credentials lie on the table until the Joint Committee of Fifteen should report as to the rebel States. Carried—yeas, 29; nays, 17. A motion to admit the claimants to seats, *pro tempore*, was laid on the table—yeas, 27; nays, 18. Mr. Sherman spoke at length on the House concurrent resolution, refusing admission of senators and representatives from rebel States until Congress shall have declared them entitled to such representation. He approved the principle, but doubted the expediency of now re-affirming it, condemned the President's speech as humiliating and unworthy of his office, declared the doctrine that the President is under no obligation to the party which elected him to be false in honor and false in principle, favored the prompt restoration of Tennessee and the constitutional change in the basis of representation, and urged moderation and harmony between Congress and the President. The bill to grant an exclusive privilege to the International Ocean Telegraph Company to lay and operate a telegraph to the West Indies was discussed and laid over.

In the House, Mr. McClurg's resolution to enquire into the expediency of levying contributions on the rebel States to defray the cost of the army in those States was referred—yeas, 102; nays, 27. A resolution instructing the Military Committee to report a bill equalizing the bounties of all soldiers was passed. A resolution declaring it as the opinion of the House that Congress has no constitutional right to fix the qualifications of electors in the States was not adopted—yeas, 40; nays, 53; not voting, 86. The Joint Committee on Reconstruction reported back the constitutional amendment offered last week empowering Congress to make laws securing equal rights to life, liberty, and property to citizens in all the States. Laid over. Mr. Wilson reported from the Judiciary Committee a bill fixing the number of judges of the Supreme Court and changing certain judicial circuits. Referred.

Feb. 27.—In the Senate, a joint resolution, expressing the gratitude of the nation to the officers and soldiers of the United States, was passed. Mr. Morgan offered a bill to exempt college lands donated by Congress from taxation by State or municipal authority. Referred. Mr. Sumner offered a resolution repeating the call of the Senate upon the President (made Jan. 5) for copies of all papers, proclamations, constitutions, and other proceedings between the Executive and provisional governors, or between those officers and conventions, etc., of the rebel States. Adopted. Mr. Morrill submitted a resolution calling for the reports of Assistant Commissioners of the Freedmen's Bureau. Adopted. The House concurrent resolution against admission of representatives from States declared in rebellion was taken up. Mr. Dixon opposed it as unconstitutional and disorganizing, and defended the President's policy of restoration as the true one. Mr. Trumbull replied, claiming that it requires the concurrent action of both Houses of Congress to recognize any government in States where rebellion has overthrown it.

In the House, the constitutional amendment conferring upon Congress power to equalize civil rights was discussed by Messrs. Higby, Kelley, and Price in its favor, and Mr. Hale against it. Mr. Van Horn, of Missouri, offered a resolution that the further employment of French troops in Mexico would be considered by Congress a violation of the Emperor's pledge at the recent opening of the French Chambers. Referred.

February 28.—In the Senate, Mr. Johnson presented the credentials of B. F. Perry as senator elect from South Carolina. Laid on the table. Resolutions of the Nevada Legislature, in favor of the speedy trial of Jeff. Davis, were presented. The naval appropriation bill, which passed the House, was reported with amendments. The bill granting lands to the San Francisco and Humboldt Bay RR. Co. was passed. The concurrent resolution relating to representation of Southern States was taken up. Mr. Nye, of Nevada, opposed the present admission of any members from those States, and advocated the resolution. Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, opposed the resolution, arguing that to suspend the right of a State to representation is dangerous and unwise.

In the House, the constitutional amendment, empowering Congress to secure to citizens in all the States equal rights, was taken up, and opposed by Messrs. Davis and Hotchkiss, of N. Y., and advocated by Messrs. Woodbridge and Bingham. On motion of Mr. Conkling, of the Joint Committee of Fifteen, the constitutional amendment was postponed until the second Tuesday in April—yeas, 110; nays, 37. The deficiency appropriation bill was considered and amended,

March 1.—In the Senate, a petition was presented from the American Free Trade League for a free interchange of goods between the British provinces and the United States. Referred. Mr. Wilson reported a bill, heretofore referred to the Military Committee, to disband the militia forces of certain Southern States. The bill granting lands to aid the Southern Pacific Railroad was considered and amended. The bill which passed the House, amending the act prohibiting the importation of cattle, was passed. The concurrent resolution declaring against the immediate representation of States lately in rebellion was taken up, when Mr. Stewart and Mr. Johnson spoke against it and Mr. Wade in its favor.

In the House, the Committee on Ways and Means were instructed to report on the expediency of reducing the duty on paper. The bill which passed the Senate, to protect all persons in their civil rights, was taken up and discussed by Messrs. Wilson, of Iowa, and Cook, of Illinois, in its favor, and Mr. Rogers, of New Jersey, against it. The deficiency appropriation bill was passed after being amended so as to provide that no money be paid to any person not ready to take the test-oath of July, 1862.

March 2.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented two petitions from authors, editors, and publishers of the United States, praying Congress to enact measures for the adop-

tion of an international copyright law by this Government and that of Great Britain. Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. Mr. Sumner also presented the petition of John A. Andrew and others, praying that the Constitution may be amended so that the President and Vice-President may be chosen by the people directly, without the intervention of electors; also for an amendment extending the elective franchise to all citizens who can read, irrespective of color or social condition. Referred. Mr. Johnson presented credentials of Henry Boyce, elected as a senator from Louisiana. Laid on the table. Mr. Lane, of Kansas, offered a resolution looking to a general convention of the people of the United States to consider amendments to the Constitution. The bill granting lands to aid in the construction of the Southern Pacific Railroad was passed. The Senate resumed the consideration of the concurrent resolution from the House, declaring that no representatives shall be admitted from any State heretofore declared in insurrection until Congress shall declare such State entitled to representation. Messrs. Cowan, Doolittle, and McDougal spoke against the resolution, and Messrs. Wilson and Fessenden in its favor. Mr. Hendricks moved to amend so as to insert "the inhabitants of" before the words "States declared to be in insurrection." Lost—yeas, 17; nays, 29. The resolution was then passed—yeas, 29; nays, 18. Adjourned to March 5.

In the House, a bill to construct a ship canal around the Falls of Niagara was reported and re-committed. Mr. Boutwell presented petitions from colored citizens of Georgia asking for the right of suffrage. Referred. Also, a memorial from white loyalists of Alabama complaining that they are at the mercy of the rebels, in whose hands the State government of Alabama now is, and protesting against the removal of United States troops. Referred. Mr. Baker offered a joint resolution proposing an amendment of the Constitution, but it was objected to. A bill relinquishing the title of the United States to all lands within the corporate limits of San Francisco was passed. The Senate bill to protect all persons in their civil rights was discussed by Messrs. Thayer, Windom, and Shellabarger in its favor, and Messrs. Thornton and Eldridge against it. After adopting certain amendments to the bill, the House postponed its further consideration to Thursday, March 8. A bill was offered and referred to encourage education in agriculture and the mechanic arts.

March 3.—The Senate was not in session.

In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by several members, but no business of any kind was transacted.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE Bureau and the freedmen have lost a devoted helper in the person of Brevet Lt.-Col. H. M. Stinson, A. D. C. to Gen. Howard. He entered the army as a Maine private in 1861, was wounded and taken prisoner at Bull Run, and suffered confinement in various parts of the South. On his release he returned to the service, under promotion, and was shot through the lungs in the Georgia campaign. Hemorrhage resulted from subsequent exposure about Atlanta, and he died on the 22d ult. at Tallahassee, whither he had gone in hope of recovery. He was but twenty-two years of age.

The Assistant Commissioner for Texas gives a most satisfactory account of labor in that State. He reports that laborers are in great demand with the planters, and that those engaged are working well and getting good wages. Wages rule from eight to fifteen dollars per month in specie, with quarters, food, fuel, etc. He challenges the whole South to show better paid laborers than those of the cotton and sugar growing sections of the State. Instead of money wages, in some instances, portions of the crop are to be given, in amounts ranging from one-third to one-half. "At least nine-tenths of the former slave population are under contract for a year." Outrages, though not unfrequent, are on the decline, except in the portions of the State inaccessible to the influence of the Government. There are twenty-six schools (colored) reported in the State, with over 1,600 pupils. The expenses of the Bureau are paid in part from the receipts from fines, etc., of the freedmen's courts.

Gen. Fisk reports a steady advancement in industry, good order, education, and justice in Kentucky and Tennessee. But few freedmen are idle, the emigration from the towns and cities having been large. The whole number of rations issued to dependents, black or white, by the Bureau during the month of December, 1865, amounted to only $620. Much has been done for the destitute freedmen by the freed people themselves, and Gen. Fisk's report brings to light the very remarkable fact that the "Provident Association," in Nashville, Tenn., which is a colored organization, and which relieves distress without regard to color, has benefited more whites than blacks, and that "many widows and orphans whose husbands and fathers fell fighting to perpetuate slavery have been fed and warmed through the kindly offices of the freedmen's association for the relief of the poor."

The reports of outrages in Kentucky are numerous. Two negroes were shot by a gang of guerillas in Owingsville. An agent of the Bureau took one or two of them prisoners, and started to Lexington with them. At Mount Sterling a writ of *habeas corpus* was served, and the men released by a judge, on the ground that the law did not include Kentucky within the operations of the Bureau. Another negro, an old man, was shot, placed upon the coals in a fireplace, one side roasted, and then turned over in order to roast the other side, by some fiends in human form. These facts rest upon unquestionable authority.

Complaints of the injustice of the Maryland apprentice laws are constantly reported. Children are taken from good situations and placed in a condition as bad as slavery. In one case, a colored woman sick with consumption was deprived of her son—her sole support—by his being apprenticed to a white man to "learn habits of industry." He was maintaining his mother and himself by honest toil, and she is now dependent upon charity for support.

Col. Thomas, of Mississippi, sends a gratifying account of labor in that State. The demand exceeds the supply to such an extent that one planter came to Virginia to secure help. He took back sixty-three able-bodied hands. The absurd stories which have been prevalent throughout the State, and which prevented the freedmen from going to work, are no longer heard; the vagrant laws are not in force in any of the towns or cities he has visited, because, as the civil authorities say, "they are not needed." The feelings of the whites are improving towards the blacks. Cases of abuse are becoming less frequent.

From Virginia, Col. Brown writes that Capt. Lacy, of the Western District of the State, reports that the demand for labor in that section, also, exceeds the supply; that high wages are offered and paid for able-bodied hands.

Minor Topics.

THERE are a number of harmless and respectable persons who think they look like some famous man or woman either living or dead. This resemblance they nurse to the best of their ability; it adds a daily pleasure to their lives. As it is quite impracticable to masquerade outside of a fancy ball in a costume older than 1850 without incurring the risk of a commission of lunacy, unless one deals in patent medicines or old-folk minstrelsy, they are necessarily limited to their heads and the hair thereof, in the imitation of their great originals. Napoleons comb that historical foretop carefully down towards the eyes; Louis Napoleons wax out the ends of their heavy moustaches; bald gentlemen, who do Shakespeare, extend their foreheads and peak their yellow beards; and ladies who have been fortunate enough to receive such gifts from nature, do the smiling Sévigné in little blonde ringlets, or brush their dark hair well off the temples and scowl sternly as Rachel. Why is this a gratification to them? In what way is their vanity tickled? It would be interesting to know how they account to themselves for the pleasure, if, indeed, they ever think of analyzing their feelings at all.

It is certain that the besetting weakness of man is to try to appear what he is not. He is a lucky individual who, in a lifetime, has known two or three honest, genuine, unaffected persons, who are willing to seem what they are, or rather who have never thought of being other than nature made them. This is the highest form of moral health. All the rest of the world have an ideal, moral or physical, they work up to. Indeed, when we take a good look at ourselves, it is not at all surprising we wish for improvement. There would be little hope for the race were it otherwise. Unfortunately, most people think the imitation will pass current almost as well as the genuine article. "Assume a virtue if you have it not," says the poet. They dress themselves up in moral qualities they think becoming, and wear false good feeling and false politeness to hide their meannesses and selfishness, just as they parry the insults of nature by padding, and try to hide the scars of time by wigs and teeth. This is comprehensible. It is also easy to understand why it is agreeable to resemble a man or a woman celebrated for their beauty. To look like them is to be good-looking; and certainly a little trimming and brushing to help out the resemblance is natural and pardonable. But it was not Shakespeare's bald head and peaked beard that made him immortal. In fact, not even Mr. Richard Grant White knows what manner of man he was. Napo-

leon did not conquer Europe because he brushed his hair over his brows; and Mlle. Rachel would have been much more attractive had her eyes been less sunken, her neck fatter, and her forehead less bony. However small might be his chances of success, we could only approve of a man who devoted his energies to trying to become a Shakespeare; but to make a mere mask of one's self day after day seems the silliest of all the foolish objects of human endeavor. Barnum's wax-work effigies of the famous are much more effective, for they give the costume as well as the face, and they hold their tongues. If Mr. and Mrs. Smith are "extremely innocent company," as Pepys says of his father, no one is offended; it is no fault of theirs; but if Mr. and Mrs. Smith present themselves wearing the lion's skin of Shakespeare and of Rachel, they invite a comparison which becomes, of course, a ridiculous contrast when they begin to bray. A great name is often too heavy a burthen for the heir, because it suggests a standard of talent or conduct he is unable to come up to. That is a misfortune. But why should any one, of his own free will, uninvited and unprovoked, struggle to show his acquaintances the great gulf that lies between his insignificance and the genius of his exemplar? It seems inexplicable; yet it is a very old trait of human nature. Byron shirt-collars are proverbial, and Horace laughs at Romans who "did" Cato with bare feet and sour faces. Perhaps physiology may help us to understand it. La Marck and Darwin assert that mankind sprang from some gorilla in advance of his age. If so, it must be this monkey element, not yet worn out of our nature, that drives us into these absurd imitations.

The last number of the *Revue des Deux Mondes* contains an article upon Proudhon, the French socialist, and his works, in which an amusing but, no doubt, very correct explanation is given of Proudhon's habit of exaggeration. He loved to throw his theories into propositions of the most startling violence, and such as everybody else would be sure to deny. "Property" he declared to be "theft; God, to be evil; woman, debauchery; government, anarchy." This manner of arguing the reviewer calls "putting too high a price on his thought;" in other words, it is the fault of a dealer anxious to obtain as much as possible for his wares. Proudhon expected his reader to beat him down, and thus to arrive at his real meaning. If he was taken at the letter, therefore, injustice was done him, just as it would be unfair to call an Italian shopkeeper extortionate because, according to the custom of the country, he asks from every purchaser twice as much as he expects to get. He has to make allowance for the beating down he knows he will undergo. In fact, "his violence," Proudhon said, "was part of his tactics."

As this was his way of dealing with ideas, he could not, of course, lay it aside in dealing with men. Consequently, he was one of the most abusive reformers that ever appeared, which is saying a good deal; but the reader had, of course, to beat him down. If he said of a philosopher that he was a "charlatan," it would be found on making the necessary allowance that he simply meant that he did not agree with him. So, also, if he called a man an "idiot," he simply meant that he had contradicted him. Everything he wrote had to be read with this little peculiarity in view.

We call attention to all this for the purpose of bespeaking the public indulgence for numbers of worthy men amongst ourselves, who in their zeal are also in the habit of making apparently extortionate demands on our patience and confidence in the utterance of their thoughts on public affairs. If their readers and hearers would only bear in mind that they really expect to be beaten down in their phrases, they would treat them with more consideration. A large discount has always to be made in their language. For instance, when they call a man a "liar," they simply mean that he changes his mind too frequently; by a "cheat," they mean a person who has acted differently from what they expected; by an "idiot," they generally wish to indicate simply a person who disagrees with them. When they announce that "all is lost," they mean that they have some fears as to the future; and when they proclaim some quondam ally a "traitor," they probably mean only to accuse him of lukewarmness. In fact, a little hand-book for newspaper readers and attendants on public meetings might be made up, with a very useful vocabulary giving the real sense of the phrases on which many popular orators and writers rely to produce their more startling effects. And when we remember the circumstances under which most newspaper articles are read and most speeches listened to, we must all confess that it is no great wonder if both writer and speaker find themselves so often driven to exaggeration in order to secure a hearing at all, that at last it becomes a habit with them. When you know that what you write will be read in cars, restaurants, or over a hurried breakfast, you are apt to be driven into capitals, italics, and loud-sounding epithets, in order to make the faintest impression. And when you find yourself addressing a hot, irritable, and uncomfortable crowd, such as most public meetings are composed of, if you say that Smith has not acted with the courage you expected of him, it falls very flat; but if you say that he has behaved like a cowardly knave, and damned his memory to everlasting infamy, you bring down the house. When the audience go home and sit down to think over what they have heard, they are probably sensible that the orator has been guilty of great absurdity; but then the fact that Smith has misconducted himself remains imprinted on their minds, though they forget all about the infamy that is to follow his memory down the ages.

We hope the next Democratic convention that meets, after re-affirming the Dred Scott decision and endorsing the policy of President Johnson, will have some praise to bestow on Gen. Bennett, U. S. A. Since, that we may not be thought traitors and disunionists, we are all now agreed that this is a white man's government, it is pleasant to find a Federal officer on Southern territory—we beg pardon, soil—whose notions of duty are not confined to looking after the negro. This admirable, and all the more so because exceptional, character—one of the few, it would seem, who lighten the military yoke by which our Southern brethren are galled—felt obliged, it is true, to interfere with the operation of the civil law in South Carolina. But if such interference is inevitable, may it never be exercised less worthily than in the present instance. So long as statutes must be dumb at the bidding of the war power, there is some satisfaction in knowing that they cannot speak to the prejudice of a white man. We have no sympathy for the misdemeanor for which, by Judge Aldrich's quite lawful sentence, the rescued culprit would have received a flogging; but we have grave doubts whether a simple robbery should condemn a Saxon to the degrading punishment meet for the sons of Ham.

As for the general's excuse, which might be taken for a slant at slavery, we feel sure that no innuendo was intended. The lash, he said, was contrary to the "spirit of civilization that pervades society at the present day." He was speaking not from a Northern, but a military, point of view. He remembered that the odious instrument had been expelled from the American army and navy, and that here, as in Prussia under Stein, and everywhere, in fact, that the experiment has been tried, the morale of the service has been immediately and palpably elevated. It is not strange that the gallant general should have applied the principles of the organization which he adorns to the civil society of which he has temporary custody. Not, be it understood, that we approve the logic of this application. It may be very well to argue from a white soldier to a white citizen; but from a negro regiment to the black race a deduction as to discipline would not be permissible—nay, would be absolutely heretical. Happily, in the case which arose in Charleston, the color of the offender and the humane reasoning of Gen. Bennett harmonized perfectly together; and we shall refuse to assume in advance that the latter would, from any false sentiment of consistency, be as prompt to interpose in behalf of a dark-skinned depredator. Meanwhile his action in the premises is fairly deserving of commendation, and will receive it from all those patriots who think that if the Government is to meddle at all with the affairs of the South, it is time some attention was given to the poor white as well as to the negro.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE DUTY OF THE HOUR.

If we may judge from the proceedings during the past week, and from what we hear of the state of opinion in the capital, Congress has become fully aware that the President is—to speak plainly—a very "ugly customer," and that the less he is stirred up by mere railing, the better for all parties. Mr. Lincoln's almost unparalleled gentleness and self-restraint, and the success with which Mr. Johnson managed for awhile to imitate him, got several members both of the House and Senate into habits of carelessness about their language, from which the speech of Thursday week thoroughly roused them. Mr. Johnson is clearly, whatever his principles may be, wanting both in the temper and sense of decorum for which Mr. Lincoln was distinguished, and it is now evident that anybody who assails him may fairly expect him to reply in terms more forcible than decent. One of his most thorough-going advocates, the New York *Times*, ascribes the late speech to the influence of the old associations of the stump and cross-roads in Tennessee—where politicians, we may explain, are in the habit of saying whatever comes uppermost, with the understanding that they are "personally responsible" for it—that is, willing to shoot at or be shot by anybody who objects to it.

This is an exceedingly inconvenient habit for a President to carry with him to Washington; but there is now no help for it. We must take Mr. Johnson as he is, and make the best of him. His outbreak against the radical leaders was vulgar, indecent, and alarming; but we confess that, for our part, we did not need it to convince us of the gross impropriety of the manner in which Thaddeus Stevens and others have allowed themselves to talk of him. It was their indiscretion which not led to his, but furnished an excuse or occasion for his. Anybody in landing from a steamboat at a New York wharf will probably think of a good many unpleasant remarks which he would, on moral grounds, be justified in making on the manners and customs of the hackmen; but if he chooses to make them, he can hardly complain if he is treated to a torrent of abuse in return. The best excuse Mr. Stevens can make for comparing Mr. Johnson to Charles I. is, that he did not know what kind of a person he was dealing with. Now that he does know, we hope we shall hear no more of this kind of talk. If we saw anything that could be gained by suggestions about cutting the President's head off, we should pardon a speaker for indulging in them—perhaps even indulge in them ourselves. But we do not.

There is an additional reason for refraining rigidly from violent language towards Mr. Johnson to be found in the fact that he is evidently "spiling for a fight." The tenor of his speeches and replies to deputations shows it, and the very worst service any public man can render his country is to furnish him with an opportunity to engage in one. There has probably been nothing more outrageously sophistical—we shall not use any stronger term—uttered by any Northern Copperhead since the war began than the passage in the President's reply, on Friday last, to the Baltimore delegation, in which he placed the Northern Abolitionists in the same category with the Southern rebels, and accused them of an equally strong desire to break up the Government. We shall say nothing of the insult offered to the moral sense of the civilized world in the insinuation than an attempt to break up a political fabric in order to destroy slavery, and an attempt to break it up in order to preserve and perpetuate slavery, can be placed on the same moral level; or of the insult offered to the loyal States in characterizing men like Charles Sumner with being enemies of the Union in the same sense that Toombs and Wigfall were enemies of it. What we do say is, that Mr. Johnson's indulgence in such talk proves that he has got into a state of mind which makes it the duty of all prudent and patriotic men to abstain from wordy war with him, to entrench themselves behind law and propriety, and on no pretext be tempted to come down into the arena for a bout of epithets or threats with him.

It ought never to be forgotten, too, that he is to be President for the next three years; that there is no legal mode of getting rid of him; and that his must be the hand which must execute all measures of reconstruction, no matter who may endorse them. Congress may pass the finest laws in the world, and even if he do not veto them, or his veto be overcome, they must depend on him for their efficacy. The mere exercise of his undisputed right to control the army might, if he now chose to pervert it, work incalculable mischief. We hear some talk of impeaching him, but we are sorry to hear it, because it is talk which sensible men ought not to indulge in at a crisis so grave. He has done nothing, and need not do anything even to accomplish the worst objects which his enemies ascribe to him, to merit impeachment or to afford the shadow of a foundation for any charge on which an impeachment could rest. Impeachment is a judicial process, and the offences to which it applies are defined by law and must be supported by legal evidence. We need hardly say that talking nonsense to mobs in the street is not amongst the number. Moreover, there would be no chance of securing a conviction, and, if he was convicted, it would have no moral weight. Any process arising out of his course on the reconstruction problem would to many honest men appear a piece of party persecution, and would divide the North, convulse the country, and seriously imperil the public credit, and might prove the beginning of a series of revolutions and pronunciamientos that would soon seal our ruin. The recent utterances of the Chicago *Times*, recommending the President to break Congress up by a *coup d'état*, and the practice pursued by the *World* of keeping the term "Rump Congress" as a standing head for its report of Congressional proceedings, give us a little glimpse of the pit which our enemies would fain prepare for us.

Nor do we consider the enquiry which is now being conducted by many writers and speakers into the immediate causes of the President's late shortcomings a very profitable or very edifying one. Whether it be his personal habits that create his mental or moral defects we consider a very nauseous and utterly useless subject of investigation. A man's conduct, whether good or bad, is generally due to a composition of causes, and, except as a psychological study, there is not the least use in trying to find out what these causes are, unless the discovery is likely to aid in changing his character. But we doubt if many are simple enough to suppose that the contributions which are made to the gossip of the hour on this point by hangers-on at Washington hotels and newspaper offices are likely to help in the solution of the problem now before the country.

The course of all good men at the North seems to us clear enough. It is, first of all to keep their temper and cultivate moderation of language; and then to lose no opportunity of keeping the real issue before the country, letting the people hear constantly what it is that is involved in the plan of reconstruction which Mr. Johnson is urging forward, what its dangers are, what the limits of his authority are, and what are his true relations to Congress. It must not be forgotten that he has both in his veto and his speech appealed most plausibly to the two dearest instincts of the American heart, love of a law-governed Union and hatred of arbitrary power; that he has consequently on his side a vast number of the best men at the North, and amongst them thousands of those who were foremost in carrying on the war and in overthrowing slavery. Therefore he must be met by arguments, and the arguments must come from cool heads as well as ready tongues. His fallacies must be exposed, his evidence overhauled, the consequences of his action pointed out, and the conscience of the nation kept constantly alive, until his powers of mischief, if he really means mischief, are at an end. Neither railing nor violence can save us, and those who doubt the force, at a juncture like this, of the old weapons by which so many victories have been won for freedom and progress, pay Andrew Johnson a compliment which his warmest admirers would be ashamed to offer him.

MAKE THE ISSUE PLAIN.

Special pleading is a science which has got a bad name; and this chiefly because of a mistaken notion of its object. It is (or was, for it has been largely legislated out of existence) a strictly logical process, the object of which is to eliminate everything from the presentation of law or fact to be tried that is

foreign to the case, and to reduce it to the exact and single issue to be passed upon. Its name has been perverted in common usage into another name for legal trickery. Still, there may be an abuse of special pleading by a crafty and unscrupulous advocate, especially if he be more than a match for the judge, which may substitute a false for a true issue and pervert the whole process of adjudication from its legitimate purposes. This is one of the chief arts of profligate politicians, and much mischief they have done by casting dust into the eyes of the people, who are the judges of all political issues in the last appeal, making them decide questions which are not before them by means of the ingenuity with which they are wrapped up with those that they intend to put at rest.

This is eminently the case at the present moment. All the arts of political chicane are employed to divert the attention of the people from the real question, so that it may go by default while the side issues take up all the thoughts of the judges. All the chief pettifoggers in and out of Congress have been busy trying to darken counsel and to make the judges look at something else than the point they are to decide and which is to fix the law by a permanent precedent. And the leading counsel of all, on whom the people had relied chiefly for putting the case logically and distinctly before them, has summed up all the fallacies, and sought, honestly and soberly, if you will, but irregularly and unprofessionally, to substitute the consideration of them for that of the actual question. What the people have to make up their minds about and to settle by an authoritative judgment is, *not* whether the States lately in rebellion are bound by laws made in the absence of their representatives. It is *not* whether they are suffering taxation without representation. It is *not* whether they are ready to make any specified promises or to take any propounded oath. It is *not* whether the right of suffrage is a natural right or a political privilege. It is *not* whether every State has a constitutionalright to decide who shall be voters within its own jurisdiction. It is *not*, even, whether men shall vote everywhere irrespective of race or color. It is none of these, nor of the host of other issues which are sprung on every side to make men look any way instead of in the right and true one.

The actual question now before Congress and the country *is*, whether the government of the eleven States lately in rebellion is to be given to the enemies of the nation, whose hands are just unclutched from her throat, or to her friends. If the people think that rebels, who do not pretend to be penitent even if they confess themselves conquered, should be invested with absolute power over all the inhabitants of their States or sojourners within them, including the negroes whom the people themselves have just set free, and that, besides this, they should be allowed their full weight in the government of the nation which a little year ago they were doing their utmost to destroy, the people can so decide, and from their decision there is no appeal, excepting to themselves in a soberer hour. But let them have this issue always kept unmistakably before them. Let them not think that they are deciding against Executive usurpation, or against taxation without representation, or against Federal interference with the reserved rights of the States, or in favor of the effectual restoration of all the States to the Union. The question is, Shall one half the country be absolutely governed, and the whole be in danger of being controlled, by its enemies rather than its friends? If this point can be kept clearly before the public mind, separate from all entangling alliances, we have no fear as to the result. And it is important that this should be done quite as much for the interests of the rebel as of the loyal States. There can be no substantial peace until this question is put at rest, and peace is more essential to them than to us.

If, as we are fully convinced, there is no man or class of men desirous of keeping the eleven States out of Congress for the sake of keeping them out; if, as we believe, there is no thought of punishment at the bottom of any of the propositions presented to Congress in regard to the rebel States, it is certainly important that no advantage should be given those who will endeavor to assume the contrary in the discussion of these propositions before the people. No pains should be grudged to make it plain to the weakest intellect that it is self-preservation solely that makes us pause. The question is as to the means most expedient to be used for that end. It is only unscrupulous politicians, demagogues, pettifoggers, darkeners of counsel, who raise any other question. Even those who most fiercely object to the President's policy, when the depths of their rhetoric are sounded, will be found to say and mean simply: If the rebels are truly penitent, let them bring forth fruits meet for repentance. They must give some proofs of feeling that they have sinned before God, and in the sight of the nation, before even Mr. Seward would slay the fatted calf to give them welcome. They have kept themselves out of Congress and out of their rights as members of the Union for more than four years. Is it hard measure to keep them out for one or two years longer till they have shown themselves fit to be trusted with their own government and ours? Even if it is hard measure, must those who advocate it as reasonable, just, and prudent, be placed on the same footing as the rebels? Surely, this is the height of sophistry.

Let the issue be but fairly made, and there need be no fear that any fulminations from the White House, or any fascination of Copperheads, charm they never so wisely, will alter the fixed resolve of the people of the United States that not only slavery, but all its works, shall perish from off the earth. They have not poured out their blood and treasure like water in order to deliver themselves up to their enemies after the victory has been won. Certainly not, if this is the plain English of all the circumlocution that is uttered from either House or from Presidential balcony, and they can be made to see it. Let the issue be made clear, and they will sustain Congress in keeping the doors of the Capitol locked in the face of all comers whose record is not clean, either through innocency or repentance, and prophetic of safe and patriotic counsels, as surely as they sustained it in every measure for the more vigorous prosecution of the war. No recent rebel, in haste to get into power again, is fit to be trusted with it. No honest Union man will complain of being obliged to wait if his admission would open the way to the man who sought his life. But, whether so or not, it is the clear duty of Congress to refuse to restore States or men to power over us as well as over their own people until they have given evidence of a change of heart, or, at least, have given bonds for their future good behavior. And on this issue, clearly stated, they may safely appeal to the people at the polls.

THE GOOD SIDE OF FENIANISM.

The Fenians have been thrown into a terrible state of excitement by the news of the suspension of the *habeas corpus* in Ireland, and President O'Mahony has issued a call to arms, and all the governing bodies of the organization are meeting to take measures adapted to the emergency. What is most curious in the expression of their feelings just now is, that they pronounce the arbitrary arrests of their members, by a power against which they have declared war, an atrocious outrage. Logically, they are estopped, however, from claiming the benefits of a constitution which they have repudiated, and, as far as they are concerned, they are entitled to nothing on Irish soil except the protection of the laws of war. It is absurd to challenge people to the field of battle and then denounce them for not submitting to be sued in damages for assault and false imprisonment.

As to the "measures" which the Fenians here are likely to adopt to save their brethren in Ireland from the Lord Lieutenant and the police, we need hardly say that the appearance of the American branch of the brotherhood on Irish soil with muskets is not likely to be of the number. Whatever can be done for the deliverance of the victims of British tyranny by speeches and processions in the United States will be done, and that faithfully; and if the British Government is not frightened into releasing them by the remonstrances of George Francis Train and Col. John O'Mahony, all that can be said is that the British Government is even more cruel and depraved than it was supposed to be.

The sudden resort of the English Ministry to this measure has not surprised many people who have paid much attention to the course of events in Ireland during the past three months. The gentry in the south and west of the island have been for nearly the whole of that period suffering from a panic, and have, in many instances, had their

houses barricaded, and large stores of arms and ammunition laid in, and been imploring protection from the Government. The Orangemen of Ulster have been for the last month rapidly arming themselves, and been threatening to take the law into their own hands and put down Fenianism by a Protestant rising, so that if the matter had gone a little further there was a strong probability that the Government would have found itself charged with the suppression not simply of a rebellion, but of a civil war. Moreover, it was clearly impossible to suppress the movement by the ordinary process of law, as the island appears to be plentifully supplied with "agents" from this side, whose secret was well enough kept to defy legal proceedings, though, perhaps, not well enough to avoid suspicion. With the *habeas corpus* suspended, there will probably be a general "descent" upon all persons suspected of Fenian proclivities, and the great plot will find its denouement, as so many Irish plots have done before, in the thirty-two county gaols of the Irish kingdom, and John O'Mahony will be left to lament, amidst the débris of the organization, over the rascality of traitors and the corrupting influence of "British gold."

There is, however, a serious and interesting side to the affair. The first palpable result of the Fenian movement has been what we expected it would be, the postponement for an indefinite period of the efforts which the English liberals and the sane and intelligent portion of the Irish population were making to procure the abolition of the Established Church, and the settlement of the land question. For the enemies of these two great measures of reform, nothing could have come more opportunely than the Fenian outbreak, as we see by the result of the motion made in the House of Commons for a commission of enquiry, its supporters, including John Stuart Mill, finding themselves nineteen in all, with the rest of the House against them. The argument that to debate Irish grievances then would look like succumbing to Fenian intimidation, was of course overwhelming to the great mass of English members; the subject was kicked out summarily, and the *habeas corpus* suspended a few days later in a single sitting.

This result has so often been brought about before in the same way, and Irish reform thus converted into a sort of treadmill labor, in which perpetual toil brings no progress, that one would suppose Irish "patriots" would by this time have learned wisdom and mended their ways; but, for some inscrutable reason, every one of their abortive attempts at revolution seems to leave behind it a larger crop of fools than ever. It is quite true that as little disposition is manifested in the English House of Commons to redress Irish grievances in quiet as in troublous times. When the Irish are silent, the answer to all demands for reform is that the country is tranquil; when they are rebellious, they are told that her Majesty's Government must not be bullied. So that the time has never yet come when the English public were ready to acknowledge that the Irish difficulty had to be faced. But to put this difficulty before the English public in its full magnitude, to break through the glass of prejudice, pride, passion, and contempt through which Englishmen are apt to regard Irish questions, time is necessary, long years of peaceful, persistent, reasoning agitation, such an agitation as Englishmen and Scotchmen will respect. This there are plenty of able and sensible Irishmen ready to carry on, sighing for the chance of carrying on, but just as they are beginning to make themselves heard and to overcome the popular English indifference to Irish troubles, come the O'Mahonys and the B. Doran Killians and all the rest of the herd of wordy, brazen-faced, brazen-lunged orator and adventurers, and again plunge the whole cause into ridicule and ruin by some astounding outburst of folly —an attack on the British empire with fifty pikemen, or an attempt to capture the British fleet with a fishing smack.

There is, however, about Fenianism one consoling feature, which leads us to hope that it may really serve the purpose of manuring a respectable tree of Irish liberty, and which is worth the notice of every student of history. Our readers may remember that in an early number of The Nation we accounted, not for Irish grievances, but for the futility and absurdity of such attempts to remedy them, by alleging that the Irish people were one or two stages behind all other Western races in political development. They are, in fact, the only Christian people of Europe who are still governed by the political ideas of a thousand years ago. They, in the first place, carry the clan feeling of devotion to persons rather than principles into all political contests; and, in the second, have never until now succeeded in separating religion from politics. What is remarkable in this Fenian movement is that in it, for the first time, politics have been completely secularized in the minds of a very large body of the Irish people. The movement is entirely independent of the Church, is condemned by the clergy is carried on without reference to its religious bearing, and owes all its force to considerations wholly mundane. This is unquestionably an indication of great progress, and, as such, is worthy of note, as no matter what the fate of the Fenian movement may be, and it can have but one, it foreshadows the possibility of a sympathy and co-operation between Irishmen and the liberal and progressive men of other races and countries which has hitherto been out of the question.

HOW TO OFFICER THE REGULAR ARMY.

The proceedings of Congress will be searched in vain for any practical project of officering the regular army with men of ability. There is much talk everywhere about the size of the future military establishment, a matter which the necessities of the times will regulate more decisively than any legislative acts. But on the far more important point of elevating the morale of the national troops and strengthening the national power by providing efficient officers, it would seem as if all the lessons of the war had been wasted. Only the crudest and most ill-considered plans are proposed,—such as the resolution of the Ohio Legislature, presented to the House by Mr. Schenck, regarding the appointment of volunteer officers in the proposed addition to the regular army. No one seems to comprehend the nature of the military profession, the peculiar character it develops everywhere, or to be acquainted with the customs and traditions which have in this country shaped the management of the army.

The inevitable tendency of military life long pursued is to dwarf the intellectual powers. Exceptions may and do exist in the cases of persons occupying peculiar positions, or possessing a peculiar mental constitution; but as a general rule it is safe to say that, after a certain point, the longer a man stays in the army, the less he knows. The profession has no healthy contact or competition with other professions. Its members are shut out not simply from all those opportunities and influences which develop and encourage literary taste and effort, but also from the wide social and political sympathies, the thoughts and feelings, which take up the hearts and lives of other men, and which build up strong characters through the agency of moral qualities reacting upon the mind. These things, true at any time of any army, are aggravated with us by the insignificant size of our military establishment and by the traditions which have prevailed in its management. The former is a necessity; but there is no good reason why the customs of the service in the internal administration of the army should any longer set aside the dictates of common sense. The national troops can never be furnished with efficient officers under any plan now proposed; and there is no better way of showing what the condition of things will be if no radical changes are made, than by showing what it has been.

The army has generally been so small that entrance into it has been difficult, and promotion in it, even under the most favorable circumstances, has been slow; and as if to cut off every attraction to men of talent and every effort for distinction, entrance into it has depended not upon capacity but upon political influence, and promotion in it not upon merit, nor entirely upon seniority. The natural tendency has been to drive the men of ability and ambition belonging to it into other professions. This was seen in the most marked manner in the long period of peace which prevailed from 1815 to 1861, unbroken save by the petty episode of the Mexican war. With now and then an exception, the ablest officers, after a few years of service, entered upon some civil pursuit. A sketch of the life lived and the character developed by any one of those who remained will serve as a sketch for nearly all. His earlier years were spent in very petty fighting or very serious flirting, according as he was stationed at Fort Laramie or at Fort Lafayette. These pursuits were diversified by occasional trips around the country at the expense of the Government, under the guise of recruiting. As he advanced in years his opinions and acts ran more and more in the

same old ruts which had been worn deep by the customs and feelings of the class to which he belonged. He became terrible in details. Knew the regulations by heart, and considered the laws of honor as constituting the highest moral code. From principle, from education, and from habit he shunned responsibility. He took no risks. He rarely issued an important order, no matter how pressing the necessity, without first writing or telegraphing for instructions. He was generally as careful to save money for the Government as many of his successors have been to defraud it. "He hated," to use the language of a correspondent, "all changes whatever, but especially any which required him to learn over what he had once learned; clung to the musket with its buck-and-ball cartridge with all the fervor of a first love, regarded rifles as an invention of the adversary, and looked upon breech-loaders as anathema maranatha. As he grew old he grew fond of drinking, and indulged in a mild kind of gambling as his principal pastime. In justice to him, it is to be said that he usually got drunk on good liquor, and, until these days of high duties and cheap excesses, disdained whiskey. Whether professing religion or not, on occasions whose importance seemed to demand it he swore. Thirty to forty years of solitary life, of hard frontier service, and harder drinking, dissipated at last what few brains he had had originally. As he rose in rank he sank in intellect, so that he usually attained about the same time to a full colonelcy and hopeless imbecility. Lingering in this position a few years, he finally dropped into his grave from a life in which he had learned to look upon fussiness as activity, and a knowledge and strict performance of trivial duties and points of military etiquette as the highest test of soldierly proficiency."

This is no doubt an exaggerated picture. But it would probably have been impossible to find any profession in which the ability of the members averaged so low as that of the officers of the regular army who were in actual service at the breaking out of the late war. The exception in the case of a few of the rebel leaders was more an apparent than a real one, and the state of society which caused even this exception has now passed away. In the South, the system of slavery, by bringing all labor into contempt, had the tendency to make the pursuit of arms one of the few avenues to position and success. Many of their ablest men consequently chose it, and some remained in it. But it was not so in the North, as the melancholy failure of nearly all of those officers showed who, by virtue of holding high positions in the regular army, were given at first important commands in the volunteer service. They proved themselves as incapable of commanding the vast bodies of men they nominally led, as they were of comprehending the character of the struggle in which they were engaged. They gained no successes, save by accident, and failed to improve the very victories into which they had blundered. Their self-sufficiency and incompetency would have been laughable had not national unity been the stake for which, and human lives the counters with which, this game was played.

In every country the higher offices of the army are apt to be filled by such men in time of peace. There is danger now that we will again drift into this state. For, in addition to the natural tendency of men to compromise and half-way measures, there are many influences which work against any radical change in the manner of officering the army. Senators and representatives are unwilling to give up the privilege of conferring positions in the service on the relatives of influential constituents. Prominent members of the Veteran Reserve Corps have been, ever since the close of the war, earnestly endeavoring to induce Congress to inflict upon the national army the organized indolence of that body. Senator Wilson expects to grind out competent officers through the agency of examining boards, which will be just as worthless in the future as they have been in the past. Without stopping to discuss the various plans proposed, we simply give four essential changes which, in our judgment, will commend themselves to the common sense of practical men everywhere, and will agree with the conclusions of most thinking military men who are not wedded to the traditions and policy of the past:

1. The abolition of the system of appointments as a means of admission to the Military Academy, and the opening of that institution, on impartial competitive examination, to every one wishing to enter, subject only to the limitations of age, acquirements, and ability.

2. Promotion by seniority up to and including the grade of captain; above that grade by selection on the ground of merit and capacity. This selection, the most delicate and difficult of duties, to be entirely out from under the shadow of political influence, and entrusted solely to the higher officers of the army, whose approval shall be necessary to every such promotion, and who shall be held responsible for the fitness and character of the men they recommend.

3. The appointment of a limited number of officers from the ranks annually after strict competitive examination.

4. Prohibition of the appointment of any man from civil life as an officer unless he shall have previously served a specified time in the ranks, and then only upon examination. We print elsewhere a reply to some of our strictures on the condition of the Academy, from an esteemed correspondent, whose statements and opinions on this matter are worthy of all respect. Our former article was not intended, however, to be a denial of the value of the school, but a lamentation over the extent to which it had failed to accomplish what it ought to accomplish. We certainly never meant to stultify ourselves so far as to assert or imply that it had not produced many officers and scientific men of the highest rank.

A GLANCE AT THE STATE OF EUROPE.

When, in the early summer of 1864, that double series of battles and marches was in progress on this continent which forms the most remarkable chapter in post-Napoleonic military history, the lighter din of arms which had for a time disturbed the peace of Europe gradually died away. Denmark, overwhelmed by her foes, paid the penance of national arrogance by submitting to the viler arrogance of conquering monarchs. Poland, once more prostrate, atoned in silence for another ebullition of the patriotism, fostered by despair, which attacks without counting the enemy. The half-exterminated Circassians commenced their exodus from the desolated forests and gorges of the Caucasus, wandering in destitution even as far as Tunis. This general cessation of hostilities was followed by a period of unbroken tranquillity, such as Europe rarely enjoys at once, from the Volga to the Tagus, as well as of monstrous dulness in politics. For a time all motion seemed to be suspended, and a deep stagnation or a new and violent convulsion likely to follow. Neither has taken place. Peace has remained unbroken to this day, no extraordinary events have occurred, but slow and natural developments have quite recently given rise to interesting situations in most of the countries of Europe. Let us cast a rapid glance over all of them.

To begin with the south-western corner of the continent. Portugal is starting on a career of progressive reforms, and instead of being, as formerly, coveted as a prey by her more powerful neighbor, her liberal young King, Don Luiz, has become a star of hope to all ardent minds of the Peninsula who dream of a united and free Iberian kingdom. Spain the Bourbon throne has barely escaped a violent shock haps overthrow, with which it was menaced by the mil tion under Prim; but the latter was too slight an outb panied by too little commotion, to be regarded as volcanic eruption, which would leave the warrin time. The Government will try in vain to dro satisfaction of the advanced classes of the peopl South America, for these will only aggravate ment, the principal source of its troubles and Chili and Peru likely to enrich enervated Spain did lately Mexico and St. Domingo. On the other s too, warlike expeditions to America have served little to sa higher aspirations of the nation, and their ill success, caused by expected collapse of the Southern Confederacy, has placed Napo abler and mightier ruler than O'Donnell, in a position which le no other alternative but reckless persistency or a shameful retreat, both equally fraught with danger to the artificial structure of the new French empire. The Corps Législatif is opened, *l'empereur s'excuse*, and the opposition is ready to open the attack.

No less interesting are the circumstances under which the

new British Parliament opens its first session. Momentous questions press upon it from every side. Reform is promised and expected. Fenianism undermines the ground in Ireland. Victorious America urges heavy claims for indemnification. There is trouble in Jamaica, Canada, New Holland. More impressible than all, a terrible plague scourges the rural districts. And all these storms old England has to weather at a moment when her most experienced and trusted helmsman, Palmerston, who so often successfully steered her ship of state, has just fallen. Belgium mourns the loss of a wise leader in her first king, and, under his son, a disciple of priests, enters upon an unknown sea, not unexpectant of tempests and rocks. Holland, who generally wears the mark (as Schiller says) of virtuous women and happy states in not being spoken of, now lies in the throes of a ministerial crisis. Denmark is engaged in remodelling her constitution so as to suit her now diminished proportions. Her happier Scandinavian sister, Sweden, has, without the impulsion of a shock from abroad, remodelled hers agreeably to the demands of the age and of justice, abolishing her unwieldy four legislative chambers, based upon caste, and introducing a more just and regular system of national representation in two houses. Russia, victorious over Poles, Caucasians, and caste, tries the first rudiments of representative government in her provincial assemblies, which are, however, so much under the direct guidance and control of the imperial authorities as to be denounced by the opposition as serving rather to limit the old autonomy of the municipalities than to create a self-rule in the *gubernias*. The work of denationalizing Poland and converting it—*per fas et nefas*—into a homogeneous part of the empire, is pushed forward with remorseless rigor, the means used to obtain this object in Lithuania being little less tyrannical than those employed by Philip II. against the Moriscoes. While the Czar is thus engaged in reforming his empire, Turkey enjoys a period of comparative peace and quiet, though the elements of decomposition are steadily at work in her inner structure. Bosnia, Herzegovina, and Montenegro, it is true, have ceased to trouble the divan of Stamboul with their periodic outbreaks, but Moldo-Wallachia is consolidating her independence under Prince Couza, a protégé and disciple of Napoleon; and Servia, under Michael Obrenovitch, is watching events in adjoining Hungary and Croatia, to avail herself of new contingencies to extend her autonomy and territorial power.

Greece, aggrandized by the annexation of the Ionian Isles, shows under her new Dano-German dynasty, no less restlessness than she did under the rule of the Bavarian Otho, being divided by a violent desire for outward expansion and an equally violent impatience of royal encroachments within. Italy advances, not without shocks or stumblings, but steadily, towards the territorial and moral consummation of her national unity. The period fixed by the Convention of Paris for the evacuation of Rome by the French troops is approaching its termination. Pio Nono's sands of life are, apparently, near running out, and Antonelli and the lower pillars of the Church are unable to prevent the Government of Florence from executing its measures tending to emancipate the state from the shackles of the clergy, and [illegible] to appropriate the domains of the latter. Unpopular as La M[illegible] cabinet is, it is firmly supported by the bulk of the peo[illegible] h extremes of the opposition, which, by their nature, [illegible] binet in an effort for its overthrow. Austria has ceas[illegible] Francis the Second, late of Naples, can do nothing b[illegible] g away of his "brigand" hosts.

[illegible] side of the Alps, Switzerland, though failing [illegible] pt to carry through a systematic revision of the federal constitution, has made a great step in advance by adopting the amendments conferring equality of rights on native and naturalized citizens of all religious denominations, by which the greatest blot on the Swiss charters has been erased. The great "empire of the centre," Germany, tries in vain to march one nation[illegible] way. Every step towards unity is followed by two towards complete dissolution. The Schleswig-Holstein war has made this more apparent, and the impotence of the *Bund* as well as of the nation more glaring than ever. Those Duchies are kept illegally out in the cold; the Duchy of Lauenburg has, as illegally, been appropriated by Prussia. The Diet of the latter kingdom vainly protests against this as well as other usurpations of the Crown. The Diet speaks, Bismark acts. The condition of the minor states, of which Bavaria and Würtemberg have new kings, is not much more encouraging to the friends of a free and united Germany, while Austria seems entirely to have stepped out of the German communion, led by her endeavor to reconcile the Hungarian nation. For the moment the Austrian centre of gravity seems to have been transferred from Vienna, which is now deprived of its Reichsrath, to Pesth, where an imposing Hungarian Diet holds its sittings, where Francis Joseph plays the Magyar, and utters solemn vows of good behavior in that language, and where the future of the empire seems really to be trembling in the balance. Austria will come out of this experiment either as a constitutional Hungaro-Germano-Slavic confederation or as a newly centralized absolute realm, in both cases, probably, with irremediable germs of dissolution in her bosom. The spectacle at Pesth is, in the meanwhile, the most interesting, the grandest appearance on the checkered board of European politics.

Thus there appear movements, not unaccompanied by progress, almost everywhere in Europe. The most violent process seems to take place in Austria, the most powerful in Russia, the most natural and progressive in Italy, the least perceptible in France. Thus it appears to-day: who will venture to say what aspects to-morrow's day will present?

WHO SHALL ELECT A STATE CONVENTION?

We give place, with much pleasure, to a communication from an esteemed correspondent questioning the soundness of our views upon the subject of elections for delegates to a State convention. We fully comprehend that the new application which we gave, in our article of February 22, to an old doctrine, will startle most persons who have not thoroughly studied the question. Discussion is to be welcomed, since the interest excited by discussion will finally impress the truth all the more deeply upon the public mind.

In the first place, it is essential that the *facts*, upon the basis of which the argument is to be conducted, should be agreed upon. According to our ideas, there can be no question as to the following points:

1. That, at the organization of the existing Federal Government, none of the States except South Carolina restricted the suffrage to white men by any express words.

2. That, as a matter of fact, free men of color exercised the right of voting in all the States with the like exception.

3. That there is not, and never has been, in any State, a permanent and general provision, by constitution or statute, regulating the mode of choosing a State convention—at least so far as the qualifications of electors are concerned.

4. That, in a majority of the States, and especially in this State, conventions have been repeatedly summoned and held, notwithstanding the total absence of all authority for such proceedings in the constitutions of the States.

5. That the members of a State convention never take the oath to support the constitution of their State, which is required by every such constitution from State officers.

6. That such a convention is subject to no restrictions whatever, except such as may be imposed by the United States or by the law summoning the convention, or except, possibly, an obligation to submit its work to a popular vote—which last points must be considered doubtful.

Our correspondent objects to our use of the word "revolution," in connection with proceedings so orderly and peaceable as the framing of a new constitution. He thinks a "normal revolution" a contradiction in words. Yet Webster defines the word as simply meaning "a material or entire change in the constitution of government." Surely revolutions may be peaceful. If the Emperor of France should to-morrow, conscience-smitten, resign his throne, and dismiss his legislature, and thereupon the people should quietly, and in perfect order, elect a Constituent Assembly, and establish a republic, would not that be a revolution? Now the calling of a State convention is an act precisely analogous to this. It is intended that the convention, when it

meets, shall have absolute power to abrogate the whole existing government, and to substitute a new one. It may or may not *use* that power, but the *power* is there, and was meant to be placed there. Thus the last convention in New York displaced every judicial officer in the State, except justices of the peace, and unseated three-fourths of the State Senate before the expiration of the terms for which they were elected. In Missouri, two successive conventions within the last five years have swept out hundreds of officers. The first of those conventions (elected in January, 1861) removed every important officer in the State in one day, from the governor and legislature downwards. What revolution could be more sweeping than this?

Our entire frame of government having been revolutionary in its origin, the American people have universally held the right of revolution sacred, and have sought to recognize it so effectually that its exercise, being always undisputed, might be always peaceable. According to their interpretation, this right of revolution means neither more nor less than the right of the majority of the whole State to change at will the form of State government, so far as it can be done without infringing upon the rights of the national Government. Nearly all the constitutions adopted within the last forty years recognize this principle in the clearest language. The constitutions of Alabama, Florida, Mississippi, Arkansas, and Texas, for example, while explicit in defining the persons who are "qualified electors," and invariably using that phrase in every paragraph which refers to popular elections, are nevertheless equally explicit in asserting that *the people* have an absolute right at all times to change their form of government. Why did they not use the words "qualified electors" in that clause as well as in the half-dozen widely separated clauses which relate to elections? They declare that the governor shall be chosen by the "qualified electors," in another article that the Senate shall be chosen by the "qualified electors," in yet another article that the Lower House shall be chosen by the "qualified electors," in still another that the judges shall be chosen by the "qualified electors," and so on through the whole range of elective officers. Why this wearisome iteration, why this accuracy of definition, if the word "people" would have meant the same thing? And why should we assume that men who were so careful to express their exact meaning in every article of the organic law except one, became loose and inaccurate in shaping the language of that one?

In truth, there was no mistake and no want of comprehension of the meaning of language in framing these constitutions. Our correspondent suggests the key to the whole mystery when he says that the doctrine which we now advocate was maintained long ago "by many of those calling themselves, *par excellence*, "the Democrats." Precisely so, except that for "many" we should read "most." This was one main foundation of the strength of the Democratic party. When Thomas Jefferson founded it, a majority of the States restricted the right of suffrage to property holders. The Federalists in general supported these restrictions, and dreaded to admit the whole people into political rights. The Democratic party threw itself upon the support, and asserted the rights, of *the whole people*, in opposition to the exclusive franchises of the property owners. Wherever, in the Northern States at any rate, it obtained power, it used it to extend the area of equal rights. In Connecticut it broke down the old election laws, which limited the suffrage to a minority of the people. In New York it brought about, step by step, universal suffrage. In Rhode Island it struggled for forty years, until, by an attempt at forcible revolution, it compelled the ruling powers to meet it more than half-way. In North Carolina it fought on the same side until 1850 before attaining complete success. These, be it observed, were *State* issues, and did not, therefore, appear in the national platform of the party; but they contributed more than any national issue to its strength; and now that the party is utterly apostate and rotten, the indistinct memory of these old struggles and triumphs in the cause of a broader liberty is the secret of the amazing vitality of the party organization.

Now, it was in full view of this conflict between the *electors* and the *people* that these Southern and Western States framed their constitutions when they made the distinction to which we have referred. True, they made the basis of representation as broad as they thought desirable in any case. But the conventions of these States, during the period of which we speak, invariably contained a large majority of Democrats. They strongly sympathized with their political brethren in other States where the suffrage was restricted. For their sakes, and for the sake of the general principle, the conventions *meant* to, and did, make a clear distinction between the electors and the people, asserting a right in the latter to disregard all the fetters of constitutions and laws when framing a new government, and a right to frame such new government at their pleasure.

These views will be found very clearly expressed in an article in the "Democratic Review" for July, 1842, written by one of the foremost lawyers of the Union, who now takes an active part in resisting the very doctrine which he then supported. Almost the entire Democratic party endorsed this doctrine when the Dorr Government sought to enforce it in Rhode Island. Nor does the result of that controversy prejudice this theory, as our correspondent seems to suppose. Nothing was ever judicially determined, except in the Rhode Island courts, that such action must be taken under the forms of law and in the United States courts, that the political branches of the Federal Government must decide between conflicting State governments.

We cannot in this article cite many authorities, but we will briefly refer to one or two, and may enlarge their number on another occasion.

In Stewart agt. Foster (2 Binney, 110), the Supreme Court of Pennsylvania held that under a charter which authorized all "inhabitants" of Pittsburgh, paying taxes, to vote, *aliens* had a right to vote. Yeates, J., said that females, minors, slaves, and servants for years, could not vote.

In Comyn's Digest (Parliament, D. 10), it is said to have been adjudged on the 8th of May, 1626, that, in elections for a borough, all burgesses ought to vote, unless there is a usage to the contrary, *time out of mind*. And that in a borough which has no burgesses, and no such custom, all householders had a right to vote.

There is certainly no immemorial usage to exclude colored men from voting. Within the recollection of living men, they voted everywhere except in South Carolina, and there they were excluded by positive law, and not by mere custom. When the Democratic party began to fight its battles for the extension of the franchise, there were so few free negroes that it did not occur to the party leaders to exclude them. Afterwards, as they increased in number, they were excepted from the benefit of laws extending the suffrage; but it was too late to exclude them from the benefit of the general principle that the people should govern. It was obviously unnecessary to except slaves, since in the eye of the law they were mere property, and of course no part of the people.

We cannot, at this time, carry our argument further, although it is by no means exhausted. To sum up, we maintain that the people, in a political sense, are all human beings permanently residing in a State who have not been excluded from political rights by the immemorial and universal usage of these United States; that a majority of this people in any State have the supreme power at their discretion to frame its government unfettered by any existing laws. We say that this doctrine has been maintained and enforced by the party which has been dominant for fifty years of our history; that it has been embodied into the organic law of many of our States, especially at the South; that it has been acted upon in this State; and that it is the unwritten law of every State. It lies at the foundation of our whole government, it is an indispensable condition of freedom everywhere, and if it is now repudiated, it will be in the power of any State convention, purchased by bribes or influenced by the spirit of oligarchy, to place the control of the State for ever in the hands of a minute fraction of the community.

EXCELLENCY AND ACCIDENCY.

It was in the last year of that administration which almost the toss of a penny had decided should be Thomas Jefferson's and not Aaron Burr's, that the radical change was made in the constitutional method of filling the two highest offices in the gift of the nation. This change was natural and inevitable. It was brought about by the rise of parties, and, with the gradual perfection of their discipline, the new mode has assumed its present definiteness. No longer do the people trust

unpledged electors to choose the fittest citizens of the republic to occupy the White House and preside over the Senate, nor are they content to ballot vaguely for the best interests of the State rather than for the success of favorite leaders, committed to well-known measures and policies. They dislike to incur the constant risk of a divided administration, and of electors who should disappoint their expectations. They prefer decidedly to enter upon a contest of which the end may be pretty certainly reckoned from the beginning, which could rarely happen as between parties distinguished only by principles and deprived of the personal influence of candidates.

Nevertheless, the old way had advantages which cannot be depreciated, and in theory it must be allowed to have been the more perfect and rational of the two. Its superiority was manifested especially in the dignity which it attached to the office of Vice-President, and in the care with which, when selecting this officer, it nominated him whom the majority, hesitating to pronounce the best, had declared the second best among possible rulers. Thus Adams succeeded Washington, and Jefferson Adams, by a purely logical progression; and if the various parties which, since the Constitution was amended in regard to the electoral college, have triumphed for longer or shorter periods, had conscientiously proposed to the popular suffrage their two most honored representatives, we should have had more than a single example of a like sequence in the present century. Mr. Van Buren was the last Vice-President that ever rose any higher.

That specious sectional balance which, from the first, hampered liberty of selection with considerations of North and South, was preserved till the time of Jackson and Calhoun, remembering whose illustrious and orthodox example the Democracy of 1860 might have spared their denunciations of the Lincoln and Hamlin conjunction, after an interval, to be sure, in which the balance had not again been interrupted. The abolition of slavery has removed the pretext for omitting to promote merit, wherever located in our common country, in order to appease the narrow jealousies of rival sections. The disposition, for the sake of victory, to choose an inferior man from a doubtful State whose vote it is important to obtain, has met so often, like other compromises, its proper reward, that it is time we also heard the last of "availability" and excluded the cheap appeal to State pride from the legitimate means of carrying an election. And if we shall ever again be guilty of disparaging the necessary qualifications of a vice-president, counting it a waste to exchange him for the second citizen of the republic, we shall deserve to, but it is to be hoped we never may, suffer more than we have all already done for such indifference and folly.

As one runs over the list of those who were, in view of possibilities, esteemed the peers of the Presidents with whom their names were coupled by the people, the later figures do not loom upon us like Adams and Jefferson—twin giants, not more close in office than in death; or good old Governor Clinton, of this State; or Governor Elbridge Gerry, of Massachusetts, famous in local caricature for his "Salamander," but more creditably renowned for his refusal to sign the Constitution of the United States in the convention which framed it, because three-fifths of the blacks were to be represented as freemen; and who approved the abolition memorial submitted to the first Congress by Benjamin Franklin, who had "observed with real satisfaction that many important and salutary powers" were vested in them "for promoting the welfare and securing the blessings of liberty to the people of the United States," and had conceived "that these blessings ought rightfully to be administered, without distinction of color, to all descriptions of people." Burr and his treason soften almost into loyalty before the conspiracy of which Calhoun is the patron saint. Van Buren's name will chiefly endure along with and because of the despised Free-Soil party of 1848. His successor, Vice-President Richard M. Johnson, survives in the shadowy memory of Tecumseh. Mr. Dallas lived to be discomfited at a social science congress in England by Lord Brougham, who pointed the American Minister to a negro among the "assistants." Breckinridge will not escape history so easily as he did his betrayed native land.

To do them justice, the Vice-Presidents, as a rule, have not been so detestable, formidable, or contemptible as to induce the nation to pray for the health of their principals. Yet the career of Tyler and of Fillmore might have opened our eyes to the importance of their office. The most horrible charge that has been brought against the American character is not, as some may suppose, that it produced a Booth, but that the lives of three of Mr. Lincoln's predecessors were attempted in order to effect a political *coup d'état*. Tyler's apostasy, if not the price of Harrison's removal, was a consequence which might confidently have been expected in the circumstances. Governor Foote, in his recent work on the war, betrays the alarm with which President Taylor inspired the South by his disposition to secure the Territories for freedom, and confirms the suspicion that he was taken off to make room for the complaisant signer of the Fugitive Slave Law and willing advocate of the compromises of 1850. The poisoning at a Washington hotel, to which Buchanan almost fell a victim, may not improbably be classed with the two instances just mentioned, since it is now apparent how far the then Vice-President could have been relied upon to serve the conspirators who, foreseeing their doom at the ballot-box, were preparing to expose their designs on the field of battle. Whether there be proof enough to sustain this theory, according to which our government becomes a republic "tempered by assassination," we leave to others to determine. That the slave power was capable of anything whereby it seemed likely to accomplish its nefarious purposes we do sincerely believe. However, there can be no question that the fitter the Vice-President to be the weak tool or wicked accomplice of any faction, the stronger must always be the temptation to get rid of an unpliant President. It may even hereafter transpire that the transformation which has come over our accidental Presidents has been wrought by a well-grounded fear of the fate of the last incumbent.

The reform which has been often suggested, of electing the President and Vice-President by the vote of the people, irrespective of State limits, would, for reasons already hinted at, ensure better servants of either degree. But the fundamental remedy for our past mistakes consists in placing as high a value upon the latter as upon the former; perhaps, also, in connecting him more intimately with the administration, as by making him, *ex officio*, a member of the Cabinet.

MY DEAD.

Of my dead,
In life, voices said,
These are noble, these are great,
And beautiful; we wait,
And hold them lovingly.

Of my dead,
In death, voices said,
No sculptured beauty like this sleep
Was ever seen! We, strangers, weep,
And bear them reverently.

Of my dead,
Out of death, led
Immortal—I listen, holding breath
And tears, and hear the things God saith
In heaven, welcoming!

CURIOSITIES OF LONGEVITY.

Everybody likes to hear of cases of remarkable longevity. Everybody, indeed, affirms that he does not wish to attain to it himself, but nobody that we know of seems to be in any hurry to die in order to avoid it. It is a perfectly natural and laudable feeling, however. A very old person is a kind of living monument of past times; and this even if it be a slave who had never left his plantation, or a peasant who had lived out his century on the estate where he was born. What revolutions, what wars, what changes have come over the world since he first drew the breath of life! He has stood still, but what a marvellous procession of personages and events has swept over the earth since he has inhabited it! One cannot help thinking what a different world was the one he left from that he entered. This interest is naturally much greater and this sentiment stronger when the person exciting them has been an actor in the events or a companion of the personages that have so changed the face of things, or even if he have been but a spectator of the one and a chance acquaintance of the other. Such instances seem to connect and bring close together points of time which appear

to us infinitely distant from each other. There was the Marquis di Manso, for instance, who was the common friend of Tasso and of Milton, though the Italian died more than ten years before the English epic poet was born. It were almost worth one's while to have been dead two hundred years to have had such luck as that. Lady Louisa Stuart, the daughter of the famous Earl of Bute, whom our pre-Revolutionary sires used to burn vicariously in the similitude of a *boot*, died since 1850, and actually remembered her grandmother, Lady Mary Wortley Montagu, who died in 1762. She wrote the introductory anecdotes to Lord Wharncliffe's edition of Lady Mary's works. She had seen every celebrity of the last half of the last century and known most of them, from Johnson down to Dickens and Tennyson, and was the intimate friend and correspondent of Scott, and one of the original depositaries of the secret of the authorship of the Waverley novels.

Rogers, "the bard, the beau, the banker," was almost exactly her contemporary, and must have known many personal acquaintances of Pope, Swift, and Gay, and possibly of Addison and Steele. The Berry sisters, who covered about the same period of time with their lives, and who might have been, one or both of them, Dowager Countess of Orford, as the widow of Horace Walpole, for more than fifty years were links connecting the long past with the present and bringing famous people of more than a century ago almost into contact with the present generation. Then "Queeny" Thrale, who was Johnson's "plaything often when a child" and his familiar acquaintance as a grown-up young lady, and to whom he gave his blessing on his death-bed, has not been ten years dead yet; she may have remembered Goldsmith, and certainly knew every other member of the Literary Club and every social and political celebrity of the last ninety years. She was the second wife of the great Admiral Lord Keith. But the instance of English longevity in the higher ranks which seems to have brought distant points of time nearest together was that of the Dowager Countess of Hardwicke, who died, in 1858, at near a hundred years old. Her father, the Scotch Earl of Balcarras, was "out in the Fifteen" with Lord Derwentwater and Forster, and his life was spared through the intercession of the great Duke of Marlborough. There were two lives of father and daughter which covered more than half of this century, all of the last, and ten years or more of the seventeenth! It is a little odd that a person should have been living eight years ago whose father was strictly a contemporary of the Old Pretender, of Pope and Chesterfield, of Voltaire, and a generation that looks to us as belonging to ancient history. He was, of course, well stricken in years when his daughter was born. But this was not the only curious fact about this longevous dame. Her grandfather was born in 1649, the year distinguished by the lesson in natural history which, according to old Lord Auchinleck, Boswell's father, was taught to kings, viz., that "they have a joint in their necks;" and when he married her grandmother, that most religious king, Charles II., gave away the bride.

Within the last month a long life came to an end in Boston, breaking one of the last links that connect the present times with those before the Revolution. In June, 1774, Copley, the great portrait-painter, the American Van Dyke, sailed for England in the last ship that left the port of Boston before the oppressive Port Bill which closed it went into effect. His three children, a son and two daughters, accompanied him. Two years ago all three of these children were alive. A few weeks since two of them were still living, and one yet survives in England. The son, we need hardly say, was the late Lord Lyndhurst, three times Chancellor, for many years the leader in the lords of the Tory party, and the originator, in his extreme old age, of some of the most important reforms that have ever been made in the English law. He was the Nestor of English statesmen, not only in having survived three generations of breathing men, but in eloquence and in political wisdom, both of which seemed to increase with his years, and were never more marked than when he was on the verge of fourscore and ten. The elder sister, Mrs. Elizabeth Copley Greene, died in Boston, about a month ago, at the age of ninety-five. This venerable lady closed a life as singularly prosperous and happy as it was long by a death of perfect tranquillity and ease. She furnished one of the rare instances of a life completely rounded, and ceasing from no disease or accident, but simply and purely because the vital machine had gradually and painlessly worn itself out and stopped. The growing infirmities of age had withdrawn her for some years from general society, of which she naturally stood at the head from her high social position, her dignified, graceful, and charming manners, her animated and varied conversation, and her kindliness and friendliness of heart. She was liberal, hospitable, and charitable in the dispensing of a large estate, and discharged all the offices of a responsible position conscientiously and with dignity. She will long be remembered by those who had the privilege of her personal acquaintance as a most interesting example of one who had lived one life, as it were, in the last century, and with a generation which exists to us only in history or tradition, before she had begun another long and various life in this hemisphere.

It was odd to sit and talk with one who had known Sir Joshua Reynolds familiarly, not as a child but as a young lady. Copley and Sir Joshua both lived on Leicester Square, which had not then been *mediatized* and reduced to its present dilapidated state. It was a well reputed place of residence in those days, and its flags were trodden by many a famous visitor of its inhabitants. The families of the president of the Academy and of Copley, one of its chief members, were on terms of familiar intimacy, and Mrs. Greene used to delight to expatiate on the perfect manners and Old World grace of Sir Joshua, and to describe the society she used to meet at his delightful house. From the position of her father she had seen all and known many of the chief celebrities of every kind of the last quarter of the last century. She was, perhaps, the very last survivor of the spectators of that splendid scene in "the great hall of William Rufus," which Macaulay has painted in such gorgeous coloring—the opening of the impeachment of Warren Hastings—where "were collected together grace and female loveliness, wit and learning, the representatives of every science and of every art." Of all that splendid audience, it is not likely that a single one is now alive after the lapse of seventy-eight years. To hear an actual eye-witness bear testimony to the truth of the description, and describe the appearance of Burke and Fox and Sheridan in the forefront of the Commons of England as the managers of the impeachment, almost seemed to bring one into personal relations with the scene and the actors, and to make them present to the mind rather as recollections than imaginary presentments. Two days afterwards she heard the great opening speech of Burke, which has passed into literature as an example of eloquence not excelled in ancient or modern times. Very few persons, if a single one, can be yet living, on whose ears that voice, now silent for all but seventy years, can have ever fallen, and probably not one who heard that crowning triumph of its power. These are things which make one feel that the long past and the present are not separated by sharp divisions, as it is apt to seem to us at a distance, but glide gradually and imperceptibly into one another, kindred drops of one great stream of time.

About the beginning of this century Miss Copley, being then about thirty years of age, married Gardiner Greene, of Boston, a man of large fortune and a gentleman of the old school of finished courtesy and perfect politeness. Here another life of some sixty-five years was past. Her residence for about the half of it was in one of those old pre-Revolutionary houses, built and its accompaniments laid out before land was sold by the square foot. Such were to be found in all our large cities forty years ago, and especially in Boston, before the ruthless hand of improvement had swept them out of its way. The tradition is that it was the quarters for a portion of the time of the siege of Boston, at least, of Earl Percy, and it was certainly occupied by Mrs. Hayley, the sister of John Wilkes, whose lot was cast in some way inexplicable by us upon Boston for a while. It stood on the slope of one of the three hills which gave Boston its second title of Trimountain, and was approached by flights of steps through a spacious "front-yard." The garden behind the house was terraced to the top of the hill, which was crowned by large forest trees—English elms, if we recollect aright. Here it abutted upon other gardens on the other slopes of the hill. It was a unique place, with "no second and no third" like unto it that we know of in any city. It should have been bought by the city and preserved as a pleasure-ground for the people. But aldermen are not æsthetic in their ideas, and the speculators stepped in and it all soon vanished out of sight. They had faith sufficient to remove the fair hill and cause it to be cast into the sea and to conjure up heaps of brick and mortar in its place. We are happy to believe, however, that the speculation was a very bad one. In this charming abode she lived out her second generation of men, with another thirty years to spare before her summons came. What changes had she not seen come over the face of the world since she entered it! The American Revolution, and its daughter, that of France, the whole career of Bonaparte, the entire history of the United States, from the Convention of 1787 to the crushing of the slaveholders' rebellion! Did any ninety-five years ever comprise more eventful and more fruitful history than hers? We think not, and believe that her example well deserves to be added to those we have related as one of the curiosities of longevity.

WASTE.

It will not be very strange if our remote posterity have rather a poor opinion of us, their excellent ancestors. They will have learned so much of which we are ignorant that our civilization, admirable as it is, may appear somewhat rude to them. Happy as we are, the time may come when we shall seem to still happier generations to have had but scant experience of the good things of this world. They will hardly look back to our days,

as Dante did to those of his ancestor Cacciaguida, or as we look back to pre-Revolutionary times, as presenting a picture of delightful simplicity of manners and innocence of living. And yet they will not give us credit for having gained much in place of our lost innocence. It would be a little trying, but perhaps it is not impossible that they may even regard us as having hardly got out of the woods of barbarism, and may detect underneath our superficial pretences the old habits of the savage still clinging to us.

We are, indeed, so well off that even this poor opinion need not matter much to us. But we might, if we chose, be a good deal better off. The arrangements for the comfort, quiet, and enjoyment of daily life are, to say the least, not quite so perfect as they might be. M. Blot's excellent lectures on cookery are a rather sharp criticism on our tastes and manners. Will not some other M. Blot come to teach us how to dress well, or how to build and furnish comfortable houses?

Who knows how to be rich in America? Plenty of people know how to get money; but not very many know what best to do with it. To be rich properly is, indeed, a fine art. It requires culture, imagination, and character. A man who should practise this art with success would be one of the greatest benefactors of his time. He might win a pure fame and leave an enduring example. To be rich is to be able to be magnanimous; to conceive and to execute large, splendid, and permanent designs. It is to be at ease and to set others at ease. It is only the rich man who does not know how to be rich that finds it hard to enter into the kingdom of heaven. The man who knows the art passes through even this life, to use one of the fine phrases of Marcus Aurelius, "like one who has entrusted to the gods, with his whole soul, all that he has." Suppose such a rich man to live in our time! "Assuredly," said Solon to Crœsus, "he who possesses great store of riches is no nearer happiness than he who has what suffices for his daily needs;" but surely he has some means of happiness which the other does not possess.

One of the signs of the barbaric as distinguished from the civilized temper is the tendency to waste; and the less waste in a community, the higher, other things being equal, is its civilization. Our social organization does not come out well if tried by this test. We Americans are given to wastefulness. It is the reaction from the parsimony and narrow frugalities of the hard early days of the nation, and is one of the consequences of our rapid growth in wealth. New York wastes every day more than would have supplied all its wants fifty years ago; and, what is worse, it wastes the very source of its own prosperity. Dirt is honest and useful matter in the wrong place. To correct this misplacement occupies a great part of the life of every man. The accumulation of dirt on a large scale is productive of innumerable offences and dangers to society. To utilize this accumulation by its proper distribution is one of the chief objects of social organization; to waste it is to destroy one of the chief elements of social prosperity. It has been well said that the value of the dirt of a city in any given time is far greater than that of any single product of industry or any article of commerce. No gold mine is so full of value as the dirt of our streets. It is on the proper distribution and application of this dirt, or its replacement in its right position, that the very life of the city in the long run depends.

England has been lately warned by a high authority of the fatal diminution of her resources and her powers by her rejection and waste of the dirt of her cities. What the city draws to herself from the country and turns to dirt, must be returned to the country if the land is to remain capable of sustaining the continuous drain. Nature takes a slow but sure revenge for the neglect of man. Dirt wasted corrupts the air and the waters, impoverishes the land, breeds pestilence, produces poverty, and increases misery. Dirt utilized makes the land rich, supplies the stores of nature, diminishes poverty, increases happiness, and lengthens life. And yet we waste our dirt and tax ourselves to pay the expense attending the waste of it.

Our habit of wastefulness shows itself in the very construction of our cities. Hardly a house in New York is a hundred years old. The city has been pulled down and rebuilt within the memory of man. It is likely to be pulled down and rebuilt again before the end of the century. This is, no doubt, due in part to the absolute requirements of progress, to the change in habits and in business, and to a natural growth. But, however much of the rebuilding may be assigned to these causes, there is still much that is merely and disastrously wasteful; for the waste of labor, of capital, of design, involved in this constant process of destruction and renewal is beyond computation. Each successive generation has to do over again work that might be done once for all. Work lasts but twenty years which should last for a thousand. The accumulation of capital is impeded, labor is employed unproductively, progress in all cultivation is retarded, and the plainest dictates of economy and good sense are set at naught. New York seems to fulfil the suggestion of Mr. Hawthorne's cynical humor, that no dwelling should be allowed to serve for more than one generation of men. One of the reasons why we fail to rival the Old World in the possession of the products of civilization, is that we have spent and are spending so much of our time and wealth and energy in doing work over and over again. The palaces of Venice were not more costly than the palaces of the Fifth Avenue. But those of the Fifth Avenue have no tenure of existence. The palaces of Florence are old, but better than new. How shall the arts flourish among us if their best productions are to be more short-lived than the artist?

For the mere material waste implied in this destruction and rebuilding is not all. We fling away the inheritance of memories and associations which dignify and exalt life, which connect it by visible monuments with the past and the future. Both the imagination and the affections suffer where there is nothing venerable for them to cling to, where there is no hope of permanence for their highest achievements. We make our lives barren by this waste.

Fine as our houses look, comfortable as many of them are, they have not grown out of the heart. They miss the essence of home. They are but the lodging places of a family, and next year they will be to let to new inmates. In one of his delightful descriptions of an English place Mr. Hawthorne says:

"All about the house and domain there is a perfection of comfort and domestic taste, an amplitude of convenience, which could have been brought about only by the slow ingenuity and labor of many successive generations, intent upon adding all possible improvement to the home where years gone by and years to come give a sort of permanence to the intangible present. An American is sometimes tempted to fancy that only by this long process can real homes be produced. One man's lifetime is not enough for the accomplishment of such a work of art and nature, almost the greatest merely temporary one that is confided to him; too little, at any rate—yet perhaps too long when he is discouraged by the idea that he must make his house warm and delightful for a miscellaneous race of successors, of whom the one thing certain is that his own grandchildren will not be among them."

This absence of the sense of permanent possession, and hence of interest in the real worth of things, is one main cause of the evil of slight and poor work, which involves not only waste but dishonesty. The dishonesty of poor work may seem of little account to those who are content with makeshifts. But, to look at it from the lowest point of view, bad work costs in the long run far more than good. In many of our trades the thorough workman is rare. Our houses themselves, our furniture, our books, our shoes, too often give the plainest evidence of the prevalence of bad work. It is in the main our own fault, for we are apt to prefer a so-called cheapness to excellence. We have, too, so much work to do that we slight it all. But the careless workman is, according to Proverbs, "brother to him that is a great waster."

Another most prevalent source of waste among us, and another indication of the Oriental barbarism of our tastes, is in our fondness for mere extravagance and display unaccompanied by refinement or comfort. The upholstery of a steamboat saloon or a hotel parlor, the white satin hangings of the silly "bridal apartments," the wearisome excess of delicacies at our public and private entertainments, and the style of much of the dressing of our women, are among the most obvious instances of an extravagance which is purely wasteful, without any compensation of elegance, luxury, or even splendor. We are young and fond of youthful follies, and shall get over them in time, no doubt; but it is a pity that our good sense should be bullied by the vanity of "shoddy" and "petroleum."

The readers of Mr. Marsh's admirable book on "Man and Nature" will not have forgotten how strikingly he exhibits the wasteful manner of our dealing with nature herself, and with what force he sets forth the penalties that follow upon it. The resources of nature are inexhaustible; but man may exhaust the stores which she has provided for his use, and may so deal with her as to prevent her from replenishing them. Already the great continental forests, wantonly desolated, begin to fail in their supply. The destruction of the woods diminishes the stream of the rivers, and the axe in the hands of the wasteful wood-cutter cuts off the waters from our mills and lessens the tonnage in our river ports. We kill the goose who laid daily the golden egg. Like profligates, we waste the inheritance of our children, and hand down to them the ancient estate encumbered with post-obits, the records of our useless squanderings.

A DESCENT INTO THE DEPTHS.

SIXTH WARD.

THERE are phases of human degradation, the revelation whereof (as the world is at present organized) can only be justified when there is a possibility of thereby subserving some special good. The simple contemplation of vice or misery may gratify that keen curiosity which is ready to explore every

crypt of our nature, but it had better be omitted unless it excite enquiry into causes, influences, and methods of prevention. *Passive* knowledge of evil is often itself remotely an evil.

I believe, however, that there is a necessity for what some may consider a repulsive acquaintance with the manner of life of those who dwell in the depths of this misgoverned city, burrowing beneath its ostentation, its reckless gaiety, its haste and excitement. Out of these caverns come votes; and from the votes, again—so far as they go—comes the government which increases misery by neglect, and thus increases the vice bred from it. There is as inevitable a connection between filth and vice as between manure and potatoes.

Last Saturday night, at nine o'clock, I found myself, in company with two friends, at the headquarters of the Metropolitan Police, in Mulberry Street. It was raining dismally, and the detective officer whom Mr. Inspector Carpenter had summoned to be our pilot, informed us that we had chosen a most unfavorable time for our proposed inspection of the cellars and barracks of the Sixth and Fourth Wards. The dance-houses are rigidly closed at midnight on Saturday, and we should be disappointed, he said, in our object of seeing the worst people of the city in their worst aspect. We judged, however, that in such a storm we should probably find most of the inmates of the lodging-houses at home, and might learn something of their ordinary habits of life before making acquaintance with their modes of recreation. So, at ten o'clock, we took a Fourth Avenue car for that part of Centre Street nearest to the Five Points.

The rain still poured out of the pitchy sky, and our first plunge into gutter-torrents and pools of liquid mud, guessing at the sidewalks in the dingy gas-light, was a pleasant preparation for the scenes that followed. At the police station we were received by Captain Jordan (whose recent detection of the Concord Bank robbers is only one of his exploits). A keen, intelligent, determined man is he, with a head like General Grant's in its air of mingled boldness and caution, and his forehead none the worse for a scar here and there. In a few words he marked out our course to a policeman familiar with the locality and its inhabitants. The latter lighted a lantern, and, after receiving a parting instruction of "Be sure and take them up Jacob's Ladder," preceded us into the street.

We were already on the borders of the vilely-famous region. The gloom of the night could not conceal the shabby, tumble-down appearance of the houses on either side, nor the long ridges of filth in the streets, the smells of which, constantly beaten down by the rain, we were fortunately spared. Our nostrils would soon have need of all the refreshment they could get. With the exception of three or four dram-shops and corner groceries, the shutters of the houses were closed, few persons were abroad, and the street was silent and deserted. Occasionally a dull murmur of voices came down from somewhere above, or seemed to rise from under the pavement.

The policeman presently mounted an old flight of steps, and we, following, found ourselves in a large bare room, with a bar in one corner and two dirty billiard-tables occupying the centre. Fifteen or twenty boys, between the ages of eight and sixteen, were handling the cues, smoking, swearing, spitting, or indulging in "rummy" conversation. Two loafers hung over the stove, and a negro boy was asleep in a chair. The proprietor—or rather his agent, during his temporary residence on Blackwell's Island—stood at the bar, but kept a watchful eye upon his guests. Our entrance created no surprise nor even curiosity; the boys, young "sneak-thieves," incipient burglars, and garroters, some of them, smoked, and knocked the billard-balls about, and ventilated their playful epithets, scarcely taking the trouble to look at us. The negro boy, half aroused with difficulty, gave us with shut eyes the information that he was from South Carolina, and his former master's name was Dick Hatch, after which he relapsed into sleep.

Most of the faces, I noticed, had the wide Celtic mouth and stumpy nose. The younger boys, for all their aping of the manners of the older, retained a certain frankness and openness of expression; but the others were already stamped with low cunning, alert and wary as those of full-grown thieves. For these there is no reclamation. I wasted no pity upon them, for they would have hooted at the very idea.

Our next visit was subterranean. The wet, rotten steps descended almost perpendicularly against a door of planks, barred on the inside, but swiftly opened at our policeman's summons. I inhaled a last mouthful of fresh air, and plunged into a dim, dank, pestilential atmosphere. The walls were of bare stone, trickling with moisture; the floor boarded, indeed, but so covered with dirt as to be rather that than wood, and there was neither window, flue, nor hole of any kind to admit the air. Most of the space was taken up with berths of rough plank, built up in double tiers; the beds in them were either bundles of black rags or layers of foul straw. This was a lodging-house, made to contain twelve or more persons in a space fifteen feet square. The price of a bed is ten cents, and the rent paid by the lady-proprietress of the den ten dollars a month!

A few paces off there was another still worse, a part of the front cellar having been taken for the storage of lager-beer, so that the "lodging" was ten feet from light and air. We had barely room to stand between the bunks and the trickling wall. Ragged articles of clothing hung from strings along the beams, and I was obliged to stoop to avoid shuddering contact with them. In the reeking, sodden beds lay several married (?) couples who had already retired, while the other lodgers sat upon the floor around a kerosene lamp, which seemed to burn under difficulties. One of these persons, a woman with a baby and bruised eyes, informed us that she was "bespoke" to the man sitting beside her. Thereupon the two laid their cheeks lovingly together, and said they were going to be true to each other. We were not much moved by this exhibition of affection; for both were tolerably drunk.

The landlord, an old Irishman, seemed to take a curious pride in showing us the vileness of his den—how damp the walls were, how dirty the floor, how impossible for fresh air to enter. Rent, ten dollars a month—that of a comfortable two-story house in Philadelphia. When I mentioned this to him, he said: "Ay, I know it—or in Albany or Massachusetts, either." As we turned to leave, he added, whimperingly, "You won't do anything to my injury, will you?" This, the policeman explained, was a gentle hint for a contribution.

The next place appeared, at first sight, to be slightly better, inasmuch as there was a penny-grocery in front and two rooms in the rear, each of the latter containing two double beds instead of the usual bunks. But here, also, there was neither light nor air, and the smell was hardly to be endured. In one bed lay two children, in another two men, chance lodgers. The whole cellar occupied a space of ten by twenty feet. Lodgings, ten cents; rent, *sixteen* dollars a month.

These places were types of six or eight others which we visited, all in the Five Points. Everywhere the same crowd of unwashed humanity, the same rags and filth, the same stifling, stagnant atmosphere. The men were either abject, besotted, and reckless creatures, or criminals of a low and cowardly order; the women, with one exception, coarse, hard-featured, and having, for the most part (as the Scotchman in "Alton Locke" says), "their mouths full of vitriol and beastly words." That exception was a young Irishwoman, whose husband is lying in one of the hospitals with a broken arm. She had a pleasant, pretty face, and kept herself as decent as the miserable circumstances of her life would allow.

There was, also, a little back from the street, an old, rickety frame house, where the appearances slightly improved. We waded through a pool of mud and water to the door, and inspected the two dwellings (about ten by fifteen feet each) on the ground floor. In one there was a quantity of shabby furniture; the walls were covered with cheap pictures, and the inmates had evidently made some effort to conceal the repulsiveness of their poverty. But the two stalls in the rear were simply air-tight boxes, so small that the sleepers would have been rapidly suffocated had the doors been closed. The other lodging was even worse. There was neither floor nor bed in the sleeping-stalls; only a thin litter of straw covered the damp earth. In one stall lay a child, so curled and twisted among the rags that only a tuft of soft golden hair was visible; in the other two young fellows of twenty slept, huddled close against each other for warmth.

It was a great relief when the officer conducted us to a billiard-saloon frequented by the Italians of the region. Here we found order and comparative decency. The polite, graceful manners of the men implied a certain amount of self-respect, the utter absence of which had painfully impressed us in the lodging-houses. Certainly no races are so lacking in natural courtesy as the Anglo-Saxon and the Celt. The proprietor of t room, a lively little man from Forli, in the Romagna, answered my qu tions with a light, cheerful dignity, and begged me to take a glass of wine with him. The officer, also, gave testimony to the superiority of the poor Italians over the other classes. With proper treatment, he said, they were very obedient and orderly, and gave the police little trouble.

A large lodging-house, fitted up from cellar to garret with narrow bunks, and patronized mostly by Germans, was closed. A little examination, however, showed that one of the cellar-doors was open. On descending the steps I plunged ankle-deep into water, and was then ushered into a narrow, dark hole, where there was barely room to pass between the bunks and the bare wall. Half a dozen persons, all Germans, were sleeping in an atmosphere which can neither be imagined nor described. The officer aroused a woman, who told me, in a broad Bavarian dialect, that she was a house-cleaner, and that her husband, snoring beside her in the cramped berth

made a living by mending harness. Why they lodged in such a place she would not explain.

Close at hand was Cow Bay, and here the officer announced that he was going to take us up Jacob's Ladder. Somehow or other, through the rain and darkness and deepening mud, we reached the foot of a broken, rotting, outside staircase leading to the second story of a miserable building. I will not describe one by one the horrors it contained. One room—and I think we visited eight in all—was a repetition of the other. Worn, broken floors, cracked walls, patched and broken windows (where there were any), and roofs and ceilings through which the rain leaked in streams, were the features of the dwelling. There was more diversity among its inmates. In one room we found an old man in bed, his head cut and swollen to double its size by the erysipelas which supervened, with his wife tending him; in another an old negro, in a singular garment of rags—at least three hundred pieces in his trowsers. He informed us, with a grin, that his rent was always paid in advance—three dollars a month—and every pitcher, pail, or dish he owned catching its separate stream of rain.

Two of the rooms were warmed by open iron kettles of coal, collected from ash-barrels during the day, and the gas was so dense that we could scarcely breathe. In one there was no window, only a square hole closed by a sliding shutter. Here, in a space six feet by twelve, lived a negro pair, paying three dollars a month. In another room, without fire or furniture—a cold, bare, filthy closet under the roof—a woman lay upon the floor. She turned over, looked at us, her face flushed with liquor, answered a few questions, and then sank back with a desperate, dreadful groan, as we turned to leave.

With qualms at the stomach and bitter saliva in the mouth, we crept down this hideous Jacob's Ladder and returned to the mud and rain with a luxury of relief. The first question that came to our lips was: "Who owns these places?" But here it was not so easy to obtain information. It appears that the most of them are leased to parties who sub-let in their turn, so that the money drawn from filth and vice and pestilence undergoes two or three purifications before it is paid for boxes at the opera or cushioned pews in up-town churches.

Yet there had been, so the officer said, even a lower deep than that into which we had descended. The establishment of the missions, to the beneficent operations of which he accorded full credit, the widening of Worth Street, and, lastly, the admirable system of police inspection organized by Captain Jordan, have brought some elements of order into this seething chaos. We were struck with the universal respect paid to the officer, and the obedience, for the most part cheerful and willing, which followed his orders. He knew the people by name, had a kind word for all, and was evidently looked up to by them as a protector. When the doors were locked, we frequently heard the words within, in answer to his voice: "Open, it 's Frank!" and one woman, sitting alone in a dark, horrid den, paused in the midst of indescribable talk to say: "I 'll never forget *you*, Frank; you once 't got my shawl back for me!"

One little thing touched me in this dismal round. Wherever there was the least attempt at ornament—sometimes even in the poorest rooms—there was the portrait of Abraham Lincoln. A cheap, colored lithograph; a wood-cut from an old newspaper pasted on the wall; a large, rude head from a placard; or, in the dram-shops, an engraving draped in black, with Tom Sayers on one side and John Morrissey on the other—in whatever form, the sad eyes of the martyred President looked down upon the degraded inmates, with malice towards none, with charity for all.

Yet, hence came no vote for Abraham Lincoln; but there came, in July, 1863, the vilest of Horatio Seymour's "friends." Curiously enough, in this home of denunciation of "the nigger" we found blacks and whites living harmoniously together—in one instance, one black man and three Irish girls occupying the same room!

The dram-shops and groceries were well lighted and orderly. In each there were a dozen or more pickpockets, "sneak-thieves," and prostitutes, some of whom, having no lodgings, had laid themselves to sleep on the saw-dusted floor. One of the girls said to the officer, "Frank, when are you going to get me out of this?" It was difficult to decide whether she was really sick of that wretched life, or merely wished to excite our sympathy. I moved towards her, intending to ask some questions, but was met on the way by a villainous looking fellow, who, after a sharp, quick glance, stretched out his hand. "I've seen you in Sing Sing, have n't I?" he asked in a low voice. I was so astounded at being taken for a "pal," that the man drew back his hand. "How long were you there?" I asked. He hung down his head, muttered "three years," and walked out.

The condition of the streets was horrible. In some places the layers of filth appeared to be nearly two feet thick, and the oozings from it were carried by the rain into inhabited cellars. The wonder is, not that such places breed pestilence, but that pestilence is not a permanent condition. We saw a number of sick persons, all afflicted with "rheumatism," which was frequently, no doubt, a euphemism for something else. Human life must require much less oxygen than the physiologists suppose, or many of these dens would lose their tenants in a single night.

Another wonder is, not that the people are vicious and degraded, but that, living in such a condition, they are not utterly brutalized. I suppose there is no possible reform for the most of them, for with self-respect goes the last thread by which they might be pulled out of the mire. But the question has other aspects, which the city ought seriously to consider. The law which removes a soap-boiling establishment out of the reach of sensitive nostrils permits disease to be engendered in damp, airless cellars, crammed to suffocation with human beings. The police has established order, so far as order is possible: the streets are quiet and secure; but in all other respects there is criminal recklessness. Why should not the owners of these dens be forced to have them, at least, cleaned, whitewashed, and ventilated? Why, indeed, should not the names of the owners be ascertained and published? As for the accumulated filth in the streets, so long as New York pays nearly twice as much to be the dirtiest city in the world as Paris, with 1,700,000 inhabitants, to be the cleanest, it is useless to hope for any improvement.

The intelligent officer who accompanied us from headquarters gave me much interesting information in regard to these and other questions. But it is not my intention to discuss them. It is enough, for the present, to attempt a plain picture of such misery and degradation as I have never found in any part of the world. One of my companions declared that in all his experience of life in Esquimaux huts, during the Arctic winter, he had never seen anything so repulsive.

We visited some establishments of a different class, where the comparative cleanliness and order produced, by contrast, almost the effect of a better moral atmosphere. These, also, are under careful supervision, though necessarily imperfect, since government ignores, and public opinion decries, any attempt to deal with an important social fact.

At two o'clock in the morning we had finished our inspection in the Sixth Ward, and it was then too late, and we were too fatigued with saddening and sickening spectacles, to undertake more. B. T.

New York, Feb. 28, 1866.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXXI.

New Orleans, Feb. 20.

One day this week I made a visit to the house once owned by Mr. Pierre Soulé, and now in the hands of the Government. For nearly a year it has been used as an asylum for colored orphans. A young lady from Boston, Mrs. De Mortié, has been its manager from the time when it was founded, and, indeed, may be regarded as its founder and preserver, having successfully overcome the many obstacles which stood in its way at the beginning, and the perils which have threatened its existence since. It was only after wearisome delays that the Federal officers quartered in the house could be got out of it in order to make room for negro children. The citizens resident in that quarter were, of course, violently opposed to the establishment of a negro school and house of refuge in their neighborhood; and others, not aggrieved by its vicinity to their residences, were very angry at seeing so elegant a mansion given up to such uses. A guard had to be stationed round the building to protect it from destruction and its occupants from insult. This was furnished by General Banks, who warmly befriended the enterprise from the outset. On the part of some people who had been expected to render aid there was a good deal of backwardness at the first, and it is only recently that a society, called the Louisiana Association, and made up for the most part of wealthy people of color in New Orleans, has been formed, and has pledged itself to give the institution pecuniary assistance. At one time it was in great danger from an order issued by the Assistant Commissioner of the Bureau, which seemed to contemplate the apprenticing of all the inmates of the asylum. There were at once a great many visits from Southern men demanding apprentices in the most confident manner, one even threatening the matron that she would do well to be careful of her language or she might find herself apprenticed. Prompt recourse to General Canby averted that danger. Courage and patience constantly exerted have kept the asylum in existence and successful till the present time. And now a French gentleman, who has recently visited this country, and while here gave a careful examination to the institution, offers

to bestow upon it $10,000, on condition that $20,000 additional is raised, and Mrs. De Mortié entertains the confident hope of soon seeing her enterprise carried to a prosperous conclusion.

That there is need of such an asylum is evident from the fact that it is now giving support and an education to fifty-six children. The number of inmates was at one time as high as one hundred, but that was while many of the negroes of this city and the neighboring country were yet in the Federal army and the Confederate camps. In many of these cases the mother died during the father's absence, and the child found refuge in the asylum. Then upon his return it was removed and cared for by him.

I found children of all ages, from those of four months old up to fourteen and fifteen years, and some whom I did not see, and who are more than fifteen years old, were away at work, and are only to be found in the asylum at night. The school is held in what was once the dining-room, and contains about fifty pupils, two of them being day-scholars, who pay for their tuition. An increase in the numbers of this latter class may be expected, I was told, and their tuition fees will be applied to the expenses of the establishment. The list of studies embraces the common branches of an English education, history and physiology among the rest, and there is a class of ten who study French. Plain needlework is also taught. One of the teachers is paid by the National Freedmen's Relief Association, and the others by the Freedmen's Bureau. One of them informed me that her scholars behaved very well in school and gave her no trouble, so far as discipline was concerned, but she thought them indolent and averse to study. I only heard them singing, an exercise which they performed with a great deal of spirit. The dormitories, dining-rooms, play-rooms, and the grounds were all very neatly kept, and evidently pains had been taken to preserve the house from injury.

The general work of educating the freedmen of the State seems to be carried on with considerable vigor and probably with more success than in any of the other Southern States. I learn that on the 1st of February, 1866, the whole number of schools for freedmen was 140, with 267 teachers and 14,500 scholars. These schools are nearly all in the eastern part of the State, near the Mississippi River, although efforts are now being made to extend them over the other parishes. The cost of supporting the 140 schools now in operation is not far from $20,000 per month. It is defrayed by the United States Government, but the Bureau is charged with the expenses, and they in turn charge them to the State of Louisiana, which, it is probable, will eventually be compelled to pay them; for in 1864 a tax was imposed on the real estate in Louisiana by General Banks, who intended thus to support the schools which he had been mainly instrumental in establishing. For some reason this tax was not collected in 1864, and it was not until 1865 that a small portion of it, about $40,000, was paid into the treasury. Just then, if my information is correct, General Fullerton, the successor of Mr. Conway in the office of Assistant Commissioner, ordered that the collection should cease. Meantime the Bureau had been allowed to borrow from the Quartermaster's Department about $300,000. General Canby has recently declared that the tax was imposed by proper authority and must be paid, so that it seems likely that the instruction hitherto given to the colored people of Louisiana will be paid for by the State. For their future instruction General Baird, the present Assistant Commissioner, adopts a new plan. To the people in each district he gives their choice whether or not they will have a school. If they decide to have one they are obliged to pay its expenses. The agent of the Bureau is instructed in the case of such negroes to direct the employer to withhold from them and pay over to him five per cent. of the laborer's wages. This cannot be done where negroes enter into contracts that are not submitted to the Bureau for approval, and it cannot well be done in the cities, where few laborers work under a written contract. In the cities, therefore, each child is expected to pay a tuition fee of $1 50 per month. The Superintendent of Education is now sending his agents into all parts of the State to urge upon the negroes the importance of supporting schools, and hopes for good results from the new policy, which, except as to its principles, it is of course too early yet to judge. The hostility of the white people to the Bureau, so far as his official information enables him to reach a conclusion, is decreasing, the good influence being exerted by the best class of planters. But there is still much of it in existence, and it is only this week that one of his subordinates comes to him severely beaten, with the complaint that he has just been driven out of the parish of Point Coupee.

In the plantation department of the Bureau I was told that there are not laborers enough to supply the demand of the planters, and that in consequence some of the contracts made very recently give the negroes $18 a month. But the greater number of contracts filed in the office set forth $10 and $12 a month as the rate of wages; and I am told that not only shelter, food, fuel, and medical attendance are given by the employers, but clothing also. Five-sixths of all the contracts made agree that the laborer shall be paid in money; the rest give him a share of the crop.

Outrages upon negroes are said to be of infrequent occurrence, for very few complaints reach the Bureau; and cases of fraud, though by no means so rare, are not remarkably numerous. The gentleman at the head of this department of the Bureau is often in receipt of letters from Northern men who are cultivating cotton here. He believes that the danger of injury and insult to Northerners from their neighbors is very much less than it was a few months ago. He mentioned as one instance—and was able, he said, to give many—the case of a Mr. R——, a Massachusetts man, who, three months ago, found his neighbors so hostile that few of them would speak to him, and he had even received threatening letters. Now, he reports, there is very little trouble of that kind. Some of them come to him for advice as to the proper management of free labor, for he is a more successful planter than they. That circumstance, by the way, was an illustration, he thought, of the great difficulty which every officer of the Bureau found constantly coming up in his own experience. The planters as a class required more teaching, before they could adapt themselves to the new system, than even the negroes. At any rate, they required as much teaching, and they were less willing to be taught.

On this same question of Southern hostility to the North and the Government I talked not long since with a staff officer, who gave me as an example of it this account of an affair in which he had borne a part: He happened to go with some friends not very long ago into a hotel that has recently been opened here, and in the office he saw hanging up a printed announcement that on such an evening a concert or lecture, or some entertainment or other, would be given, and then came the big letters, "for the benefit of the Hon. Jefferson Davis and family." A portrait of Davis was fastened to the lower corner. The sight of the thing stuck up there made him angry, and he at once jumped up and snatched down handbill and picture. Going then to the clerk he demanded his reason for insulting a part of the guests of the house. The clerk said "no offence was intended, they had to please everybody," and made other lame excuses, and referred him to the proprietor. The proprietor was away at the time and could not be found. Well, on the next night there was quite a company of Southerners assembled in the hotel office, and the handbill and Jeff's picture were hung up again. Of course he did right in pulling it down the first time, but what should he do the second time? Consulting with his friends he decided that he would not be justified in going there without business of any kind just to make a quarrel, kill somebody, or get killed. He could not go there and let it hang; so he decided to stay away altogether. But he believed that was the way they all hated the Union.

TROUBLES OF FRENCH PUBLISHERS.

PARIS, Feb. 20, 1866.

A FEW years ago, a young Belgian publisher, Lacroix by name, came to Paris and opened a new establishment on the Boulevard Montmartre, at the corner of the Rue Vivienne. M. Lacroix had already made a large fortune in Brussels; but he was ambitious—he wished to become in Paris a sort of Murray, or Longman, or Fields, a friend and almost a patron of the *littérateurs*. His great fortune allowed him to offer to them more liberal terms than those which were usually given by the old Parisian publishing houses. His first recruit was no other than Victor Hugo. Lacroix became the happy publisher of the "Misérables," a work which has gone through any number of editions and has found its way into every house into France and into many foreign countries. I think I am not mistaken if I state that Lacroix paid Victor Hugo the sum of 400,000 francs (80,000 dollars) for the "Misérables." The great success of this popular novel induced him to offer to Victor Hugo still more liberal terms for all his forthcoming works. The great poet receives now from him 10,000 dollars for every volume he writes. Such was the price paid lately for the two volumes of the "Chansons des Rues et des Bois."

The magnificent *magasin* of M. Lacroix was fast becoming the most attractive on the Boulevards, and his affairs were most prosperous. He published the magnificent work of Quinet on the French Revolution, the "Lettres sur l'Angleterre" of Louis Blanc. Unfortunately, M. Lacroix confined himself to publishing serious works, written by French liberals. A liberal himself, he did not well conceal his political opinions. He had been once a member of the municipal council in Brussels, and he preserved in Paris the imprudent habits of free thought and free speech. Every day, towards one o'clock, M. Lacroix could be seen after his breakfast in the Café de Madrid, which faced his *magasin* on the other side of the boulevard, taking his coffee and smoking his cigar among the members of the literary

Pleiade, which has made the name of the place famous in the *grande et petite Bohême des lettres.* I do not wonder myself if Lacroix sought for a moment's relaxation from the cares of business among the wits and *beaux esprits* of this literary and artistic club; in no place I know of is so much *esprit* spent with so much gaiety, so much humor, with so much prodigality. But, alas for Lacroix! French *esprit* and the Second Empire are not on the best of terms. He was to pay dearly for his intimacy with *la jeune France,* and with old enemies of the government, such as Hugo, Louis Blanc, and Quinet. A pretext was looked for and soon found. After the death of Proudhon, the well-known socialist, many unpublished manuscripts were found among his papers. Lacroix undertook to publish them for the benefit of his wife and children, who were left almost destitute. A committee of young writers, who had been the personal friends of Proudhon, were to be the supervisors of the publication. The manuscripts were chiefly unfinished, and were notes rather than complete works. But some importance was attached even to the notes of Proudhon. The great critic, Ste. Beuve, lately made a senator by Napoleon III., had just begun a series of articles on Proudhon, in a Government review called the "Revue Contemporaine." These articles were an apotheosis, or rather a rehabilitation of the socialist writer and agitator. With the artistic indifference of a critic, Ste. Beuve judged the monstrous doctrines of Proudhon as he would have done the doctrines of a Hindoo or a Chinese reformer; he only admired the terseness of his style, the energy of his invective, the fertility of his sophistry; he placed him on a level with the greatest men of our age, and paid even a high tribute to his merit as a man and as a moralist. With the versatility of his nature, the academician, the senator, the supporter of despotism, identified himself for a moment with a man who despised all the political, religious, and social institutions of his time. Might not Lacroix think himself allowed to publish Proudhon's posthumous works when Ste. Beuve was extolling him in a ministerial review? He thought so, and first published notes which Proudhon had written on the New Testament; short, often unfinished, sentences placed next to almost all the verses and chapters. This embryotic exegesis, in its present form, will hardly be read by any but the systematic admirers of Proudhon; his "Evangiles Annotés" will never become popular like the "Vie de Jésus" of Renan. But the publication was used as a pretext for prosecuting Lacroix; he was accused of having edited and sold a work where the Catholic religion and all the other Christian doctrines recognized in France were attacked and ridiculed. Lacroix appeared himself in court and spoke in person, instead of employing a lawyer.

His speech was forcible and eloquent. Vainly did he repudiate all responsibility for Proudhon's doctrines, and urge that a publisher is not an author; that he, a man of business, could not seriously be accused of sharing the views of the writer who once said, "La propriété c'est le vol;" that, himself a father of a family, he had no desire to destroy the institution of the family, which Proudhon had been accused of desiring; that he had not wished to offend anybody's religious feelings in publishing Proudhon's ideas on the New Testament; that he did not force his book on the public; and so on. The court condemned him to one year's imprisonment and to a heavy fine, in virtue of an article of a law of 1822. The real crime of Lacroix was his political independence and the support he offered and promised to all the writers of the liberal school. His condemnation has increased the feeling of terror which has been for a long time common to all our publishers. The patent of a publishing house is a privilege which represents a large capital; it is in the power of the Government to take back his patent from any publisher. It happened in the case of the publication of the "Lettre sur l'Histoire de France," by the Duke d'Aumale. The prince had to indemnify his editor for the loss of his patent. Under such legislation, you may imagine that truth can no more easily find its way into books than into newspapers. Lacroix was getting too troublesome; his career, till now triumphant, was suddenly stopped. A year's imprisonment is almost ruin to a man of business. Lacroix announces that he will transfer his house again to Brussels, and shake the dust of Imperial France from his feet; and I cannot much wonder at his anger.

If I have entered into so many details about the recent condemnation of M. Lacroix, it is because such an incident will throw more light to the eyes of distant witnesses than general denunciations of Imperial tyranny. Since I wrote last the Mexican question has not lost any of its importance; it ranks foremost among all the questions which occupy the public mind. The French Senate, in its answer to the Imperial speech, has a paragraph on this question which, it is said, was inspired or revised, at least, at the Tuileries:

"As for the United States," says the Senate, "if, in consequence of a misunderstanding, the presence of the French flag on the American continent seems to them less opportune than at another and famous period of their history, the firm despatches of your Government have shown that our return will not be determined by proud and threatening words. France is accustomed to choose her own hour for action. She likes, however, to remember her old friendship for the United States. All you ask from them, sire, is neutrality and obedience to the law of nations. They must see that a war undertaken for the protection of French citizens against a disloyal government is not converted, merely because it is a successful war, into a war of conquest, of domination, or of propagandism."

I leave to you to pass judgment upon the eloquence, the good taste, and the political wisdom of the French Senate. The Mexican question will only be seriously discussed in the Lower House. It was said some time ago that M. Thiers intended to attack the policy of the Government in the Mexican question, but his ardor is cooling since the Emperor has promised to withdraw his troops. The publication of the diplomatic correspondence between the Government of France and the Cabinet of Washington has also caused some uneasiness to those who intended to treat the Mexican question in the Lower House. It is not without some astonishment that they have learned that M. Drouyn de Lhuys has been once *informally* asked whether the recognition of Maximilian by the Cabinet of Washington would be followed by the withdrawal of the French troops. To be sure Mr. Seward has since *formally* refused to bind together the two questions, and has clearly denied the recognition of Maximilian. For the present, the French Government seems willing to be contented with the neutrality of the United States: if you promise to behave yourselves, and not to trouble Maximilian's peace of mind, then we shall leave him alone and withdraw our regiments. Of course, if the Austro-Belgio-French guard which he must keep is sufficient to protect him against the Mexican rebels, if he can remain in Mexico without our Zouaves, you will have to recognize him sooner or later. M. Drouyn de Lhuys reminds you that you always recognize *de facto* governments; besides, in your own diplomatic correspondence you confess that the republican government in Mexico has been a failure; why should you not allow a fair trial to the monarchical system? Thus reason all those who have taken the pains of reading your documents and our "Yellow-Book." So everything is comfortable, and this crumpled rose-leaf in our Imperial Sybarite's bed has been again neatly spread out by the skilful hands of diplomacy.

A. L.

Correspondence.

RIGHT OF SUFFRAGE FOR STATE CONVENTIONS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

I was much interested in your remarks on *the right of suffrage for State conventions,* in your paper of February 22. I must also acknowledge to have been somewhat startled by the view you have presented, though I know that doctrine very similar has long been maintained, how consistently I will not enquire, by many of those calling themselves *par excellence* the Democrats. I have not been able to look at the history of State conventions in other States to see how far it may support your view. I have only examined a little into that of conventions in this State. The convention which established the first constitution of the State, April 20, 1777, was elected on the recommendation of the Congress of the colony, May 31, 1776, prompted by a previous recommendation of the Continental Congress. The resolution of the Provincial Congress recommended "to the electors in the several counties in this colony, by election in the manner and form prescribed for the present Congress," to authorize their deputies to consider the propriety of forming a new government, "and if the majority of the counties, by their deputies," should be in favor of it, then to institute such government, etc. The elections were to be determined by the county committees. The Congress also "earnestly recommended to the committees, freeholders, and other electors in the different counties diligently to carry the same into execution." Here was a period confessedly revolutionary. But the electors were those who had elected the Provincial Congress, and they were, I believe, those who had had the right of voting for the Colonial Assembly. Your view is certainly confirmed by the action of the legislature, March 13, 1821, when, in declaring who should be electors of delegates to the convention, they adopted a different standard from that in the existing constitution determining electors for members of assembly and for senators. The very calling of the convention might be termed a revolutionary act, for there was no provision in the constitution then in force authorizing the legislature to do this, and, of course, none authorizing them to determine the electors to the convention. But if the legislature had more power in the

premises than any collection of private persons, they must have derived it from the former electors.

The constitution of 1821 prescribed one qualification for electors of "all officers elective by the people." The extension of the qualification to what is known as "universal suffrage," in 1826, was by a constitutional amendment in the manner prescribed by the constitution itself, being adopted by a majority vote of the electors, after having been proposed by a majority vote of one and approved by a two-third vote of the succeeding legislature. There was in this constitution no provision for calling a convention of the people. Yet *an act recommending a convention of the people of this State* was passed by the legislature May 13, 1845, providing for submitting the question of calling a convention to the electors at the next State election, and for an election of delegates, if the majority should be for a convention, and providing that all persons entitled to vote for members of assembly shall be entitled to vote for delegates. This was recognizing the standard of electorship by the existing constitution. But the call of the convention by the legislature was itself an unauthorized assumption of power.

The constitution of 1846 prescribes the qualifications of voters for all officers elective by the people, and also that "at the general election to be held in the year 1866 and in each twentieth year thereafter, and also at such time as the legislature may by law provide, the question, 'Shall there be a convention to revise the constitution and amend the same?' shall be decided by the electors qualified to vote for members of the legislature, and in case a majority of the electors so qualified voting at such election shall decide in favor of a convention for such purpose, the legislature at its next session shall provide by law for the election of delegates to such convention."

Now, from your article I should understand that, if this year the vote is in favor of a convention, the next legislature, "in providing by law for the election of delegates to such convention," may determine the electors by some other rule than that in the present constitution, determining who shall vote for officers of the State government. For instance, they may allow any man of color to vote for delegates, without regard to property qualification (we will say nothing now about the women). Indeed, I must suppose that you would say that the legislature cannot refuse to do this, and that if any persons of color are not permitted to vote for want of property qualification, they will be therein deprived of a right. In other words, that they are constituent members of that *people of the State* by whom a new constitution may be framed.

I think your proposition, "Whenever heretofore a State convention has been called, it has been by a special statute, prescribing the qualifications of electors for that occasion only, and expiring with that occasion," will not be accepted by lawyers. You say truly, "The theory of government upon which all the States have acted since 1776 is, that no constitution, charter, or law can fetter the right of the people of each State by the action of a convention to frame that fundamental law anew from time to time at their discretion." But the question is, Who are this *people?* Your article hardly explains, though it implies that this consists or may consist of other individuals than those recognized as electors by the former constitution. The act of this State, March 13, 1821, and the adoption of the constitution under had a revolutionary character. The identity of the political people of the State changed in that occurrence.

But this I think was an exceptional event in the history of the State. The present constitution seems to me to affirm the principle that the people of the State are found in the former electors. If the legislature should make a special determination of electors for delegates to the next convention that may be voted for under the constitution, it is probable that the constitution next adopted would provide that electors for delegates to future conventions should be only such as were electors by that constitution. But if your theory is correct, even this would not settle it, because, as you say, no constitution can fetter *the people*. I think the people of a State are, in the political sense, those who under the existing state of things hold the elective franchise. Of course I admit that a revolutionary assumption of power may take place by a different set of persons in number greater, or, it may be, less, than the previous electors. But there is no rule about revolutions.

How far *the convention*, supposing it formed by delegates properly elected, may proceed in determining the new constitution, is an entirely different question, which I think you have mixed up with the other. Whether the convention has authority to establish the constitution, as you say it has, or has only power to propose one to the electors who chose the delegates, is a question of fundamental law, but not determinable by any principle—only by customary law, and hardly by that. It has been different, I think, in different States. The question is as to the intention of the political people of the State, either that their delegates shall give them a constitution or offer one for their adoption. In neither case is there any revolution. It seems a contradiction in terms to say that the highest power in the State is engaged in a revolutionary act—a normal revolution. What is that? It may well be that the existing constitutions of Alabama and other Southern States provide that the convention shall determine the constitution without again referring to a popular vote. The action of the recent Maryland convention, in referring the adoption of the proposed constitution to electors discriminated by a rule different from that determining the electors who sent the delegates, was anomalous. They submitted the constitution to a people made by the convention which offered the constitution! You might well say, Why did they not at once declare the constitution?

The fact remains that a written constitution cannot be the ultimate constitution. It must rest on some external authority; and where this authority is—that is, the unwritten or, as Dr. Brownson calls it, "the providential constitution"—is a mere question of fact.

The Dorr controversy, in 1842, is generally understood to prove precisely the contrary of the doctrine which you claim to be supported by it. The cases of Territories have no application here, because in such case the political people of the new State comes into being or attains self-recognition when recognized by Congress as the people of one of the United States. Your doctrine is an illustration of what Dr. Brownson calls *humanitarian democracy;* mine rather of what he calls *territorial democracy*. And, by the way, I think that in your recent review of his "American Republic" you misunderstood his use of the term, and represented him as meaning a landed-proprietor democracy.

Yours respectfully, J. C. H.

MORE ABOUT THE WEST POINT ACADEMY,

ITS ABUSES AND DEFECTS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

From the facts adduced in the former letter under this head, it is noticeable that the tendency of legislation for this institution has been to stamp upon it a reformatory and pauper character, by keeping the standard of acquirement for admission to it below the average of common schools throughout the country, on the plea that it should be open to rich and poor alike; and by taking off all checks upon the abuse of patronage, by allowing youths to be sent back and retained in the school after their incompetency for the military service had been passed upon by a board especially called upon to do so by law. Now, that neither of these features would meet the favor of the American people, were they squarely brought to their attention, there can be no question. That they are desirous of keeping up this school on the most liberal footing has been fully demonstrated, in the teeth of all the opposition that has been made to it in so many quarters. That, in doing this, their object is one of public utility, and not one in the interests of either individuals or classes, it would be an insult to their common sense to doubt. And yet their representatives in Congress, whilst professing to recognize this state of public opinion, have virtually ignored it by their official acts; and, in hundreds of cases, by their interference as individuals. If the national military school is not all that it might become, the responsibility lies with Congress, and with Congress alone.

Turning now from outside influences as they may affect this institution, let us examine some of the defects alleged against it as growing out of its internal government; and for this purpose take up those counts which are so well and strongly put in the article in The Nation of Dec. 28, 1866, headed "West Point Military Academy." The first point which attracts attention in this article is the following statement, which can only be accepted *cum grano salis*. It reads as follows: "It is not the purpose of this article to discuss the effect of West Point training upon the management of our military affairs; or whether the exclusive spirit nurtured by it, which has practically turned the army into a close corporation, has been productive of more good than evil. Its influence controls all the higher appointments in the service." With a people so jealous as we are of everything that seems exclusive, West Point has been brought into disrepute more by assertions of this kind than perhaps by anything else. Now let us examine how far this is true.

In the former letter on this subject the various methods for officering an army were sketched out, and the objections to each, fairly it is thought, were stated. All of these methods have been resorted to in our army, as its official registers will show, and the officers from each placed upon an equal footing for promotion and service. What the "exclusive spirit," as here used, is intended to convey is best known to the writer of that article. If it means that men specially trained for a profession, and having entered upon its duties, think they know more about them than one who takes upon him its exercise without any such preparation, and that men so trained have more

confidence in those who have been trained like themselves than in untried men without any training, this certainly is as true of West Point as it is of every other profession and trade. Why, consult the records of the army. Whom do our generals appointed from civil life select for the working men of their staffs? Why, with but very few exceptions, and those usually persons who, through their prejudices or from other causes, have committed themselves against West Point, they take West Point graduates whenever they can get them, and on the same grounds that men select their agents in all affairs of life. This is the sum and substance of the matter. If you desire to eradicate this spirit you must first destroy all *esprit de corps* in all walks of life.

Now, as to the other count, that "its influence controls all the higher appointments in the service," write *events* for *influence* and we shall be nearer the mark. That the graduates of West Point should, as intelligent and educated men, exercise some influence in the country, it would be little to their credit as a class to deny. It is but the natural result of their education. But how does the record stand upon this subject? Although some of the graduates of West Point had served in the war of 1812, and were still in the service in 1860, having in the meantime rendered distinguished services to the country, there was *not one* of their number who had been made a general officer up to that time except Joseph E. Johnston, who, upon the death of General Jessup, the quartermaster-general, was placed in that position by the influence of his connection, John B. Floyd. All the general officers, the quartermaster-general, and the commissary-general, were not graduates. When the rebellion broke out, three major-generals were at first appointed, John C. Fremont, Geo. B. McClellan, and H. W. Halleck. None of these men were at that time in service. Fremont was appointed through party influence; McClellan through the political influence of Ohio; and Halleck through the recommendation of General Scott, who knew him to be a man of talent, a military student, and of high standing as a lawyer in California. Neither Grant nor Sherman was in service when the rebellion broke out. They were comparatively unknown men. Both were borne into high command by political influence. Burnside and Hooker were also out of service at the same period, and both were pushed forward by the same influence. This statement is not made in disparagement to the real merits of these men, but to show how little West Point influence had to do with their rise to high office. It was charged at the time, and still is believed by many, that Fremont was sacrificed to West Point jealousy. In what way? Neither Mr. Lincoln, with something of that prejudice against West Point which is more or less prevalent in the West; nor Mr. Cameron, then Secretary of War; nor Mr. Stanton, had any particular bias towards West Point. Why should they have sacrificed Mr. Fremont to this influence against a very large fraction of the Republican party, who had made Mr. Fremont their leader? When we see McClellan, Burnside, Hooker, and other West Point graduates set aside, and Halleck loaded with abuse and odium, where was this influence? The fact is, that to bear the title of a West Point graduate was one of disqualification in the minds of no small number of the most prominent influential politicians in the country; and when some graduate's name was brought forward for confirmation, honorable senators have been heard to say, "There's another damned West Pointer." The whole sum and substance of the matter is simply this: the West Point graduates were the only educated military class in the country. They were put into responsible positions not because the Administration looked upon them with any favor, but from the necessity of the case. They were, in fact, a *pis aller*. But no administration in such a crisis would have dared to take the responsibility of ignoring them. The great coming general, with heaven-born talents and intuitive military knowledge, was hoped for, and expected to spring from the body of civil life fully armed, like Minerva from the head of Jove. But this military messiah failing to appear, the country was obliged to fall back upon West Point; with what result let the names of Grant, Sherman, Meade, Sheridan, Thomas, and the large and distinguished band of their younger comrades answer.

There are some strictures, perhaps, rather in a tone of *dénigrement*, of a minor character, in the article in question, which the public would hardly take sufficient interest in to hear discussed. Whether West Point graduates look upon their *alma mater* as the great engineering and mathematical school of the country, and whether the *curriculum* of studies on these subjects of Harvard and Yale is so much superior to that of West Point, that "their extent would make a cadet just about to graduate stare and gape," is a mere matter of opinion, easily settled by a reference to the printed programmes of the course of study and the text-books of these celebrated schools. Yale and Harvard have each invited and accepted a West Point graduate to fill the chair of engineering in their special scientific schools; Columbia College, New York, another of the leading schools of the North, has taken three—two for mathematics and one in her scientific school; and graduates before the rebellion were to be found all through the Northern and Southern States as prominent teachers. The West Point mode of teaching the exact sciences is now followed almost universally throughout the country. West Point text-books, on one branch of science or another, are to be met with in every school pretending to science in the land. Some of them have been republished in England, translations of them have been published in Germany, and they are taught in India. West Point reckons her Tottens, and Thayers, and Delafields, and Barnards, and Gillmores at home—names that rank with the first engineering talent abroad. She has made her mark in Russia in her Whistler and Brown. Mexico is, if ever, to be reached by a railroad from Vera Cruz now under West Point graduates. It has given a Bache to our great Coast Survey, a Humphreys and an Abbott to one of the first hydraulic publications of the age, the survey of the Mississippi. And the names of Bomford, Parrott, and Rodman stand associated with the greatest improvements in ordnance.

One more quotation from this very clever article, with a few remarks, must close this already too long notice of West Point deficiencies. It says:

"Unfortunately, the effects of this neglect of the study of language do not confine themselves to the cadets while at the Military Academy. The officers of our army, especially those in high positions, are obliged to write much. The productions of most of them, both before and during the late war, have added no reputation to the service or to the school at which they were educated. So long as they confine themselves to the bare statement of facts and opinions, they are usually respectable, if eminently dry and dull. But when they leave the level ground of simple narration, and venture on more ambitious movements, their failure is conspicuous.* With few exceptions, their productions will scarcely stand the fire of five minutes' criticism.

"The whole course should be reformed altogether, for the only real education in the use of their mother tongue the officers of our army now gain at the Military Academy is in the line of profanity."

Now this showing up is very bad, it must be confessed, but is it just? The writer of these lines knows the hackneyed commonplace phrase: *Non omnia possumus omnes.* If West Point cannot furnish to the country men who, like Cæsar, write with the same spirit that they throw into their fighting, let it be satisfied with those who are "usually respectable, if eminently dry and dull, in the bare statement of facts and opinions;" and let it congratulate itself that, at least, there are so many the fewer who "venture on more ambitious movements," by which the good taste and common sense of plain men are shocked; and which permeates our pulpits, our bar, our legislative bodies, and our public press. Whenever a West Point graduate ventures upon such "movements," let it be hoped that his failure may be eminently conspicuous. Yet there still exist the reports and despatches of General Taylor, known to have been written by his son-in-law, Colonel Bliss. We have had the reports of McClellan, and more recently those of Grant and Sherman, upon all of which the press, the *arbiter elegantiarum* both at home and abroad, has bestowed high encomiums.

As to the grave charge of profanity, which is here repeated from the report of the Board of Visitors of last June, nothing can be said in the way of extenuation. Profanity, the vice of camps, of garrisons, of crews, of the slums of politics, and of rowdyism, is equally detestable for its silliness and impiety. Unfortunately, it ever prevails where the restraining presence of woman is not felt; and, however much to be regretted, it is not to be wondered at that some of a large body of immature youths should fall into the habit. But the good taste, and the good effect to be hoped for, in spreading such a wholesale charge, in their report, by this Board, may be fairly questioned; and perhaps the right reverend gentleman who was a member of that Board might have acted more charitably, and not less wisely, if, with his colleagues, he had addressed a few words of kindly advice and remonstrance to these youths, instead of arraigning them, in this manner, before the public for a thoughtless local and temporary habit.

But, after all, these points, however open to some grave fault-finding and a little sarcasm, are not those in which the public are likely to interest themselves. The question that interests them is, How has West Point answered the purposes for which it was created? And to answer this question they will go to its record. From this record it is to be hoped no West Point

* It will hardly be necessary to call the attention of this well-informed writer to the fact that the productions of very few of even good writers will stand the test of trenchant verbal criticism. He may not have forgotten, on this score, the objections that have been made to the opening lines of two of the celebrated productions of our two first classical writers, Dr. Johnson and Addison—"The Tragedy of Cato" and "The Vanity of Human Wishes." It is much more important to the public to learn that if the officers of the regular army cannot stand this species of fire, they have, for four years, withstood daily that of the rebel batteries and their sharpshooters; and, as an evidence of it, have left dead upon the battle-field one hundred and eighty-nine, and five hundred wounded, out of twelve hundred in the beginning of the war, or more than one-half.

graduate will take an appeal. Have they performed the duties for which they were specially educated to the best of their ability? Have they acted with carefulness and integrity in the great responsibilities, both pecuniary and in trusts of public property, that have been devolved upon them? These are questions that can only be answered by the record of facts, and by these must West Point reputation stand or fall. Opinions, discussions, and invectives are mere idle wastes of time and paper before such facts. Aided by prejudice and individual jealousy, they may crush, it is true, this now world-wide celebrated national school. But, so long as its fair fame is untarnished, its graduates will have cause to be proud of the name of a

WEST POINTER.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

THE new volume of Mr. Bancroft's history, being the ninth of the work, may be expected in a few weeks; after a short interval it will be followed by two others, a final instalment, completing the author's design, and carrying forward the narrative to the adoption of the Constitution of the United States. Considering the scarcity of authoritative books of information regarding the succeeding period, it is to be hoped that a continuation of the history may be undertaken by its author; but as to the prospects of this, nothing certain is known. The volumes of the Bancroft history hitherto published have never acquired a copyright in England, from the uncertain state of the law on the subject when they appeared, and several unauthorized reprints are in circulation there. Under the recent interpretation given to the act of Parliament an effort will probably be made to secure the property of the concluding volumes, as their value is very considerable, and the possession of them would give a control over the entire work.

—Considering the late rush of English translations of Dante that the press has teemed with, it is a singular fact that the first attempt at naturalizing any portion of the great Florentine's writings in English dates no further back than 1782, when the "Inferno" was translated and published by a Mr. Rogers. Boyd's version of the whole "Divina Commedia" appeared at the commencement of the century, in 1802, and Cary's, which still holds its ground, a year or two later. The number has recently increased to about twenty. How Dante escaped the notice of the Elizabethan writers, who were so familiar with Petrarch, Ariosto, and Tasso, is unaccountable, but, from the fact being as it is, we have probably missed a standard translation—one whose archaisms would faithfully reproduce to our minds the corresponding obscurities and dim oracular utterances of the poet, while the majestic flow of diction peculiar to the age would do justice to his mighty line. The very latest English translator is Mr. Dayman, who twenty-three years ago published his version of the "Inferno," and has now completed the entire poem. It is written in the *terza rima* of the original, a form of verse ingeniously supposed by Mr. Dayman to form a fundamental feature of the ternary structure of the whole poem, and, consequently, to be preserved by all who have a true feeling for poetry. According to the present very laudable fashion, he prints the original text on the opposite page to his own version, which is composed in nearly the same number of verses. Meanwhile, Mr. Longfellow's "Divina Commedia" is looming in the distance, and may probably be looked for from Messrs. Ticknor & Fields's press in the course of the present year.

—Unusual praise is bestowed by the English press on a selection of English love poems, edited by Thomas Dunn English, "The Book of Rubies," and brought out last Christmas by Messrs. Scribner & Co. The *Athenæum* says: "We do not know any similar collection which so honestly fulfils its purpose as this one does. The task of selection has been performed with great judgment and almost perfect taste. Many of the poems, being of American authorship, will be new to the English reader. This does not reduce the value of the collection in this country." The *Reader* also is equally laudatory. The typography of the book, a choice specimen of Mr. Alvord's press, meets with commendation equal to that bestowed on the intellectual portion of the work. The plan of the editor, Mr. English, includes a companion volume to "The Book of Rubies," entitled "The Book of Sapphires," a collection of sacred and serious poetry, got up in the same exquisite style.

—The curious matter constantly coming to light since literary relics became property of a valuable and scarcely negotiable description, was well illustrated at a recent sale in London of choice books, wherein occurred several autograph letters by Lord Byron, several of them unpublished. In one of them he says: "I hope you will find me an altered personage. I do not mean in body but in manner, for I begin to find out that nothing but virtue will do in this d——d world." This sold for seven guineas, and another for ten guineas, dated from Greece, in which he describes himself as "left to my own resources, which consist in tolerably fluent *lingua Franca*, middling Romaic, and some variety of Ottoman oaths, of great service with a stumbling horse or a stupid servant." The gem of the collection, however, was the letter dated June 30, 1809 (printed in Moore's "Life"), written in the exhilaration of the first start for foreign travel, and containing the verses commencing "Huzza, Hodgson, we are going," etc. This sold for ten guineas. In the same sale a collection of writings and tracts by Cotton and Increase Mather, extending to thirty-nine volumes of various dates and sizes, sold for £72 19s.; and a unique fragment of a volume consisting of thirty-two leaves, containing sentences from Terence in Latin and English, "Terencii vulgaria, in Anglicam linguam traducta," brought £36. It was supposed to have been printed at Oxford during the fifteenth century, by a comparison of the type, and may probably have been a portion of a volume printed for all the schools, which would account for its almost total disappearance, as belonging to a class of books made to be "used up" while serving the purpose they were intended for. It was purchased by the Bodleian Library.

—The American public will learn with regret that Prof. Goldwin Smith contemplates the resignation of the chair of modern history in the University of Oxford through ill-health. That a gentleman who, in this position, possesses so great a power of moulding the opinions of the most influential class of the generation now coming forward in public life, and who has exercised that power in a spirit totally new to the locality and at variance with its established traditions, should think of giving it up, is very much to be lamented, as the peculiar qualities which have given such freshness and interest to his teachings are not likely to be found united in another eligible person. The purpose, however, only gives a signal proof of Prof. Goldwin Smith's elevated standard of conduct, as instances abound, nay are rather the rule than the exception, where Oxford professorships are held for years under a total incapacity to fill any duty connected with the office. Prof. Smith does not contemplate a cessation from literary labor by this step, but, if his health permits, intends to concentrate his studies on an elaborate history of the Great Rebellion and Commonwealth of England under Charles I.

—Two interesting books lately brought out in London, independently of each other, testify to the continued attraction possessed by the literature of Scandinavia for the kindred people of more southerly local position. One is "The Story of Gisli, the Outlaw," from the Icelandic "Gisli Saga," by Dr. Dasent, whose beautiful edition of the "Njala Saga" and his "Norse Tales" gave him high rank as a Scandinavian scholar. The events described in the work occurred in the tenth century, shortly after the colonization of Iceland, the heroic age of the North. By his editor Gisli is pronounced to be "a true poet," and his work in genuine thought and feeling superior to any other saga. The translation is beautifully got up in small quarto, with illustrations by St. John Mildmay. The other work appears in a more unpretending form—"Viga Glum's Saga"—the story of Viga Glum, from the Icelandic, with notes and an introduction by Sir Edmund Head. This is of ruder character than the former work, being one of the earliest known sagas composed in the pure old language, and containing important contributions to the history of manners, legislation, and religious ideas. The translation is made from the original, with which Sir Edmund Head shows a perfect familiarity, as well as with the literature of the subject. Lord Derby and Mr. Gladstone have brought Greek into fashion, so this small work is prefaced by a Greek epigram on Iceland, from the pen of Mr. Robert Lowe.

—The announcement of the death of Thomas L. Peacock in his eightieth year will fail to convey any association to the minds of most readers of the present generation, though the few who are familiar with the series of his works, commencing with "Headlong Hall" and extending to "Gryll Grange," published as late as four or five years since, will hear of it with regret. Mr. Peacock, though a Liberal in politics, never wrote for the million. His works are rather the outpourings of a full mind, all assuming a similar quaint and peculiar form, faithfully reflecting the writer's idiosyncrasies, than works of art, though passing for novels among circulating libraries, whose customers must often have been puzzled at the curious learning, general good-fellowship, and out-of-the-way discussion that they exhibit. They comprise, besides the two named, "Nightmare Abbey," "Maid Marian," "Crotchet Castle," and "The Misfortunes of Elphin." As the friend and executor of Shelley, Mr. Peacock also published in "Frazer's Magazine" a series of papers most important for the true understanding o

the poet's career, and especially respecting the circumstances of his first marriage and early wedded life. These would well repay separate republication. No particulars of Mr. Peacock's life are given in the books of reference. It was probably uneventful, and mostly spent in that nursery of talent, the old East India House, where he was the official companion of John Stuart Mill, among the highest in position of the whole vast establishment. He was, to judge from his writings, a native of Wales. Among several charming lyrics scattered through his books are some splendid translations of Taliesin and the Welsh bards, including the only lines he ever wrote that have obtained general currency, the Celtic war-song commencing:

"The mountain sheep are sweeter,
But the valley sheep are fatter;
We therefore deemed it meeter
To carry off the latter," etc., etc.,

which is given in "The Misfortunes of Elphin" as the version of a Welsh original.

—We regret to notice that the anxiously expected "Life of Charles Lamb," announced as in preparation by Barry Cornwall (B. W. Procter), has dwindled down to a selection from his works, with a life (in all probability a brief sketch) prefaced. It will form a volume of Moxon's "Miniature Poets," for which series Mr. Algernon Swinburne, author of "Atalanta in Calydon," etc., will edit a selection of Lord Byron's works, prefaced by a critical essay.

—The new volume of poems by Mr. Robert Buchanan, "London Idyls," is more ambitious in its aim than any of his previous works. Its plan seems modelled on some of Mr. Browning's writings, apparently, as it consists principally of monologues, forming psychological studies (like the famous "Bishop Blougram," etc.) of a somewhat unusual kind. As described in advance of publication, the analytical skill of the poet is employed on subjects sometimes of a repulsive character, as "The Murder Idyl," in which the speaker is a woman whose husband has been hanged; "The Ballad Maker," a writer of street songs vainly endeavoring to express his feelings, and who catches a gleam of poetry without knowing it in his efforts to comfort a poor dying carter lad with a song; and "The Real Mr. Honeydew," a fashionable preacher who recalls too forcibly Thackeray's secular character of Charles Honeyman. Besides these idyls there are promised in the volume a modern poem of considerable length, lyrics, and several north-coast idyls—studies of local dialect, following the example set by Tennyson in his "Lincolnshire Farmer." The mention of the laureate's name reminds us of the current rumor that he is busily engaged on a poem of which nothing further is made known than that it is founded on a classical subject.

—A lady who has been a voluminous authoress in fiction and journal literature, and, under the name of "Holme Lee," has acquired an extended reputation, is about to make her appearance in public *in propria persona* as Harriet Parr, in connection with "The Life and Death of Joanne d'Arc, called the Maid," in two volumes crown 8vo. The liberality of the French Government has made public, in the "Monument Historique," the whole series of documents remaining in the national archives on the trial and condemnation of Joan of Arc. They form an invaluable mass of contemporary records, and will afford Miss Parr much material new to English readers. The very curious evidence lately brought forward by M. Octave Delepierre to prove that the Maid of Orleans, instead of being burnt at Rouen, actually survived till the next reign, married, and had children, must be noticed, though so lame a conclusion to a story rich in the noblest tragic interest can never be accepted without the strongest possible confirmation. Miss Parr's work will be issued by Messrs. Smith & Elder.

—The list of books in press by Messrs. Blackwood & Son includes the third and fourth volumes of Count Montalembert's earnest, eloquent, and picturesque history of European monachism, "The Monks of the West, from St. Benedict to St. Bernard," the translation authorized by the author under the provisions of the international copyright law; "Geology for General Readers," by David Page, F.G.S., the gentleman who is supposed to have found the science for the once famous "Vestiges of Creation;" "The Operations of War Explained and Illustrated," by Col. E. B. Hamley, author of the "Story of Sebastopol," in one vol. quarto, with plans, etc.; "The History of Scotland, from Agricola's Invasion to the Revolution of 1688," by John Hill Burton, author of "The Bookhunter," etc.; "Physiology of the Farm, in Raising and Feeding the Live Stock," by Henry Stephens (whose "Book of the Farm" is a standard authority) and William Seller, M.D. It has been one of the characteristics of Messrs. Blackwood's career as publishers not to permit any books issued by them to be thrown on the market at a reduced price, to the prejudice of book-buyers and the unsettlement of trade values. Any book not found salable that they publish is silently withdrawn from sale and the entire number of copies destroyed. Their liberality to authors is well exemplified in their transactions with the family of Robert Pollock, author of "The Course of Time," to whom they had gratuitously paid several thousand pounds after becoming fairly the owners of the copyright for a very trifling sum. Under their management Sir Archibald Alison is supposed to have received a larger amount of copyright money than any author in Great Britain, with the possible exception of Sir Walter Scott. This is accounted for by the bulk and high price of the historical works and the numerous editions they have gone through.

ROBERT OWEN.*

EARNESTNESS is so remarkable a quality—earnestness in behalf of the neglected and the poor is so very remarkable—earnestness amounting to a life-long devotion and based on a principle is so rare—that, in our opinion, it should have the hearty admiration of every man who is himself in earnest. If the earnestness is wild, smile at the wildness, but give the earnestness its praise. If it is misspent, be sorry for it, but honor it with even more tenderness. If it proceeds on a mistaken principle, kindly show wherein the principle is mistaken, and show, if possible, how a different principle would answer better; but still protect the earnestness from slight or depreciation. This would seem to be the part of a wise man. But if it be, the author of this little book is not wise; for, though he will not admit that he is insensible to the claims which an earnest man has on his admiration, he thinks something else—his own theory of human nature and human society for instance—so much more respectable than earnestness, that the latter great quality gets but a modicum of commendation, and that of a patronizing sort, in consequence of its alleged theoretic unsoundness.

Whatever else Robert Owen may have been, he was an intensely earnest man. He spent great sums of money, devoted large portions of valuable time, exposed himself to many and severe personal privations, submitted to repeated misunderstandings, discouragements, and failures; and through all, with unabated fidelity, with undimmed hope, with a cheerfulness that never gave out and an amiability that would never be crossed, he—a rich and able and prosperous man—labored for those who were neither able, prosperous, nor rich—the working classes of Scotland, England, and every part of the earth. His patience was admirable, his resolution untiring, his heart generous, as we say, to a fault; his spirit was, in the true sense of the word, humane. He knew no distinction of persons, but placed the poor man on the same ground of humanity with the rich. He deplored the jealousy that existed between capitalist and laborer to the injury of both, and did his utmost to remove it by proving their interests identical. He had great faith in reason mingled with kindness, in kindness supported by reason. He was a man of unimpeachable integrity, unquestioned veracity, and unsullied purity. But of all this the reader of this life will obtain very little information and very grudging admission. A great deal is said of Mr. Owen's vanity and inflation and fussy self-importance, but when his nobler qualities are mentioned they are mentioned with such invariable abatement and qualification as to raise a doubt whether they substantially existed at all. We are not allowed to forget for the space of a single short chapter the social and religious heresies for which the reformer was unhappily famous, and which no personal consecration should, in this author's judgment, be allowed to palliate or conceal.

To those heresies we are by no means blind or indifferent. They were certainly very grave, as Mr. Owen's experience proved. They were put forth with a zeal that was intemperate and with an air of authority that was disagreeable. With his crudely digested dogma of human irresponsibility, according to which man is the creature of outward circumstances and of physical organization, a dogma which reduces society to a piece of mechanism, we disclaim, of course, all agreement and all sympathy. His other cardinal doctrine of "communism," apart from its irrationality and error, seems to us void and sterile. But these two dogmas do not sum up Mr. Owen's faith, and if they did, there was something in the spirit in which he held them that should shield him from opprobrium. It is better to hold error in the spirit of truth than truth in the spirit of error. Mr. Owen held error, grave error, deplorable error, if you will, but he held it in the spirit of truth; he held it in charity; and so holding it, he in a measure disarmed it. His own devoted energy corrected the fatalism of his creed; his own glowing zeal warmed up its coldness; his own independence balanced its rigidity; his incessant hopefulness helped to take away the dead-level character of its range; his own ardent goodness saved it under his advocacy from the charge of immoral tendencies. In order to condemn his theory we must separate it from himself.

But in condemning his theory we must not suppose, with the writer of

* "Life of Robert Owen" Philadelphia: Ashmead & Evans. 12mo, pp. 264.

this life, that we have put his faith under condemnation. Robert Owen's faith was something more than his dogma. He believed in an eternal and infinite Creator, who made the world in order that it might become happy in becoming perfect, and who had planted in the constitution of undivided and associated man the vital principles and laws by which the perfect happiness might and must be attained. Religion, in his view, consisted in charity to all mankind, devotion to the truth, patient study and faithful observance of all the facts and conditions which indicate and produce personal and social well-being; charity, moderation, kindness, contentment, cheerfulness, obedience to the divinely enacted and imposed laws of being, were the qualities that were well pleasing in the sight of heaven. He lived in the faith that the end of existence would be fulfilled in the practice of mutual good-will, and the earnest desire to contribute to the happiness of mankind without distinction of race, blood, or color. True happiness, he went on to contend, was the result of a sound mind in a sound body, the elements thereof being a purpose to increase the happiness of our kind and to augment the sum of human knowledge; freedom from superstition, freedom from malice, freedom from unveracity, freedom from indifference, freedom from all that hampers personal independence and hinders individual development.

These beliefs may be very wild and visionary, foolish, utopian, and all that. They certainly are so regarded by the great mass of mankind in and out of Christendom. We may smile at them, but have we any right to smile contemptuously at them? Is there not a certain beauty in them which makes them lovely to the imagination, even if they seem impalpable to the common understanding of mankind? Yet the author of this new "Life" suspects no elevation here. After confessing in one paragraph that Mr. Owen, in his address before the American Congress, in 1824, "proposed greatly to enlarge the liberty of the people, which he considered rather nominal than real; for while in a political sense, as in the choice of rulers, the enactment of laws, etc., they enjoyed great freedom, the 'national mind' was yet under the tyranny of prejudice"—while admitting that "he proposed to disenthral it, and introduce an order of things under which there should be no restraint save that of mutual love and good-will, all sources of discontent, poverty, controversy, crime, and misery should be dried up and the inhabitants of the land compose one harmonious brotherhood"—after giving a condensed summary of his positions, among which are these, that "the constitution of our nature was formed by the power which originally gave it existence to be influenced by the circumstances which should surround it; it is the science of circumstances by which, without any chance of failure, virtue, intelligence, affluence, and happiness may be secured to every individual of the rising generation," he opens the next paragraph in this wise: "In spite of the offensiveness of Mr. Owen's doctrines and pretensions to all sober and well-informed minds, we always find something to admire in the earnestness and single-mindedness with which he pursued his aims." Now see what he means by "admiration of earnestness and single-mindedness:" "A visit to an insane asylum is, in many respects, very painful, yet there is no more interesting school for the student of psychological phenomena. Among the patients we have often observed with surprise that one apparently supposes himself to have an advantage over another, and rather shuns association with him, or looks on him with evident sympathy [we presume the writer means *pity*], as if himself were exempted from so dire a calamity. We heard something analogous to this [pity of the more insane for the less?] in connection with the two discourses delivered by Mr. Owen in the halls of Congress."

We repeat, to the social and ethical theories propounded in those two discourses, and in other writings of Mr. Owen, we give no assent whatever. We hold them to be superficial and fallacious—so superficial and so fallacious as to carry with them their own refutation, and be practically, to any considerable extent, harmless; but we consider that the aims, purposes, endeavors and spirit of Mr. Owen receive no just treatment at the hands of his biographer. Why was this biography written? was the question that kept coming up as chapter after chapter was left behind in the reading. As an account of Robert Owen's life it would be unsatisfactory by reason of the meagreness of its detail and the narrowness of its view, even if the author were not every now and then throwing suspicion on the only authentic narrative in his possession, namely, the "Autobiography," by intimating that the writer's self-conceit probably got the better of his veracity in some particulars. As an account of Mr. Owen's work, the book has little value, for the effort to underrate its importance and set down its accomplishment at the lowest figure is apparent on almost every page. As a statement of Mr. Owen's social philosophy it is wholly inadequate, for, while casual mention is made of St. Simon and Fourier, there is no attempt to describe their systems or to define the points wherein they were distinguished from the Scotchman's. As a presentment of Mr. Owen's religious philosophy, the volume is worse than inadequate, for it leaves the positive side of it entirely out of view; intimates, in fact, that it had no positive side at all.

Why, then, was it written? Was it written for reproof and warning? Warning against what? Surely not a general disposition to copy Robert Owen either in his aims or his methods. There is no occasion for bidding our generation beware of one or the other. The elevation of his purposes is not likely to find many popular imitators, and the time for such experiments as he made is gone by—not for a very long time, at least, to return. Communism is a dead scheme; or if not, the name of Robert Owen has no power to bring it again into favor. The new science of "sociology" makes small account of his studies or his labors. They who would meet to-day the philosophy which teaches that man is the creature of organization and circumstance, the subject of conditions and the result of law, must be prepared to deal not with Robert Owen, but with Buckle and Draper. And this man is not the man for that. Why did he write this book? The only answer we can give to the question is this: he imagined that the modern doctrines of social science, in their latest form of development, were no stronger than the weakest part of Owen's immature theory.

MISS SEWELL'S PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATION.*

THE first thing to do in noticing this book is to clear away its local peculiarities and references. Many, perhaps all of them, would have been modified or suppressed by the author herself, had an opportunity been offered her by the American publisher. She would have widened her range, had she been invited to prepare an edition for this country, by applying her principles to "female education" not only "in the upper classes," but in other classes by whom her lessons would be equally appreciated. She would have laid less stress upon the immorality, or the tendency to immorality, in the circle she addressed; she would have said little or nothing of separation between mothers and daughters or the means by which they might be re-united. On the other hand, she might have spoken of some evils among us which do not exist among her people, and, sensitive as we are to English criticism, we might have welcomed such criticism as hers. Yet after admitting the Anglicanism of the book, and ascribing it, as we ought to do, to the publisher who does not consult his author, we can say that Miss Sewell has written a work capable of doing great service to the cause of education in the United States.

To say that it is emphatically a woman's book is to say nothing against it, but rather a great deal for it. Written by a woman, it is the more sensitive to

> ——"those first affections,
> Those shadowy recollections,"

in which the training of the child begins. Written for women, it addresses those to whom the care of the young first falls, and by whom the growing years are most deeply and most lastingly affected. When Doña Oliva Sabuco dedicated her "Philosophy of the Nature of Man" to Philip II. of Spain, she told his majesty that a woman was then rendering him a greater service than any which he had received from men. No woman can write of education, especially of female education, in a spirit like Miss Sewell's without doing what a man cannot do, though he write ever so wisely or powerfully.

The book before us is "the result," as the author remarks, "not of theory but of experience." She might have said, of unusual experience. Miss Sewell has had the care of very young children, orphans in their infancy, and brought up by her as by a mother. She has taken charge of private pupils, to whom she has devoted herself with daily fidelity for years. She has been constantly writing, now a book to be used in the school-room, now one to be read in the closet, besides the tales which have rendered her name familiar wherever the contemporary literature of England is known. In all these writings the purpose to teach, and to teach out of the full measure of the writer's experiences, is a distinguishing characteristic. They are the utterances of a life of responsibility and of exertion for others, and, whatever else may be said about them, this much is indisputable, that they deserve to be received with respectful attention.

These principles of education that Miss Sewell has drawn from nature and revelation are addressed, above all, to mothers. She would assist them in their care; she would give them something of the reflection, something of the self-control, which they always need but do not always possess; she would not relieve them of their duties, perhaps she would not even lighten them, but she would help them to consistency, completeness, and success.

* "Principles of Education, drawn from Nature and Revelation and applied to Female Education in the Upper Classes. By the Author of 'Amy Herbert,' etc., etc." London: Longmans. Republished by D. Appleton & Co., New York.

There are few mothers, very few young mothers, who will not thank us for having urged them to read this volume, if they read it thoughtfully. But it is not for mothers alone. It speaks to daughters of the dutifulness they owe their parents, of the graces they may cultivate, the errors they may shun. It calls upon them to bear their part in their education, to control themselves, to give as well as to receive, and to live for the good of others, their kindred and their neighbors, as well as for their own. There are other passages for teachers, particularly for those who, like governesses, are brought into personal relations with their pupils. The sympathy expressed in their labors, the opportunity of comparing notes, the correction of effort already begun, the suggestion of effort yet to be begun, will excite the interest of all engaged in offices of instruction. Nor will it fail to strike female teachers particularly, how earnestly Miss Sewell pleads for the consideration that is due to them, and for the exaltation of which she justly thinks their present condition susceptible.

All this is said, and said in detail to which we can do no justice here, with precision and clearness. The book is decided. It is also, and that in these days is to its credit, intelligible. It is not one of those treatises that puzzle the mind with problems they leave unsolved. Education is treated as a subject involving grave questions, but not too grave to be answered, just as it involves serious labors, but not too serious to be discharged. Mothers, daughters, and teachers are all to be watchful, even anxious, but not despondent. The most painful of their efforts need not be fruitless; the most threatening of their difficulties need not prove insuperable.

> "So others shall
> Take patience, labor, to their heart and hand,
> From thy hand, and thy heart, and thy brave cheer,
> And God's grace fructify through thee to all."

"The one sole desire of the writer," says the preface, "has been to base the principles of education upon the teaching of God in nature and revelation." To do this, Miss Sewell confesses that she has neither relied upon nor sought after anything that can be called new. "Education," she says in her first chapter, "can by no possibility be founded upon any principles in the nineteenth century which were not equally in existence and equally binding at the time when man's present state of probation began." Why, then, another book upon a subject so very old? Because, as Miss Sewell insists, "every age and every phase of society has its own characteristics, its own dangers, and its own fallacies, and will therefore necessarily view the subject of education in a manner peculiar to what may be called its own idiosyncrasies." As for the present age, its idiosyncrasy is described as an excessive regard for what it terms system. "Everything undertaken—more especially if it refers to the training of the young—is to be carried on upon some definite plan." But it is especially in the training of the young that system—in other words, a single unbroken mode of action—is objectionable. "A system must, so far as it is a system, act without regard to the varieties of character; it must aim at producing the same tone of mind in every individual subjected to its influence; and the first elementary truth in education—because lying at the foundation, as it would appear, of all God's dealings with man, and all His purposes for him—is, that we are neither required nor intended to have the same tone of mind." From this point Miss Sewell goes on to show how God has actually dealt with some of his chosen instruments, as with Joseph and Moses in the Old Testament, or with St. Paul in the New, giving a different discipline to each, and training each to the achievement of its appointed ends. Hence comes the inference that if such is God's system of education, man's systems must correspond to it, or else inevitably fail to educate those whom they take in charge. Of all the principles set forth in the book this is the sum: "that the object of education is the carrying out of God's will for the individual; that the purpose of His will is hidden from us in the eternal counsels of God, but that the direction in which we are to work is pointed out to us by the peculiar endowments of character and of intellect with which every person is gifted, whilst the principles which are to guide us are contained in the two great commands—to love God wholly, and to love our neighbor as ourselves."

Such is the Scriptural theory of education, the only theory, as our author argues, which can be employed with any confidence or hopefulness. It removes, as will be seen at once, many of the embarrassments in which education is necessarily involved, though it cannot, of course, remove those which are essential and inevitable. To some of these, to all indeed of most frequent recurrence, Miss Sewell proceeds to advert, taking them up from the human nature that underlies them all to the forms which each assumes according to the dispositions or circumstances in which it appears. Perhaps a general idea of the manner in which they are treated may be gathered from the view that is taken of evil as a whole. It is not, according to Miss Sewell, "a distinct principle in itself, but a perversion of good." When, therefore, we would deal with the evil that appears in the nature of a child we must not set ourselves madly against it as something to be utterly annihilated, but must be patient with it, and indeed make use of it as an indication of latent good, in order that the good may be evolved and rendered the predominant power in the character which we are attempting to form. Falsehood or temper, pride or vanity, whatever the fault may be, covers some fine trait from which the film must be taken away and the blur removed, but which is itself to be tenderly rather than roughly handled. A philosophy like this lights up the darker passages of education and gives buoyancy to the step which threads them in the hope of reaching the open day. But we must refer to Miss Sewell's chapters for illustrations of the practice to which her theory leads.

Two things above the rest appear to characterize the work under review. One is its determination to look forward, to regard the child not only as the child, but as the woman that is to be; and more than this, to regard both the child and the woman as on the way toward eternity. The other characteristic is the reference to a higher power than any which the parent or the teacher can wield, and on which they, as well as the children committed to them, are dependent for every fruit of education or of life. We are free to say that such things as these seem to us to stamp this book with a nobleness far above the educational works that lay stress upon the present as if it were the only time for which education is a preparation; or yet more blindly extol the human intellect as the one sufficient source of knowledge and power for the race. To those who prefer these views, Miss Sewell's book will not be acceptable; but it will have not its welcome only, but its abiding place, with such as, like her, look forward and upward. That touching letter to John Wesley from one of his followers recurs to us as we would describe the education to which Miss Sewell's principles apply:

"I have had as blessed times sitting at work as ever I had in my life, . . . with God in my sight and heaven in my soul. I think myself one of the happiest creatures below the skies. I do not complain that God has not made me some fine thing to be set up or to be gazed at; but I can heartily bless him that he has made me just what I am, a creature capable of the enjoyment of himself."

As Joubert said, "Nous vivons dans un siècle où les idées superflues surabondent, et qui n'a pas les idées nécessaires." Here in this book, of which our account is evidently an imperfect one, the reader will find the ideas most necessary in education. We trust they will have a large circulation and, better still, a lasting influence throughout our country.

THE BARDIC SCALE.*

In attempting the study of this volume we were somewhat staggered by the following sentence in the introduction:

"There are no rules belonging to any art that need no changing to meet the requirements of subsequent discoveries but the bardic rules of the Cambrians; and there are no inventions by any nation that will not bear improvement, when used by other nations, except these metres."

The illiberal spirit here exhibited pervades the whole volume, and detracts from the merits of a composition showing great labor and research in the compilation and arrangement of materials, for the author disclaims originality, as indeed it is difficult to see how he could be original in treating of an art already brought to perfection, except in his style of explaining its mystic rules to the uninitiated. Another objection to this otherwise excellent work is the controversial spirit in which it is written. The bardic fraternity are divided into two factions—the one advocating what is known as the "Carmarthen System," and the other the "Glamorgan System." Our author belongs to the latter, and it would be difficult to find for it a sturdier or abler champion.

It appears that a bardic assembly was held at Carmarthen in the year 1451, under the auspices of Griffith ap Nicholas, of Dinefor, where the bardic rules were recast, and new metres adopted to supply the places of those that were supposed to have been lost in the wars and commotions of preceding years. These rules were adopted without much opposition at the time, and became the acknowledged rules of bardic composition for many years. Indeed, they have not lost their supremacy to this day, notwithstanding the most strenuous efforts on the part of their opponents.

Those who disapproved of the rules of bardism as established in 1451, went zealously to work to recover the "lost art" of their forefathers and arrange the old materials into a system, and claimed that these were the true rules of composition, until they finally succeeded in having both systems put on an equal footing, so that the poet could follow either or both at his

* "The Bardic Scale: an Essay on the Metrical Rules of Cambrian Poetry in Ancient and Modern Times, and explaining the Nature and Value of the Four-and-Twenty Metres of Song. By Robert Ellis." With an Introduction by A. Jones.

own option. There is considerable difference between the two, but this difference exists more as to quantity than to quality; the one allows more variety than the other, but both call for a strict adherence to the rules of alliteration or consonancy, which is the distinguishing feature of Welsh poetry—a feature that could not possibly be introduced into the poetic compositions of any other language. Though considerable latitude is allowed to the poet, still there must be a certain amount of alliteration or consonance in every line; and a failure to comply with the rules on this subject is sure to consign any composition, no matter what may be its excellence in other respects, to eternal oblivion. There is much written in Welsh in what are called the "free metres" (similar to English metres), but these are considered as only inferior compositions, and the true poet scorns the idea of being engaged in such baby-work. To give the reader an idea of this alliteration we will offer an example in the language itself:

"*Trwst taran tros y tiroedd.*"

It will be observed that all the consonants in the first two words are the same as those in the last three, with the exception of the last in the second and fifth. But the two *t*'s at the end of the first word and the beginning of the second are allowed to answer for the *t* at the beginning of the fifth. The consonants in the first half of the verse are in the same order as those in the last half. Had the poet introduced another consonant in the first part, without a corresponding one in the last, or had the order been different in one of the parts from what it is in the other, or had the last consonant of the second word been the same as the last of the fifth, the inexorable bardic law would have been violated, and the composition condemned. The poor bard is not always required to have all his consonants alliterate as they do in this line; but whether few or many, he must follow the same general principle in his composition. A style much easier than the foregoing, and more commonly used, is the alliteration of two or more syllables in the verse.

There are twenty-four metres, and the lines vary from four to twelve syllables. The metre most in vogue is the "epigram," which is well adapted for the expression of a sentiment in a terse, vigorous, and pithy style; and many of the best authors make it a point to have the *sound* of the words as well as their *sense* remind the reader of the subject. The following, descriptive of a cataract, is undoubtedly the best in the language:

"Uchelgadr raiadr dwr ewyn—hydrwyllt,
Edrych arno'n disgyn;
Crochwaedd y rhedlif crychwyn,
Synu pensyfrdanu dyn."

In some of the metres of the Carmarthen system the principle of alliteration is carried to such an absurd extreme that they have been generally abandoned by a kind of mutual consent.

It would be a mistake, however, to suppose that these characteristics are the essentials of Cambrian poetry. These are the garments in which it is to be dressed and the ornaments with which it is to be decorated. It is no wonder that sometimes more attention has been paid to the ornaments than to the thing itself, and good rhythm has been allowed to supply the place of poetic sentiment. According to old Welsh authority, it is required of a poet to "have an eye to see nature, a heart to feel nature, and courage to follow nature;" and when the principle of this sentiment is carried out by a master of the rules of composition, when the inward spirit corresponds to the outward appearance, the effect is wonderfully charming. The ear is attracted by the sound, as the mind is attracted by the sentiment.

Poems Relating to the American Revolution. By Philip Freneau. With an Introductory Memoir and Notes. By Evert A. Duyckinck. (W. J. Widdleton, New York.)—Freneau was a native of New York and a descendant of one of those rather numerous Huguenot refugees who sought an asylum on the shores of our bay. He was a graduate of Princeton College, in the same class with James Madison; and in Jersey he spent the greater and the latter part of his days. We learn from Mr. Duyckinck's entertaining memoir that the poet was as warm an admirer as Jefferson of the doctrines of revolutionary France; and it is evident that his French blood strengthened his patriotic hatred of Britain. He suffered, too, at this port, in the prison-ships of the enemy, such hardships as were calculated to make his resentment implacable. As he sang the exploits of John Paul Jones in the first war with the mother country, so he lived to celebrate the naval victories which alone redeemed our warfare in 1812. We have called him a poet rather than an apt rhymester, because the present selection from his poems is evidently not a fair sample of his imaginative powers, and we are willing to concede something to the estimation in which he is held by the editor; and also because even among the contents of this volume we detect a trace of the divine afflatus. "Arnold's Departure," in imitation of Horace, shows no little skill and scholarship, and full intellectual sympathy with the spirit of the original. The following is worth quoting for its intrinsic merit and for its pertinency to the late civil struggle. It is called

THE NORTHERN SOLDIER.

In vain you talk of fruits and flowers,
When rude December chills the plain,
And nights are cold, and long the hours,
To damp the ardor of the swain;
Who, parting from his social fire,
All comfort must forego,
And here, and there,
And everywhere,
Pursue the invading foe.

But we must sleep in frosts and snows
No season breaks up our campaign;
Hard as the oaks, we dare oppose
The autumnal or the wintry reign.
Alike to us, the winds that blow
In summer's season gay,
Or those that rave
On Hudson's wave,
And drift his ice away.

Traitors and death may cloud our scene,
The ball may pierce, the cold may kill,
And dire misfortunes intervene:
But Freedom shall be potent still. . . .

Mr. Freneau had a green old age, dying not earlier than 1832. His political verses are inseparable from the history of the formative period of our government, and deserve the present substantial edition of them. This city is under renewed obligation to the publisher for his preservation of its local antiquities.

Robert Dalby and His World of Troubles. Being the Early Days of a Connoisseur. (J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.)—This anonymous romance, an English production, excites a certain sort of interest by its incidents, which are varied enough and not improbable, but scarcely any by the character or want of character of its hero. With all his troubles, this personage risked far more than he encountered, and, considering the number of times he was rescued from impending misfortune by unlooked-for benefactors, might as well have had something to say about his world of friends. He virtually admits his failure as a painter, and the little art-talk in which he indulges creates the suspicion that his pretensions to the title of connoisseur are mistaken and ill-grounded. The author seems to have conceived a life, as he thought, eminently favorable to an artistic temperament, and to have attempted to portray it in the form of a novel, revealing, however, neither an intimate acquaintance with nature nor with the technics of his profession. The story has very little plot; the actors die or are dropped off according as they become inconvenient; and the few conversations which are tolerated are generally formal as in a play. Nevertheless the descriptions of sundry localities, chiefly in one of the university cities, have an air of reality, and there are some effective touches in a few of the personal delineations. The "world of troubles" is bounded by the four seas, and in Holland the connoisseur finds wealth and a wife.

Wanderings over Bible Lands and Seas. By the author of "The Schönberg-Cotta Family." (Robert Carter & Bros., New York.)—These notes of travel begin with Malta and end with Smyrna. The ground has been so thoroughly gone over and described in all manner of detail that little is left for ordinary tourists to descant upon. Nor do we learn here for the first time how a devout mind is affected by scenes which are sanctified in the history of the Christian faith. Yet we would not say that this volume is without instruction both geographical and religious. Its value for the reader will depend upon his previous acquaintance with the library of the East.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE HISTORY OF HENRY THE FIFTH: KING OF ENGLAND, LORD OF IRELAND, AND HEIR OF FRANCE. By George Makepeace Towle. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

THE ALHAMBRA.—WOLFERT'S ROOST AND OTHER PAPERS. By Washington Irving. G. P. Putnam; Hurd & Houghton, New York.

LETTERS OF PETER COOPER ON THE NECESSITY OF A WISE, DISCRIMINATING TARIFF, ETC. The *Iron Age*, New York.

SPENCERIAN KEY TO PRACTICAL PENMANSHIP. By H. C. Spencer. Ivison, Phinney, Blakeman & Co., New York.

ORIGIN OF THE LATE WAR. Traced from the Beginning of the Constitution to the Revolt of the Southern States. By George Lunt.—LETTERS OF LIFE. By Mrs. L. H. Sigourney. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

THE CURRENCY AND FINANCES. Reduce the Debt before Contracting the Currency. By Sam. R. Reed, of the Cincinnati *Gazette*. *Gazette* Office, Cincinnati.

JAMES LOUIS PETIGRU. A Biographical Sketch. By William J. Grayson.—AGNES. A Novel. By Mrs. Oliphant. Harper and Bros. New York.

JEALOUSY. By George Sand. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

THE PARABLES READ IN THE LIGHT OF THE PRESENT DAY. By Thomas Guthrie, D.D.—A PLEA FOR THE QEEEN'S ENGLISH. By Henry Alford, D.D. Second Edition. Alexander Strahan, London and New York.

Fine Arts.

TWO PICTURE SALES.

AN important sale of foreign pictures, principally by French artists, will begin on Thursday evening, the 8th of March. As we write, the pictures are on exhibition, under the charge of Mr. S. P. Avery, at the "Old Düsseldorf Gallery" on Broadway, next door to "Tiffany's."

An auction sale and the antecedent show do not offer a good opportunity for criticism of works of art. That is especially the case in the present instance, on account of the shortness of time, the great number of pictures ("250, by 135 different artists"), the imperfect light upon them in the gloomy old gallery where they hang, their varying merit representing

every grade but the highest, and the absolute impossibility of so using words as to express rightly all those grades among such a jostling crowd of canvases. But many of these pictures we have spoken of before. Here, for instance, is that picture by De Jonghe, of which the name is "La Causerie Intime," one of the painter's most recent works, and exhibited in the Paris Exhibition of last spring. It is No. 163 A of this sale-catalogue, and is called "The Two Friends." Here is that admirable picture by M. Florent Willems, of which we spoke at length in THE NATION of January 11, 1866—"Au Roi!" It is No. 59 of the catalogue. Here, No. 60, is Gérome's "Diogenes," the little picture with which New York is grown somewhat acquainted and knows well in photography. No. 178 is that picture of Tissot's, "The Attempted Abduction," miscalled "The Duel," which we described in THE NATION of February 1. It seems to us the best Tissot that has been brought to this country.

A landscape by Otto Weber, of Berlin, No. 48, "The Ox-cart—Brittany," is of great merit. Long acquaintance with it enables us to say that it "improves upon acquaintance." Another, by the same artist, No. 172, "The Wood Merchant—Brittany," we now see for the first time; it seems to be of nearly equal value with its fellow. The best landscape by Lambinet that we know of is the large one, No. 170, "Autumn [afternoon] at St. Marc de la Bruyère." This is the best landscape in the room, unless the darkness of the miserably lighted gallery makes things seem as they are not. The little landscape by M. Plassan is pleasantly characteristic of the painter and, in its peculiar way, really "a gem." The merits of his landscapes do not inhere in his figures. The portrait by Merle, for portrait it seems to be, belongs to an order of pictures for which we have as little sympathy as for any work of man, but partly explains the popularity of the painter, from the character of the notice it commands. Every visitor to the gallery is compelled to look at it within five minutes after his entrance. Mr. Boughton, our countryman, sends a picture of thought and interest, No. 43, "The Past." One Spanish painter, at least, is represented, Señor Parra, who has sent two pictures, from which it appears that flower painting is a specialty of his. Baron Wappers, one of the lights of the Flemish school, is not well represented by his great picture "Italia;" but that is generally and naturally the case with the more celebrated painters in American exhibitions—their best work does not cross the water. Every brush-mark of so celebrated an artist will fetch an exorbitant price.

Among the numerous drawings, in water color, in pencil, and (*à la française*) in both, the charming fruit-piece by dead William Hunt is unquestionably the most beautiful. Why is it hung up above the eye? It has been hanging in a good place in Mr. Avery's pleasant rooms on Fourth Street; where it now is, it is hardly recognizable. There are six little drawings in water color by Calmelet, very charming, though not—perhaps not pretending to be—literal in color. A little pen-and-ink sketch by Gavarni is worth notice, and worth money. The drawing by Gustave Doré is not good, very unworthy of the artist, but is also worth money, and plenty of it.

The catalogue of this sale would serve anybody for a text who might wish to preach thoroughness in small things. In the first place it is not a *catalogue*, but a very helter-skelter list. The numbers of pictures are not arranged as the pictures are hung, nor according to any alphabetical order of artists' names, nor according to schools, nor according to any discoverable system. Even the works of one painter are not printed together. The pictures have been hung as came handy, with some regard to placing two works by the same man opposite to each other or balancing on the same wall; and the "catalogue" for its part must have been made out from old invoices. But they were not invoices of the original shipments from Europe, for the names of painters suffer dreadfully. The existence of accents is ignored; e, è, and ê were evidently all one vowel to the proof-reader, and even the somewhat important circumflex accent merely a form. The mistakes in printing *Frere* and *Leon* without the accents are not very serious mistakes, but it is worse when we find Honoré and René turned in the same line into *Honore* and *Rene*, and even the well-known name of Gustave Doré printed *Dore*. Then, for misspelling of names, Mr. Boughton has an important letter left out of his, and appears as *Bougton* (207), Mr. Merle appears as *Huges* Merle (175), Mr. Athanase Aufray has his saintly Christian name (Athanasius) turned into *Athanse* (133), and we have marked perhaps a score of other such blunders, Emille for Emile several times, Isadore for Isidore, etc. People should remember that Frenchmen's names are as important to them as Yankees'. But there is yet to be noticed perhaps the most delicious bit of all. M. Louis Lanfant was born at Metz, and is often called Lanfant de Metz, just as a certain Herr Meyer is called Meyer von Bremen. The latter is called Meyer *of* Bremen, very properly, in the catalogue, and the former, very properly, too, but inconsistently, is left untranslated. But there appears a little hand-catalogue printed on foolscap paper, and the well-known painter of No. 63 appears as "De Metz" merely. That is as if Mr. Boughton were to be called "of Albany," or Mr. Whistler "Bostonian," in France, which we believe they are not. Is Düsseldorf always to be printed Dusseldorf?

A number of pictures by Mr. George H. Hall are on exhibition at Miner & Somerville's gallery, to be sold on March 12. They look better all together than when contrasted with pictures brighter in color. The gallery walls are pleasantly filled, and all the pictures easily to be seen; moreover, Mr. Hall does not defy the public by asking them to bid for sketches and scrawls and used-up studies, but he has sent seventy finished pictures. The sale is intelligently arranged, too; the frames are not to be sold at auction, but must be taken at cost price by the purchasers of the pictures to which they belong.

Of Mr. Hall's pictures those we like the best are the cherries on bough and strawberry plants, and like groups of fruit in a state of nature. So Nos. 9 and 30 and 61 seem to us much better worth having than the "dining-room picture" of fruit prepared for dessert. And the pictures we like the least are the Spanish figure subjects, some of them, indeed, as No. 60, too nearly like reminiscences of Murillo to look well unacknowledged as such. These figure subjects are in fact very undeserving of praise, and would call for severe censure if this were the fitting place for it. Nor does it seem to us that the beauty of color in natural fruit and flowers has justice done it; the tone of coloring adopted in all Mr. Hall's work is not pure or bright enough for that; purple is shaded not with darker purple, but with grey. It is not fair to compare water-color with oil painting, but, as far as can be judged by such comparison, Mr. Farrer's drawings at Goupil's three months ago were as forcible as these works, and more beautiful in color.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening,
March 3, 1866.

THE price of gold continues to decline, though Government has ceased to sell. No sales have been made this week by the Government broker, but yesterday the price fell to 134¼, to-day to 133¼, and closed at 133⅜. So much gold was thrown upon the market by the Government sales in Feb-

ruary that the bears find no difficulty in borrowing it for delivery, and the bulls have to pay money to get their gold carried. Among operators the opinion prevails that gold must fall considerably lower, to 130 at least, before midsummer. Exchange continues to rule ¾ to 1 per cent. below the rate at which specie can be profitably exported as a remittance.

All eyes are directed to Washington, in the hope of discovering some indication of the probable course of Congress on the finance bill. Nothing trustworthy has been given to the public on the subject by the Washington correspondents of the daily papers. It has transpired that the reason why the bill was not taken up on the 28th ult., according to agreement, was the discovery that its fate, if then pressed to a vote, was very uncertain. There are a certain number of Congressmen who object to invest Mr. McCulloch with plenary powers because they desire to spite the Executive branch of the Government. Others object to the same feature of the bill because they deem it unsafe to create any one man dictator of the money market. And others, again, interested, directly or indirectly, in national banks or manufactures, object *in toto* to contraction in any shape. The latter party claim that the President is with them, and certainly some recent speeches of his, in which he seems to imply that the admission of Southern representatives to Congress would somehow or other cause such an absorption of greenbacks at the South that their value would presently approximate to the specie standard, afford some color of justification for the claim. On the other hand, Secretary McCulloch and a large number of the ablest men in Congress adhere to the belief that the way, and the only way, to restore specie payments is to contract the currency—to reduce the volume of legal tenders until they shall become as scarce as gold. Between these conflicting views Congress halts. Three months of the session have already expired, and nothing has yet indicated what policy will be pursued. Some weeks may elapse before a compromise is reached between the contending parties. Persons in the confidence of Secretary McCulloch announce that he has determined to resign in case Congress should refuse to pass the measure he deems necessary. But even without any new legislation, he is in a position to carry out his views to a large degree by substituting long bonds for currency whenever the money market offers favorable opportunities. He might, for instance, to-morrow, reduce the interest on the temporary loan to four per cent. This would lead to a withdrawal of probably half of the $118,000,000 now on deposit in the sub-treasuries—say $59,000,000—which sum the large balance on hand—say $115,000,000—would enable him to pay without difficulty. The effect of the withdrawal would be to cheapen money at all the financial centres and to enhance the price of Government bonds. Taking advantage of this, he might at once sell $100,000,000 to $200,000,000 of new five-twenties at a premium, and with the proceeds pay off half the outstanding debt certificates, cancel a few millions of greenbacks, and still keep a balance on hand which, in the event of a pinch in the money market, would enable him to pay off the remainder of the deposit certificates on demand. This would be a commencement of contraction, and might be effected without any new legislation. Congress will probably act on Mr. Morrill's suggestion with regard to the compound interest notes. Bankers seem agreed that they must hereafter be held as investments, and not as reserve. They are all now held at a premium which prevents their circulating as money. No financial expedient of the past four years has worked so well for the Government or for the country as this issue of compound interest notes; and it is due to J. Howard Wainwright, of New York, that he should be remembered as the author of the scheme.

Money continues fairly active at 7 per cent. on miscellaneous collateral and 6 per cent. on Governments. Mercantile paper is slow of sale, especially for second-class names. Capitalists are all waiting for the action of Congress on the finance bill, and no man is willing to let his money pass beyond his control for more than a day or two. At the West considerable embarrassment is reported. Notwithstanding the bounteous crops of the last two years, the West has been paying so much for Eastern and European goods that it finds itself in debt. Produce is selling at such low prices that when the forwarders' charges are paid, there is nothing left for the producer. A marked discontent prevails in commercial circles at the West, and both private and public advices from that quarter point to a season of "hard times." When navigation opens, a fair amount of cereals will come forward by way of the lakes to the seaboard. But if gold be maintained at present quotations, and the West brings as much as usual of those articles of general merchandise which are sold for gold, it is doubtful whether all the wheat and oats and corn and pork sent forward from Chicago, Milwaukee, and Detroit will pay for the sugar, tea, coffee, hides, and dry goods that will be sent West by the merchants of the seaboard.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	Feb. 24.	Mar. 3.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104	104⅜	⅜	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102¾	103	¼	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102¾	103	¼	....
10-40 Bonds	94	90¾ exc.	....	....
7.30 Notes, second series	99⅛	99¼	⅛	....
New York Central	91⅛	90⅝	....	½
Erie Railway	80⅞	85¼	4⅜	....
Hudson River	102	103	1	....
Reading Railroad	100	98¾	....	1¼
Michigan Southern	68⅞	69½	¾	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	77	76⅜	....	⅝
Chicago and North-western	27¼	26¾	....	½
" " " Preferred	54¼	53⅜	....	¾
Chicago and Rock Island	103¾	105	1⅛	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	92⅛	90¼	....	2⅛
Canton	44¼	44¼	....	⅛
Cumberland	44⅜	44¾	....	....
Mariposa	11¾	11½	¼	....
American Gold	137	133¾	....	3¼
Bankers' Bills on London	108⅜	108⅛	⅛	....
Call Loans	7	7	....	....

The feature of the week in the stock market has been a sudden advance in the stock of the Erie Railway. It rose on Thursday to 87, sold to-day as high as 86½, and closed at 85¼. The advance is due to a clique movement, managed by the veteran director of the road. It is understood that the clique has, for the third time within a year, bought up all the floating Erie, and expects to realize its profit by supplying the luckless speculators who are "caught short." Nothing short of a miracle can render such an operation profitable. It was tried in June, 1865, and by great good luck the clique made a small profit. It was tried again in January last, and the clique lost over half a million. How this third experiment will turn out remains to be seen. Every railroad man is aware that the Erie Railway Company is not making money at the present time; that the low price of produce and the general depression of business have led to a competition for freight in the course of which rates have been reduced to a point which leaves no profit for the carrier, and that no midsummer dividend can be fairly earned on the Erie. Under these circumstances there is not, and cannot be, any enquiry for Erie Railway stock for investment, and a clique which buys up all the stock may possibly make a trifle by cornering some foolish bears, but in the end it must inevitably be saddled with an immense quantity of stock which it cannot sell at any price. An effort in February to sell a few thousand shares knocked down the price from 97 to 75. A similar effort made now would lead to quite an equal decline. The recent cornering operations in Erie, managed by the leading director of the road, have generated a wholesome disgust in the public mind, and the stock itself is tabooed in many offices. Among the shorts to-day as much as ¼ to ⅜ of 1 per cent. was paid for the use of stock till Monday. Apart from Erie and Rock Island, which is also being bought up by a clique, the general course of the market has been downward. Fort Wayne, one of the soundest of the dividend-paying railways, has declined to the neighborhood of 90. The earnings continue to show a heavy falling off, and there are rumors that the dividend will be reduced. New York Central has also been pressed for sale by the party which bought on the prospect of the passage of a bill through the Legislature authorizing an increase in the rate of fare. It seems that this prospect is not quite as brilliant as it was. Reading, another of the sound dividend-paying stocks, has declined 1¼ per cent., partly in sympathy with the decline in the price of coal. Michigan Southern remains pretty steady. The leading director of the road, emulating the performances of the leading director of the Erie, has been selling a large quantity of "puts" at or about 69, and he will take care that, till his "puts" expire, the stock shall not decline much below that figure. When the puts have run out, buyers and holders will have to take care of themselves. No position in the world offers more brilliant opportunities for making money than that of leading director in a railway whose stock is active in the market. But it not unfrequently happens in such cases that the gains of the stockholders are in inverse ratio to those of their chosen directors.

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1866.

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OF THE

MUTUAL

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OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

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OFFICE,

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Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...	$11,799,414 68

RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.

For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64—	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66—	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34—	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48

Disbursements as follows:		
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40	
Paid Annuities	10,242 55	
Paid Taxes	38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12—	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,112,349 85

Invested as follows:		
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25	
Real Estate	782,307 24	
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14—	$14,112,349 85
Add:		
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30—	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR		$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same		$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)		122,750 00
Dividend additions to same		23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)		29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance		11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)		218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866		$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above		$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

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ITS CASH ASSETS ARE, ... $14,885,278 88

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ISAAC ABBATT, THEO. W. MORRIS, SECRETARIES. SHEPPARD HOMANS. ACTUARY.

FRED. M. WINSTON, CASHIER.

WILLIAM BETTS, LL.D., HON. LUCIUS ROBINSON, HON. ALEX. W. BRADFORD, COUNSEL.

MINTURN POST, M.D., ISAAC L. KIP, M.D., MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

F. RATCHFORD STARR, General Agent for the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

H. B. MERRELL, General Agent for the States of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, DETROIT, MICH.

HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

JNO. G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.

JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.

STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.

JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

O. F. BRESEE, General Agent for the State of Virginia, RICHMOND, VA.

L. SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.

H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

THE GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CAPITAL AND ASSETS EXCEEDING $1,500,000.

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

Assets, Nov. 1, 1865,	**$1,400,777 16**
Losses paid to date	**912,342 00**
Dividends paid to date	**412,748 00**

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the Policy-holders.

We refer to the following well-known Clergymen who are insured with us:

HENRY WARD BEECHER, R. S. STORRS, JR., HENRY ASHTON, W. P. STRICKLAND,

and are allowed to make the following extract from a private letter of the Rev. W. P. Strickland, D.D., as follows:

From what I *know* of the Union Mutual Life Insurance Company, 151 Broadway, where I am insured for $5,000, I believe that the Company is placed upon an immovable foundation; that its officers and agents are competent and honest, that it will faithfully and promptly meet all its covenants. I make this statement without any compensation, and without any hope of fees or reward whatever.

Brooklyn, July 31, 1865. W. P. STRICKLAND.

We invite careful attention to our table No. IV.,

"Non-forfeiture Endowment,"

being peculiarly adapted to those on salary.

Efficient agents are wanted,

J. W. & H. JUDD,

General Agents for New York and New Jersey.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND

INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.

JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

OFFICE OF THE ATLANTIC MUTUAL INSURANCE CO.,
New York, January 27, 1866.

The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following

Statement of its Affairs on the 31st December, 1865:

Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,933,146 80
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1865		2,019,324 73
Total amount of Marine Premiums		$8,952,471 53
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.		
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,764,146 38
Losses paid during the same period	$3,659,178 45	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$992,341 44	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks		$4,828,585 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise		3,330,350 00
Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages		221,260 00
Dividends on Stocks, Interest on Bonds and Mortgages and other Loans, sundry notes, re-insurance, and other claims due the Company, estimated at		144,964 43
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable		3,283,801 96
Cash in Bank, Coin		80,462 00
" " U. S. Treasury Note Currency		310,551 78
Total Amount of Assets		$12,199,975 17

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next.

Fifty per cent. of the outstanding certificates of the issue of 1864 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next, from which date interest on the amount so redeemable will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled to the extent paid.

A dividend of Thirty-Five per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending the 31st December, 1865, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the Third of April next.

By order of the Board,
J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

TRUSTEES.

John D. Jones, Charles Dennis, W. H. H. Moore, Henry Coit, Wm. C. Pickersgill, Lewis Curtis, Charles H. Russell, Lowell Holbrook, R. Warren Weston, Royal Phelps, Caleb Barstow, A. P. Pillot, William E. Dodge, Geo. G. Hobson, David Lane, James Bryce, Leroy M. Wiley, Daniel S. Miller, Wm. Sturgis, Henry K. Bogert, Joshua J. Henry, Dennis Perkins, Joseph Gaillard, Jr., J. Henry Burgy, Cornelius Grinnell, C. A. Hand, B. J. Howland, Benj. Babcock, Fletcher Westray, Robt. B. Minturn, Jr., Gordon W. Burnham, Frederick Chauncey, James Low, George S. Stephenson. William H. Webb.

JOHN D. JONES, President.
CHARLES DENNIS, Vice-President.
W. H. H. MOORE, 2d Vice-Pres't.
J. D. HEWLETT, 3d Vice-President.

THE
MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,
COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.
JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE
Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.
ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

JAY COOKE, WM. G. MOORHEAD, H. D. COOKE, H. C. FAHNESTOCK, EDWARD DODGE, PITT COOKE.

JAY COOKE & CO.,
BANKERS.

In connection with our houses in Philadelphia and Washington, we have this day opened an office at No. 1 Nassau Street, corner of Wall Street, in this city.

Mr. EDWARD DODGE, late of Clark, Dodge & Co., New York, Mr. H. C. FAHNESTOCK, of our Washington House, and Mr. PITT COOKE, of Sandusky, Ohio, will be resident partners.

We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, and EXCHANGE of GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues; to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, and GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,
BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - - - - - - - -	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - - -	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,
27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.
B. SEAMAN, Cashier.
ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier.

Insurance Scrip.
WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,
BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, of body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give

his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS,
PUBLISHER,
130 Nassau Street, N. Y.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S
Celebrated Gold Medal
GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT
PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,
AND
CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.
J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.
THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,
STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,
45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,
STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,
AND
BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

HOME FOR INVALIDS,
ESTABLISHED IN 1847,
BY E. E. DENNISTON, M.D.,

At Springdale, Northampton, Mass. Number limited to Forty.

Aware of the principles Dr. Denniston proposes conducting it upon, we are induced to recommend his establishment for the treatment of Chronic Diseases of various kinds. We believe it contains all the advantages of similar establishments, and have confidence in the skill and judgment, experience and prudence, of Dr. D. to direct the application of the various remedial treatment according to the exigencies of the individual cases.

J. C. Warren, M.D., John Ware, M.D.,
Geo. Hayward, M.D., J. M. Warren, M.D.,
Edw. Reynolds, M.D., M. I. Perry, M.D.,
Jacob Bigelow, M.D., J. Homans, M.D.

BOSTON, February 29, 1848.
Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D.
" Brooklyn, C. L. Mitchell, M.D.

THE MUSICAL INSTITUTE,
OF PROVIDENCE, R. I.,
Affords rare facilities for obtaining a
THOROUGH MUSICAL EDUCATION.
Send for Circulars and Catalogues. Address
EBEN TOURJEE, Providence, R. I.

GREAT SALE
OF
OIL AND WATER-COLOR PAINTINGS.

The Entire Collection of Foreign Works of Art consigned to
S. P. AVERY,
OF 694 BROADWAY,

with many new and important additions, made expressly for this Sale, selected for him with especial regard for this market. Altogether 250 pictures by 135 different artists, such as

TISSOT, MERLE, BRION, WILLEMS, FRERE, GÉROME, JALABERT, DUVERGER, WAPPERS, BONGEUREAU, DILLENS, ANTIGNA, SCHLESINGER, FICHEL, BRILLOUIN, MEYER OF BREMEN, KOEK-KOEK, CHAPLIN, LE POITTEVIN, MOULINET, FAUVELET, VOERBOECKHOVEN, GIRADET, BOUGHTON, THOM, LAMBINET, ETC., ETC.

WATER-COLORS
BY THE CELEBRATED
WILLIAM HUNT (deceased), GUSTAVE DORÉ, COMPTE CALIX, JULES NOEL, DAVID, JACQUE, MAROHN, GAVARNI, GIRADIN, COUTOURIER, LEMMENS, TESSON, CALMELET, COUDER, ETC., ETC.,

to which is added the important and well-known work by
F. E. CHURCH,
"TWILIGHT IN THE WILDERNESS,"

now on Exhibition, Day and Evening, at the Old Düssel dorf Gallery, 548 Broadway, and will be sold at auction by H. H. Leeds and Miner, on the evenings of Thursday and Friday, March 8 and 9.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
110 Broadway, FRED'K C. WITHERS.
New York, January 1, 1866.

BRADY'S GALLERY.
OPEN DAY AND EVENING.
785 Broadway, corner of Tenth Street.
FREE TO THE PUBLIC.
GRAND EXHIBITION
of an entirely new and attractive collection of
WAR VIEWS
AND PORTRAITS OF REPRESENTATIVE MEN.

The collection comprises more than two thousand pictures, several hundred specimen copies of which have just been placed on exhibition as above.

FINKLE & LYON'S
IMPROVED
LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

AGENTS WANTED. 538 Broadway, N. Y.

CARTER, KIRTLAND & CO.,
Manufacturers and Jobbers of
CLOTHING,
340 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

Offer to first-class buyers a Large and very Complete Stock of
SPRING AND SUMMER CLOTHING
OF ALL GRADES,
Embracing
FINE, MEDIUM, AND LOW-PRICED GOODS.

Our Stock is prepared with special reference to the wants of all sections and climates. Great care and attention is bestowed upon the manufacture. The newest fabrics are always selected, the latest fashions consulted, and every garment thoroughly and durably made.

All orders entrusted to us are executed with the same fidelity and attention, and with every advantage of the market, which they would have were the parties present in person to select for themselves.

Jobbers, Merchant Tailors, Country Merchants, and Dealers generally, will find it to their advantage to call and examine our stock before purchasing.

SPECIAL INDUCEMENTS TO CASH BUYERS.

SAMUEL CARTER, WM. H. KIRTLAND,
JOHN ROSE, CHAS. P. PEET.
JOHN H. WERTS, Special.

Pacific Mail Steamship Company's
THROUGH LINE
TO CALIFORNIA,
TOUCHING AT MEXICAN PORTS,
AND CARRYING THE U. S. MAIL,

Leave Pier No. 42 North River, foot of Canal Street, at 12 o'clock noon, on the 1st, 11th, and 21st of every month (except when those dates fall on Sunday, and then on the preceding SATURDAY), for ASPINWALL, connecting, *via* Panama Railroad, with one of the Company's steamships from Panama for SAN FRANCISCO, touching at ACAPULCO.

DECEMBER.

1st.—HENRY CHAUNCEY, Captain Gray, connecting with CONSTITUTION, Captain Farnsworth.

11th.—ATLANTIC, Captain Maury, connecting with GOLDEN CITY, Captain Bradbury.

21st.—NEW YORK, Captain Horner, connecting with COLORADO, Captain Watkins.

Departures of 1st and 21st connect at Panama with steamers for SOUTH PACIFIC PORTS. Those of 1st touch at MANZANILLO.

Through Passage Rates, in Currency.

	FIRST CABIN,	SECOND CABIN,	STEERAGE,
ON STEAMERS....	$325.	$225.	$100.

Panama Railroad ticket invariably $25 additional, in currency.

A discount of ONE-FIFTH from steamers' rates allowed to second-cabin and steerage passengers with families.

One Hundred Pounds Baggage allowed each adult. Baggage-masters accompany baggage through, and attend to ladies and children without male protectors. Baggage received on the dock the day before sailing, from steamboats, railroads, and passengers, who prefer to send down early.

An experienced Surgeon on Board. Medicines and attendance free.

A steamer will be placed on the line January 1, 1866, to run from NEW ORLEANS to ASPINWALL, *via* HAVANA.

For Passage tickets or further information apply at the Company's ticket office, on the wharf foot of Canal Street, North River.

F. W. G. BELLOWS, AGENT.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale by all Dealers.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE.

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Economical Housekeepers Use

PYLE'S SALERATUS. | PYLE'S O. K. SOAP.
PYLE'S CREAM TARTAR. | PYLE'S BLUEING POWDER.

Articles designed for all who want the best goods, full weight. Sold by best Grocers everywhere. Each package bears the name of JAMES PYLE, Manufacturer, New York.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices $60, $75, $100, $125, $150, $175, $200, and $225. Factory and Warerooms, 1 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.,

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS,

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost		$4,881,919 70
(Market value, $5,018,449 06.) Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., GEORGE WILKES, M.D., } Medical Examiners.
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.

(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

Wareroom, 135 Grand St., near Broadway, New York.

DECKER & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,

419 BROOME STREET,

One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

Bradbury's Pianos "the Best."

Pronounced "THE BEST" by the most renowned artists. SUPERIOR in tone, touch, power, DURABILITY, and elegance of finish." Warerooms 425 and 427 Broome Street, corner of Crosby. Call or send for circular.

WM. B. BRADBURY.

Light Biscuit made in fifteen minutes with T. B. BABBITT'S STAR YEAST POWDERS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y.

MANTEL ORNAMENTS,

Bronze and Marble French Clocks, Fine Vases, Parian, Bisque, and Bronze Statuettes, Groups, etc., etc.

We are now offering a fine assortment of the above goods at a reduction of 25 per cent., to make room for new goods now being bought by Mr. Ovington, who is in Europe.

OVINGTON BROTHERS,

FULTON, near CLINTON STREET, BROOKLYN.

FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,

505 BROADWAY, N. Y.

THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. FOUR distinct Stitches.

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S STEEL PENS.

OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

TRADE MARK: **Joseph Gillott, Warranted.**

or Descriptive Name, and Designating Number.

New Series, Good and Cheap, from No. 700 to No. 761.

TRADE MARK: **Joseph Gillott, Birmingham.** With Designating Numbers.

For sale by

JOSEPH GILLOTT & SONS,
91 John Street, New York.

HENRY OWEN, Sole Agent.

STEINWAY & SONS'

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE substance of the testimony reported the past week from the Reconstruction Committee is, that there is very little natural, unfeigned loyalty at the South; that there are even secret organizations to obstruct the acts of Government; that it is not yet safe to withdraw the troops from any of the seceded States, nor can a time for this withdrawal be confidently set. On the other hand, some progress was admitted, and Gens. Fisk and Thomas thought the loyal spirit in Tennessee would be fostered by the re-admission of that State. Gens. Grierson and Saxton agreed in the belief that at one time, immediately after the collapse of the rebellion, the Southern people would have submitted to any conditions, but that the lenient policy afterwards pursued towards them had encouraged them to one demand after another. Hon. John Covode recalled what he could of the report he had submitted to the President, but which never saw the light. It was by no means complimentary to the condition of Louisiana or the animus of Gov. Wells.

WITH few exceptions—so few as to be relatively insignificant—the press of the country has sided with Congress in the issue raised by the President. The local elections have even exhibited accessions to the Republican ranks, and the resolutions of the State Republican Convention at Harrisburg, last week, may convince the President, if he is open to conviction, that Pennsylvania at home, whatever may be said of her at the Capital, is game that he cannot afford to despise. True, his great defection was not alluded to—he was simply entreated to stand firmly by the loyal masses who put him into office; but a resolution expressing hope and confidence that he would do so was voted down, the moral obligation to protect the freedmen affirmed, and the Hon. Mr. Cowan called upon to resign the seat in the Senate which he had so unfaithfully filled. There could scarcely be a stronger statement of the position of Congress than this: "that the most imperative duty of the present is to gather the legitimate fruits of the war," and "that failure in these great duties would be scarcely less criminal than would have been an acquiescence in secession." Gen. Geary, we believe, is well qualified to be the nominee of such platform.

MR. BLAINE'S amendment has been defeated in the Senate by a majority of three, but it is to be reconsidered to-day. Mr. Sumner voted with the majority, having made last week an able and elaborate onslaught on the measure. We discussed the amendment some weeks ago, and have nothing further to say about its merits. The *Tribune* denounces Mr. Sumner for his course "in helping the Copperheads;" but we trust Mr. Sumner does not care whom he helps or who is helping him as long as the object he has in view is the right one. We have had nearly enough of the practice of frightening people from saying or doing certain things lest certain rascals should rejoice over it. Mr. Blaine's amendment would be a very good thing if it were, as the *Tribune* thinks it would be, a stepping-stone to something better. But to assume that it would be, is to beg the question; and begging the question is now, we regret to say, a very common trick in political discussion. What we fear is, that the amendment would be considered by both North and South a final settlement, and that it would furnish the South with a strong inducement for improving the blacks off the face of the earth. What we hope is, that by waiting and agitating we shall get something better.

IN another paragraph directed against Mr. Sumner's speech on the Blaine amendment, the *Tribune* pronounces his assertion that the amendment was a license or authority to disfranchise, to be "just as true and reasonable as if he had argued that a legal penalty of thirty lashes or three months' imprisonment for petty larceny is a license to steal." This is a curious little fallacy. The amendment would be, if adopted, not perhaps an "authority" to disfranchise, but a recognition of the right of a State to do so, if it pleased. The registry law of this State denies a man the right to vote unless he registers himself a certain number of days before election; this is a legal recognition, however, of his right to abstain from voting if he chooses. When the law attaches conditions to the exercise of any right, it acknowledges that people are not bound to fulfil them, and the creation of the conditions is not a penalty, any more than the refusal of a county clerk to give a certified copy of a paper without receiving his legal fees, is a penalty.

IT is impossible not to be amused with the manner in which Thaddeus Stevens has disposed of the President's speech, but we think there are few men who care much for the good name of the country who have not perused the report of the proceedings in the House on Saturday with "smiles that might as well be tears." The reading by the Clerk, at Mr. Stevens's request, and with his implied approval, of the article on Mr. Johnson from the *World* of March 7, 1865, probably one of the most disgusting pieces of billingsgate to which any journal ever descended, was, there is no denying it, a painful incident. No matter what Mr. Johnson may do or say, he is our President, and his shame is our shame, a fact which people in the excitement of party contests are apt to forget. Our quarrels with him are, in some sense, family quarrels, and the less they are exposed to the public gaze the better. It is perfectly proper that a man should be shocked and disgusted by seeing his father drunk in the streets, but the diversion of following him to jeer at him and make a sport of his staggering gait and thick utterance were better left to others.

THE President seems to be making a general jail delivery. The Associated Press despatches announce that in one day last week he pardoned two postmasters who had robbed the mails and a New Jersey counterfeiter of fractional currency. We suppose the good work will go on, and each week will see a few desperate characters released from the restraints of prison to make one more effort after the better life. We suggest as a means of saving time and expense—the subject is an important one—that all persons indicted for crimes before the Federal

courts file their applications for pardon before trial. The President can then look into their cases, and perhaps release them without subjecting them to the trouble and mortification of going before a jury. The annoyance given at present to mail robbers and forgers by legal formalities is very great, and, in endeavoring to relieve them, the President only shows how far he rises above the vulgar prejudices of his time.

We print in another column the report of the Reconstruction Committee recommending the re-admission of Tennessee. Messrs. Boutwell and Washburne oppose the measure, unless the suffrage may be shared by loyal citizens without distinction of color. They argue forcibly against the impolicy of committing the government of a State to a minority—in the present instance, three-eighths of the population—when it is certain that it cannot long nor effectively be so administered against the spirit of our institutions. Loyal representatives, they add, are not of so much consequence as a permanently loyal constituency, which cannot be had without including the negroes, and then may soon safely absorb even the lesser grades of rebels. Their position is completely justified by the present disorganized state of Tennessee. Spite of rebel disfranchisement, a faction of the Legislature have broken up that body by absenting themselves from its sessions, and Governor Brownlow has been obliged to order new elections to keep the machinery of government from stopping.

Governor Humphreys, of Mississippi, who was pardoned, but ought not to have been, for the express purpose of qualifying him for the position of governor of Mississippi, has done what in him lies ever since his accession to office to keep alive the feeling of hostility to the Government. He is now engaged in promoting a movement for the collection and preservation of the records of the Confederate army—a perfectly harmless and even proper work in itself, provided it be done in a proper spirit—but when he calls for the preservation of documents or "details of robberies, conflagration, and vandalism," "to be transmitted to posterity in vindication of the truth of history and the rectitude of our (the Confederate) cause," and all this is in a letter signed by him as governor and dated from the "executive office," he is guilty of abusing his office, and abusing the confidence which has enabled him to fill it. Men like Humphreys, who were leaders of the rebellion, ought to have been left in the background for many a year to come, and, whatever plan of reconstruction be now adopted, we have no hesitation in saying that Mr. Johnson's qualifying him for the governorship was at least a great mistake. The letter before us is an insult to the Government, an insult to our army, an insult to the loyal men of the North, and to ask us to believe that Mississippi or any other State lately in rebellion can be really and truly restored to the Union under the auspices and direction of men like Humphreys is an insult to the common sense of those who shed their blood and spent their money in trying to rob him of his powers of mischief. We are in favor of magnanimity, of oblivion, of conciliation, of forbearance, of everything that can in reason be demanded of us; but we are not in favor of putting rebels into high office to pass their leisure hours in keeping alive the spirit of rebellion.

Gov. Orr, of South Carolina, has written concerning the attractions which that State holds out to foreign emigrants, to the secretary of the German society of this city. He speaks of the general desire there for foreign immigration, and says that since the abolition of slavery no difficulty is found in purchasing lands of good quality and in quantities to suit. He believes no such auspicious time as the present for acquiring real estate will ever occur again. He cites the example of very prosperous German settlements before the war—one, a colony of 4,000, in what he calls the third division of the State, running up to the mountains and bounded by North Carolina and Georgia, which produces all the cereals, beef and pork, some cotton, and fruits, and abounds in water power. The governor especially invites mechanics with their tools, remarking that every article of furniture in his own parlor, and most of it in his house, was manufactured in New York, while all the noble woods are plentiful in his immediate vicinity. We hope our German friends will take the governor at his word, but, as we have once before had occasion to urge, we hope they will go *en masse*.

Gen. Pope has issued instructions to the commanders of military posts on the great plains in regard to the regulations which they are to exact of all the emigrant trains that shall pass from one to the other during the present season. If these regulations are only observed, the trains will be comparatively safe; but the experience has hitherto been that the military organization with which they set out is rarely kept up, and the hostile attacks of the Indians find them fatally unprepared for resistance.

The agitation about the eight-hour movement, still kept up by the working-men and the political demagogues who prey on their ignorance of economical laws, is producing its legitimate effect in frightening builders and increasing the rent and price of houses. Unhappily, none will suffer from this so much as the working-men themselves, especially in the large cities, where they suffer enough already. It needs but a very little reflection to perceive that there is no class on which any diminution in production bears so heavily as on those who live by daily wages, for none is separated from positive privation by so narrow a margin. The interest of all working-men is to be served not by finding them means to escape work, but by finding means of securing them a larger share of the results of work. We suppose, however, that in this, as in many other things, wisdom must be learned by bitter experience. In the meantime, anybody who publicly tells the truth about the matter must expect to be denounced as the working-man's enemy—an "aristocrat" and "heartless" political economist. Political economy, in the minds of some people, is a plan devised by the enemies of the human race for the confusion of the poor.

The excitement in Canada about the Fenians continues to increase rather than diminish. The total collapse of the Fenian movement in Ireland, and the consequent failure of the O'Mahony policy, having given a vigorous impulse to the Sweeney plan of invading Canada. The servant-girls are buying up the bonds of the Irish Republic freely, and, lest there should be any deficiency in the supply, bands of counterfeiters have gone to work to print them, and are producing them in great quantity. The swindle is probably the greatest in history. Some Irishmen of influence and common sense ought to try and expose it for the sake of the poor. There were 1,500,000 Irish men, women, and children in the United States in 1860; and if we suppose that there are now 2,000,000, we shall probably be over the mark. Of these, at the outside, only one-fourth are able-bodied men; and all are in the poorest ranks of life. Suppose all the men to volunteer and form an organized army, with materiel, artillery, cavalry, and other requisites, its expenses would be about a million of dollars a day. Where is it to come from? Could the cooks and washerwomen support it? The attempt of this handful of poor men and women living in a foreign country to engage in an armed conflict with a first-class power 3,000 miles away is, perhaps, the most discouraging incident in the history of the Irish race. The movement against Canada will probably result in some plunder and a little bloodshed.

M. Thiers delivered a remarkable speech in the Corps Législatif on the 26th ult., the question under discussion being the proposed address in response to the Emperor. He demanded personal liberty and security, freedom of the press and of elections, and the responsibility of ministers; these as means to "national sovereignty," or "the will of the country directing the government." He reviewed the foreign and domestic policy of the Second Empire, to show how different it would probably have been if the country had been consulted in regard to it. The reign of Louis XIV. was cited as evidence that the grandest administrative genius cannot dispense with political liberty. He insisted that there was no genuine liberty but that which puts a nation in possession of its destinies, and named England and America as incontestably free because they enjoy this possession, though the one is a monarchy and the other a republic.

THE appearance of the Empress Eugénie at a masked ball in the character of Marie Antoinette revives the rumor that she has been engaged on a life of that unfortunate queen. The Emperor himself seems emulous of Louis XV. Having heard Thérésa sing at Gen. Fleury's, he sends her a bracelet worth three thousand francs.

PRUSSIA still maintains an ominous attitude towards Austria and pursues its high-handed policy at home. The Minister of State returned to the Chamber its resolutions concerning Lauenburg and the decision of the supreme court, as transcending its powers; and on the 23d ult. the King dissolved the Diet, on the ground of the antagonistic spirit of the lower House. A public meeting had previously been called in Berlin, and, after having been once dispersed by the police, voted an address of sympathy and support to the Chamber, promising to share its perils in defence of the constitution. But for the apathy of the great body of the Prussian people, there might be some hope from the present crisis.

THE Spanish Red-book has stirred up the Roman question afresh, on the heels of the manly letter of Gen. La Marmora. In May last, according to the Spanish minister at Vienna, France made overtures to Austria to favor the levy of a legion to reinforce the Papal army, in view of the now proximate evacuation of Rome. But Austria declined to entertain the proposition unless France would promise the volunteers material assistance in case of need. A difference was also alleged to exist between the French Emperor and Drouyn de Lhuys, the former wishing to have the French element predominate in the foreign legion. His organs, since the exposure, have made haste to deny that the proposition to Austria was anything more than an accommodation to the Holy See, or that the French contingent was intended to retain its national character and relations. Cardinal Antonelli now orders the suspension of recruiting, as the Papal ranks are full.

THE city of Florence having sent Victor Hugo the medal struck to commemorate the Dante centenary, he accepts the honor in the name of France. "There is," he says, "in me, as in all Frenchmen, a little of the soul of France; and this soul wishes light, progress, peace, and liberty, and the greatness of every people; and the soul of Italy is its sister."

AUSTRIA has voluntarily extended to Italy, through the mediation of France, the advantages of trade now enjoyed by the most favored nation having intercourse with the empire. This concession to Italian unity comes in good time to the rescue of M. Scialoja and his financial policy; but it has not yet been officially reciprocated.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, March 10, 1866.

THE conclusive legislation of the week has been the defeat, in the Senate, of the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation, which passed the House some weeks ago. This defeat was accomplished by the combination of five "radical" senators (Messrs. Brown, Henderson, Pomeroy, Sumner, and Yates) with six "conservative" senators, elected as Republicans, whose combined vote, added to the regular Democratic strength, prevented the adoption of the amendment by the required constitutional majority of two-thirds. Now that all the various pet propositions of the radical senators are defeated by so decisive a majority, it becomes manifest that the present Congress, at least, is not ripe for universal suffrage. It also appears that not only these gentlemen, but a large number who voted with the majority for the proposed amendment of the House, will have to surrender their prejudices, and go for some proposition which can command a two-thirds vote, or else do worse by leaving "the Constitution as it is, and the Union as it was," with three-fifths of the late Southern slaves represented by reconstructed rebels in Congress. In this dilemma, the amendment which seems likely to unite the most suffrages in its favor is that proposed by Mr. Schenck in the House and by Mr. Doolittle (in a slightly modified form) in the Senate. This bases representation upon the number of actual legal voters under the existing laws of each State, and, while it takes away from the South her existing unequal privilege, supplies a motive to her to extend the franchise to all her citizens. On the other hand, it is partially unjust to New England, favoring the new States where the voting population is in the ascendency, at the expense of the older ones, where women and children preponderate. It also disfranchises, as a basis of representation, large bodies of unnaturalized foreigners in New York and elsewhere. Still, it is much more likely to be carried than any other of the proposed schemes for modifying the fundamental law.

The singular anomaly was presented on Monday of a communication from the present governor of North Carolina being received and printed without objection by the Senate, while the House, on the same day, refused to receive the paper by the astonishing vote of 100 yeas to 38 nays. If there was inadvertence in the reception of the paper by the Senate, it being presented by its presiding officer while senators were too busily engaged to notice it, it might certainly have been corrected at a later period. Does the ground on which its reception was objected to by Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, viz., "it is perfectly well known that we do not recognize the State government of North Carolina," as followed by the House in the very strong vote refusing to receive it, indicate a standard of political virtue so far superior to that of the Senate?

The continued postponement of matters relating to finance and revenue, so vitally important to the welfare of the people, in order to occupy nearly the whole session of each day in speeches upon reconstruction which are productive of no practical result, is much to be lamented. The only possible excuse for this—and it is a very poor one—is that, in pursuing such a course, this Congress only follows in the footsteps of all its predecessors.

DIARY.

Monday, March 5, 1866.—In the Senate, numerous petitions were presented asking for equality of rights and security against renewed attempts at secession. A communication from the governor of North Carolina, enclosing resolutions of the Legislature of that State accepting lands donated by Congress for support of agricultural colleges by act of July 2, 1862, was received and laid on the table. Mr. Brown offered a bill to fix eight hours' labor as a day's work in all cases of laborers employed by the Government of the United States. Referred. Mr. Wilson offered a joint resolution to provide for the representation in Congress, and resumption of practical relations to the United States, of the States lately in rebellion. Referred. The House joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to regulate the basis of representation was discussed by Mr. Pomeroy, who hoped it would be adopted, but argued that Congress has the power and should exercise it, under the constitutional amendment abolishing slavery, to confer the elective franchise upon the freedmen. An appropriation of $15,000 to Miss Clara Barton for expenditures by her in discovering missing soldiers was passed. Also, a bill to enlarge the Winnebago Indian reservation.

In the House, a resolution that fifty millions of bonds, to be issued by the Mexican republic, be guaranteed by the Government of the U. S., was referred to the Committee on Foreign Affairs—ayes, 64; nays, 64—by the casting vote of the Speaker. A resolution to incorporate the National Association to educate colored men for the Christian ministry was referred. Also referred, a resolution to add fifty per cent. to the existing tariff on imported goods, for one hundred and fifty days, or until Congress shall amend the revenue system. The Joint Committee upon the condition of the late rebel States made a report, embracing testimony and other papers relating to Tennessee; also a joint resolution as follows: "*Resolved, by the Senate and House of Representatives in Congress assembled*, That whereas, the people of Tennessee have made known to Congress their desire that the constitutional relations heretofore existing between them and the United States may be fully re-established, and did, on the 22d day of February, 1865, by a large popular vote, adopt and ratify a constitution of a government republican in form, and not inconsistent with the Constitution and laws of the United States, and a State government has been organized under provisions thereof, which said provisions and laws, passed in pursuance thereof, proclaim and denote loyalty to the Union; and, whereas, the people of Tennessee are found to be in a condition to exercise the functions of a State within this Union, and can only exercise the same by the consent of the law-making power of the United States; therefore, the State of Tennessee is hereby declared to be one of the United States of America, on an equal footing with the other States, on the express condition that the people of Tennessee will maintain and enforce, in good faith, their existing constitution and laws, excluding those who have been engaged in rebellion against the United States from the exercise of the elective franchise for the period of time therein provided for, and shall exclude the same persons, for the like respective periods of time, from eligibility to office, and the State of Tennessee shall never assume or pay any debt or obligation contracted or incurred in aid of the late rebellion, nor shall said State ever, in any manner, claim from the United States, or make any allowance or compensation for, slaves emancipated or liberated in any way whatever; which condition shall be ratified by the Legislature of Tennessee, or the people thereof, as the Legislature may direct, before this act shall take effect." Recommitted, to be called up, at the pleasure of the committee, next week. A communication from Governor Worth, of North Carolina, relating to lands donated by Congress for agricultural colleges, was read by order of the Speaker, to whom it was addressed, whereupon Mr. Stevens objected to the reception of the paper, on the ground that Congress does not recognize the State government North Carolina. The House voted, by yeas and nays, on the question of receiving

communication, and refused to receive it—yeas, 38; nays, 100. Mr. Stevens offered a resolution calling upon the President to inform the House how many pardons he has issued to rebels, with their names; how much confiscated property has been restored to these parties, and how much abandoned property has been taken away from freedmen and restored to returning rebels, and by whose order. Adopted. The bill making appropriations for the U. S. Military Academy was considered and amended. Mr. Schenck moved a proviso that no money be paid for any cadet from the States late in rebellion appointed after January 1, 1866, until such State shall be restored to its original relations to the Union by act of Congress. Adopted—yeas, 89; nays, 39. The bill was then passed. The army appropriation bill was taken up and passed, including an amendment prohibiting the payment of any money to the Illinois Central RR. Co. for transporting the troops, etc., of the Government, and requiring a suit to be entered against the company for moneys already paid on that account, their charter requiring them to perform such service free.

March 6.—In the Senate, a joint resolution was referred providing quarantine regulations to prevent the introduction of cholera. A bill appropriating about seven millions of dollars to reimburse the State of Missouri for money expended in raising militia to suppress the rebellion was passed. Mr. Saulsbury spoke at length in opposition to the proposed constitutional amendment regulating the basis of representation. A message was received from the President transmitting, in response to a call of the Senate, reports of assistant commissioners of the Freedmen's Bureau; also, a large amount of documentary matter relating to the provisional governors of certain States late in rebellion, in compliance with a call of the Senate. House resolution giving the consent of Congress to the transfer of the counties of Berkeley and Jefferson to West Virginia was passed.

In the House, the Joint Committee on Reconstruction reported evidence taken by them on the condition of Arkansas, Mississippi, Alabama, and Georgia. Ordered to be printed. The bill reported by the Ways and Means Committee regulating trade with the British North American provinces was discussed by Messrs. Morrill and others.

March 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented a petition from Bishop Hopkins and other American authors praying for an international copyright. Also, a petition from R. S. Mackenzie and others, authors and editors, to the same effect. Referred. On motion of Mr. Wilson, the Judiciary Committee were instructed to report what legislation is necessary to protect army officers from prosecution in civil courts for acts done in discharge of their duty under the Articles of War. The House bill declaring the meaning of the Internal Revenue Act so as to raise a larger revenue from corporations was passed. Mr. Sumner spoke three hours against the proposed constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation, denouncing it as admitting into the Constitution the idea of inequality of rights, defiling that instrument with a "political obscenity and a disgusting ordure," a "compromise of human rights the most immoral, indecent, and utterly shameful of any in our history." Mr. Doolittle opposed the amendment as capable of being evaded by any State disposed to disfranchise colored men, and advocated an amendment basing representation upon actual voters by State laws. A bill granting lands to aid in the construction of a railroad from Folsom to Placerville, California, was passed.

In the House, Mr. Eliot offered a bill to continue in force the Freedmen's Bureau. Referred. A bill to reimburse Pennsylvania for moneys advanced to the Government for war purposes was made a special order for March 14. The bill which passed the Senate to reimburse Missouri was referred. Mr. Washburne, from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, submitted testimony on the condition of Louisiana, Texas, and Florida. Ordered to be printed. Resolutions of the Legislative Assembly of New Mexico in favor of a State government for that territory were received and referred. The bill to regulate trade with the British North American provinces was opposed by Messrs. Kelley, Wentworth, Spalding, Phelps, and Blaine, and advocated by Mr. Brooks.

March 8.—In the Senate, Mr. Poland offered a constitutional amendment providing that no person ever engaged in rebellion shall exercise the elective franchise or hold office under the authority of the United States or of any State. Referred. Mr. Henderson offered resolutions declaring that Congress alone can decide whether the causes of the rebellion are removed; that the States lately in rebellion are without a republican form of government; that the people who abjured their allegiance to the Federal Government have become alienated and denationalized; and that the Union is not restored until State governments republican in form, and not excluding nearly one-half their entire people, are established and recognized by the Federal Government. The joint resolution, proposing to amend the Constitution as to the basis of representation, was advocated by Mr. Wilson.

In the House, Mr. Boutwell presented a minority report from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction in the case of Tennessee. The Senate bill to reimburse Miss Clara Barton for moneys expended in discovering missing soldiers was passed. The bill providing that all railways shall have equal privileges in transporting passengers, etc., from State to State, was discussed and laid over. A bill to reduce the number of judges of the United States Supreme Court from ten to nine, and to re-organize the distribution of their circuits, was passed. The Senate bill, to restrict the expense of collection of soldiers' claims against the Government to ten dollars, was discussed and recommitted. The Senate bill, to protect all citizens in their civil rights, was discussed by Mr. Boutwell in its favor, and by Messrs. Raymond, Delano, and Kerr against it.

March 9.—In the Senate, petitions were presented praying for the abolition of all distinctions as to color or race. The bill to extend time for withdrawal of imported goods from bonded warehouses came up on a motion to reconsider its passage. Mr. Sprague made a speech against it. The Senate proceeded to the final consideration of the House constitutional amendment fixing the basis of representation. Mr. Fessenden replied to Mr. Sumner's argument, which he characterized as intolerant, unfair, untenable, and impracticable. After a running debate between several senators, the vote was first taken upon Mr. Henderson's substitute, proposed by him as a constitutional amendment, viz.: "No State, in prescribing the qualifications requisite for electors therein, shall discriminate against any person on account of color or race." The amendment was lost—yeas, 10; nays, 37. The question was then taken on Mr. Sumner's substitute, which was simply a joint resolution providing "there shall be no oligarchy, aristocracy, caste, or monopoly invested with peculiar privileges, and no denial of rights, civil or political, on account of color or race, anywhere within the United States.' This was lost—yeas, 8; nays, 39. The vote was taken on Mr. Yates's amendment providing that no State shall make or enforce any distinction between citizens of the United States on account of race or color, and that all citizens shall hereafter be protected in the exercise of all civil and political rights, including the right of suffrage. Lost—yeas, 7; nays, 38. The original amendment, as reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen, was reported as follows: "ARTICLE —.—Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States which may be included within this Union according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed: *Provided*, That whenever the elective franchise shall be denied or abridged in any State on account of race or color, all persons therein of such race or color shall be excluded from the basis of representation." The question being taken, there were yeas, 25; nays, 22. Two-thirds not having voted for the same, it was defeated. The question recurred, on a motion to reconsider, upon Mr. Doolittle's substitute, basing representation upon actual voters in each State. On motion of Mr. Fessenden this was postponed to March 15. Adjourned to March 12.

In the House, the civil rights bill was further debated by Messrs. Shellabarger and Wilson in its favor, and Bingham and Latham against it. The question was taken on a motion of Mr. Bingham to recommit the bill so as to amend by striking out all the penal provisions, and also the clause prohibiting States from discriminating between citizens. Lost—yeas, 37; nays, 113. The question recurred on a motion to recommit the bill without instructions, which was carried—yeas, 82; nays, 70. The bill to regulate trade with British North America was further discussed and amended.

March 10.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Orth, Stevens, Holmes, Goodyear, and Ashley, of Nevada. Adjourned to March 12.

THE FREEDMEN.

CAPT. C. B. RICHARDSON, sub-assistant commissioner of Altamaha District, Ga., reports the general condition of all classes in that quarter to be reasonably satisfactory. The freedmen are all at work under Government contracts, showing nothing of the laziness predicted by the white people before Christmas. The latter, while confessing their error in this regard, confidently prophesy that the romance of industry will be worn off by hot weather, and the cotton crop prove a failure. Their prejudice against the education of the colored people is still strong. Recently, on hearing that an adult night-school was in operation, they sought to break it up by feigning another use for the building. The commissioner examined the lease, which was in writing, and found that the colored people were entitled to hold meetings there throughout the year, and he sustained their occupancy, whether for educational or other purposes. "It is impossible for any people to be more earnest and patient in obtaining knowledge than the colored people here. They also exhibit an anxiety and watchfulness unparalleled in their efforts not to be offensive towards their former masters."

—The February report of the Superintendent of Schools for the Department of Washington shows the number of colored schools to be 43, and of pupils 4,294, more than three-fourths of whom can read. In Alexandria there are 1,200.

—The Freedmen's Savings Bank is said to have received within a year over a million of dollars from the negroes of the country. It has twenty-nine branches—most of them at the South. In Washington alone the deposits amounted to upwards of five thousand dollars.

—It is complained that in Mississippi colored people who are fully able to support their children may have them seized at the request of any white person and bound out, by the probate courts, to white masters, for a small rate of compensation, until they arrive at the age of twenty-one.

—On the 6th inst. an unsuccessful effort was made in the Texas State Convention to base representation in the legislature on the number of free persons in the State. Mr. Degener made a minority report in favor of impartial suffrage, which was sustained by some three or four of his fellow-members.

—So long as the colored man is attainted with inferiority in the eye of the law, he will be exposed to the violence of the brutal, and especially of those whose social position, nominally higher than his, is in imminent danger of finding its just level below him. Out of a thousand instances of probably daily occurrence, the following has been communicated to us by a responsible eye-witness:

"I was waiting at Culpepper C. H. for the train from Gordonsville to Washington City. I was walking up and down the platform, about the time the train was due at Culpepper, when the following scene ensued: A very black negro man said, as he stood a few feet from me, and while three or four white men were standing by him: 'You called me crow when I went along thar.' One of the white men, who held a heavy club in his hand, replied, 'You are a liar.' The negro answered, 'You did call me crow, for I

heerd it wid my own years.' The white man said, 'Then I'm a liar, am I?' The negro answered, 'I do n't know what you is; but I heerd you call me crow, and now I'm done wid it.' The white man replied, 'But I'm not done with it.' He then struck the negro several terrible blows with the club, and one blow was so hard that it laid the poor man's scalp quite open and felled him into the railroad track. He continued to beat him when down, and another of the white men who stood near rushed at the poor fellow and kicked him in the head and face. A very old grey-bearded colored man ran up and caught hold of the club, got between the assailant and his victim, and cried, 'Please do n't, master, you will kill him.' The assailant struggled hard to free the club, but the old negro held on, and at last got an opportunity to drag the poor bleeding man off the track. In a few minutes more up came the train. I got on it, and, sick at heart at what I had seen and heard, I was borne away. I could not but feel that the blood I had seen poured out would cry aloud from the earth to God. I could but hear ringing in my very ears the fearful question, 'Shall I not visit for these things, saith the Lord?'"

Minor Topics.

WHAT 's in a name? Much, if the name is a title. The common theory of equality is to be a little better than one's neighbors; the practice, to let them see it or feel it in some indirect way. Tattooing and barbaric trappings are out of fashion—even uniforms are not considered as in good taste for everyday use; but a man can wear a title at all hours. The word governor, or judge, or general goes before him like a herald, proclaiming his superiority over non-governors, non-judges, and non-generals. The world does homage, mildly, if you choose, but still agreeably, when it addresses him by his title. Although there is no legal tender act to oblige us to take men for more than they are worth, we are apt to accept them at first sight at the valuation they put upon themselves. To many people it does not much matter what their title is. Captain Owen saw a naked negro potentate on the West Coast who wore for the likeness of a kingly crown a cast-away tin can labelled "concentrated gravy." The monarch had adopted the two unknown words as an additional title of honor. Civilization has not entirely extirpated the savage element in the white people. Very many are willing to stick any feather in their caps without considering too curiously its color or the bird whence it came. After four years of grim war, individuals who have never been under fire may be found sporting militia titles in the faces of men who won the same nominal rank at the risk of their lives.

Akin to this first "infirmity of noble minds" is the love of fine names. A great many persons, who are above their business or their position in life, seem to believe in the efficacy of a practice described by John Quincy Adams in two lines of a squib he let off against Jefferson:

> "And if we cannot alter things,
> By Jove! we 'll change their names, sir."

Smith thinks he has undergone a transformation when he writes it Smythe. A waiting-woman generally gives her daughter some, if not all, of the Carolinas and Wilhelminas of Goldsmith's Miss Skeggs. Silly little girls, who were unfortunately christened Susan or Dolly by their Brown or Jones papas, engrave on their cards Miss *Susie* H. Brown or Miss *Dollie* C. Brown, and are happier in consequence. And Brown and Jones, as soon as they have bought and built near Tubby Hook or Dobb's Ferry, try to get the old historical appellations changed to Inwood or Glendale. Fitness and meaning are lost sight of for the sake of a fine name. The English words for everyday occupations are scornfully thrown aside by the aspiring fellows once designated by them. Every shop is a store; costermongers are grocers; peddlers, merchants; haberdashers, furnishers; dressmakers, modistes; and if you should say "slops" to a "dealer in ready-made clothing" he would knock you down. At first, no doubt, everybody feels bigger and better for their brevet rank; but in time the new words sink down to the real state of things; then, as with paper money when it depreciates, a new issue is required to purchase the same amount of consideration, and the next best word in the vocabulary is seized upon without reference to etymology, so that in the end nothing is gained. When magnificence of phraseology is allied to meanness of fact, the *mésalliance* does not ennoble the fact. A servant is none the less a servant when he is called a "help;" neither his wages nor his social position is higher. It is really to no purpose that we have raised the score of our daily talk an octave to express this pinchbeck ambition. We speak in superlatives, like women. Nothing can be said simply, and circus play-bills will become the standard of the language, unless we can create a new office: commissioners of philology, whose duty it shall be to seize upon all words and phrases that have strayed and to return them to their original meanings.

The teachers of the generation now undergoing schooling ought to be such commissioners. The infirmity of fine words and of fine writing springs from an uncultivated taste and half an education. There is no subject outside of morals—if indeed it be outside of morals, as it is in a certain sense a violation of truth—on which instruction, line upon line and precept upon precept, is more needed in our schools, than the duty of all to speak and to write simply, to call things by their names, and not to be above their business. But, unfortunately, it looks as if the guards themselves needed a guardian. The gentlemen composing the faculty of the Free Academy seem to be infected with the fashionable epidemic. They have petitioned the Legislature, through Mr. Murphy, to change the name of that institution to the New York College. The reason, it is said, is that they do not like the word academy. The sound does not come up to their ideas of their position. It perhaps suggests village schools, composed of dirty boys in the A, B, C stage of polite learning.

There are two opposite theories respecting the influence of names. One finds expression in the well-worn line, "A rose by any other name will smell as sweet;" the other was emphatically stated by Mr. Shandy when he spoke of a man's being "Nicodemussed into nothing." Our professors are evidently Shandeans. They think they are academussed into mere pedagogues.

Words have their vicissitudes of fortune, like men, and in their decline are sometimes put to mean uses. But one would have thought that the word academy might have kept its place, at least with scholars. There is such a flavor of antiquity about it, so many reminiscences of philosophy, of Aristotle, and of Plato, that even dirty little boys ought not to be able to degrade it. And then it actually occupies the highest position in France. Every French author is ambitious of a seat among the illustrious forty who compose the Academy. The word college means in England one of the dozen houses in which the students of a university live, and in the United States, it often means a high school in which a diligent boy can get a good ordinary education. It would seem odd to one not aware of the prevalence of the complaint just mentioned that educated men should prefer college to academy—or that, preferring it, they should not think it rather beneath them to wish to change so well-established a name for so childish a reason. Nevertheless, if academy is not good enough for citizens of this great country, and if the professors think they will be happier and enjoy more respect from the world if the scene of their labors is re-named college, the State will probably humor them in spite of common sense. What they ask for is comparatively harmless and costs nothing. It is rarely that petitioners are willing to let the legislature off so cheaply.

Another difficulty will soon present itself. "Professor" is losing caste rapidly. There are professors of chiropody and of palmistry; Professor Anderson amuses the public with his tricks, and Professor Hanlon demonstrates the flying trapeze. The title will soon be unworthy of the dignity of the teachers of youth. To what new appellation will they be driven? Instructor, tutor, schoolmaster, preceptor, pedagogue are all old and objectionable. They will have to apply for a name to those ingenious neologists, the inventors of cosmetics; or else adopt the plan recommended by Lakanal, in his report on education to the French convention—of wearing around their necks a medal with the inscription: "Tout instructeur est un père." Louis Blanc, in his "History of Ten Years," speaks with enthusiasm of the "glorious age" that gave birth to such noble ideas. We may live to see them extending to the "setting sun."

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE POLITICAL SITUATION FROM A COMMERCIAL STANDPOINT.

AN effort is being made in some quarters to diffuse the impression that the mercantile world is interested in a peculiar degree in having Congress give way to the President, in order that, the political future being settled, business men may make their calculations with a fair certainty of being able to carry them out. There is no doubt that it is most important for the sake of our national as well as other interests that there should be speedily a settlement of some kind; but that the adoption of the President's policy "pure and simple" by Congress would be the best settlement, or would be any settlement at all, is by no means certain. There is always a tendency amongst business men in every community to incline in favor of whatever arrangement of political difficulties seems to promise quiet soonest, and they are apt to be unwilling to trouble themselves about remote results. There is always, too, a good deal of the speculative spirit in the relations between commerce and politics. Let the political sky be ever so cloudy, if the danger is not imminent, each merchant or banker is apt to hope that he will escape before the storm bursts, and goes to work diligently not to provide shelter but to make the most of the sunshine. Everybody remembers the way in which politicians both North and South played upon this feeling before the war. Southern agitators rarely held out much hope that the Union could be permanently maintained. All that they said was, that its dissolution might be postponed by the election of this or that man, or the adoption of this or that compromise, and a large part of the commercial world grasped eagerly at these shreds of hope and did whatever was required of them. It abused the abolitionists, toadied everybody and everything Southern, eschewed anti-slavery discussions, edited the Bible and prayer-book and religious tracts in a Southern sense, subscribed money *ad libitum* to carry elections for Southern purposes, and, it must be confessed, continued to do, during the most troubled years of the anti-slavery controversy, a roaring trade. Everybody, probably, who sold goods to Southern dealers, and listened with a bland countenance to abuse of his neighbors while he pocketed the proceeds, flattered himself that he would be able to get out of the arena before the crash came, and he was therefore ready for anything which promised to defer it if only for a little while.

But we believe there are few sensible men at the North who are not now sensible that the whole policy pursued by the business men of this country during the twenty years preceding the war was a gigantic mistake, not simply in a moral or political but in a business point of view. It encouraged the South to persevere in a course which made the final catastrophe unavoidable. Nothing did more to encourage disunionists in their course than the attitude of the great cities of the North, the sympathy or indulgence which the Toombses and Wigfalls and Yanceys received from our business circles, and the visible tremor which they were able to send through the counting-houses by their threats and boasts. They were, in fact, so deluded by the subserviency of the commercial world of the North that they counted on its indifference to the overthrow of the Government, and its refusal to lend money for its support, as absolutely certain, and made them the basis of their plan of action. And the impression created by this timidity and time-serving was not confined to the South. It was firmly believed on nearly every exchange in Europe, after Mr. Lincoln issued his first call for troops, that the war would come to an end in three months for want of funds, and the notion that New York bankers would make a loan to the Treasury was treated with derision. The result has been the loss to the country of some thousands of millions in hard cash, and of an amount incalculably greater in the suspension of trade and industry and the destruction of property throughout the South during the four years of hostilities. So that the system of compromise, of half settlements, makeshifts resorted to for the purpose of putting off the evil day, was, commercially considered, a tremendous blunder.

We trust we shall not witness a repetition of this mistake. We are not now arguing in favor either of the President's plan or that of Congress. What we ask is that, in considering any plan, business men will look beyond immediate results, and will not settle down upon any scheme that seems likely to promise tranquillity or a good crop of cotton this year or next. We must now look much further into the future than we ever did or could look before, much further than the founders of the government could look, and with a confidence, too, which they were very far from feeling. So that it is our duty to weigh well what we do, and whatever we do ought to be done not for the next five years, but for all time. Our business is not simply to wipe out the traces of the war in the shortest possible period, but to see that no discordant elements are left in American society to produce in due course another convulsion. No state of things, it ought to be remembered, is good for business purposes that is not a natural state of things. No state of things in which any large class of the community is laboring under a sense of wrong or injustice can ever have that fixity and certainty which is necessary to commercial prosperity over a long series of years, and prosperity that does not extend over a long series of years is apt not to be prosperity after all. If we deduct from the gains of the years of compromise the losses sustained by the war, we shall find a very small balance remaining to our credit. Moreover, inconsiderate action now will be irreversible. Whether the President have his or Congress have its way, whatever is done now will probably fix our fate. So that there can hardly be too much said in favor of deliberation and caution. No man, whatever his opinions may be now as to the way in which the South should be recognized, can object to delay. For no damage that can possibly be done by keeping the South waiting could possibly equal the damage that would be done by a mistake in the conditions imposed upon her for her readmission.

CITY YOUNG MEN.

IT is now nearly fifty years since Sismondi was driven by what he saw in all European countries of the increased separation between the rich and poor, and of the increased selfishness infused by the spirit of individualism—the most marked feature of modern civilization—into all the relations of life, to compose his "New Principles of Political Economy." In that work he dwells in eloquent terms on the evils of the general abandonment of attempts to organize labor, of the decay of all feeling of union or sympathy between employers and employed, and of the isolation produced by competition, and, though he does not suggest any remedy, he leaves on the mind of his readers a tolerably dismal impression of the state and drift of modern society. If he had lived until our time we are afraid he would have found ten reasons for the one which then existed for adhering to his conclusions. Seen from his point of view, the world has certainly not been improving since he wrote. Even here in America, the vices which are eating the heart out of European society are assailing us with almost as great force as they have ever displayed there. In all our great cities the separation between capitalists and those whom capitalists employ goes on steadily; the links that bind the poor to the rich every day become weaker and weaker; the influences which drive masters and servants, merchants and clerks, further apart, every day become stronger and stronger. We doubt, in fact, if there is at this moment any other city in the world in which there is less friendly communication between the poor and rich. The two classes rarely worship at the same altar, and have very seldom even that feeble sympathy which grows out of having lived long together in the same place. Wealth, too, has here achieved what feudalism in its best days was never able to accomplish, in monopolizing all the good churches and good preachers. It was one of the glories of the Middle Ages that on the floor of the splendid piles which they built for the worship of God, and which to this hour no man, let his creed be what it may, ever enters without emotion, all were equal and all were at home. The lord and the serf knelt side by side on the same pavement, were thrilled by the same eloquence, softened by the same music,

joined in the same prayers, and were reminded by every sight and sound of their community of origin and of destiny. And in all the old countries in which the abuse, as we consider it, of an established church is still kept up, this great tradition of the nothingness of human distinctions is kept alive by the fact that all churches are public property and all ministers agents of the state. The humblest *ouvrier* in Paris can, if he pleases, enjoy as much of all the eloquence the church can supply as the daintiest lady of the court. Notre Dame and St. Sulpice are as much his churches as those of the Duc de Mouchy; and the commonest London "cad" has a common-law right to attend the parish church.

There is perhaps nothing which illustrates more fully the dangers of the course on which we are drifting than the social condition of the young men in this city, as revealed in a "memorandum" which lies before us, prepared by some members of the Young Men's Christian Association. Of this body, or of its mode of working, or of the success which attends its efforts, we know but little from personal observation; but the figures it has collected here are eloquent beyond measure, and the aims it has in view in preparing this document certainly belong to the very highest sphere of Christian usefulness. It is estimated that there are in this city 111,091 young men between the ages of 15 and 30. Of these probably more than one-third are newcomers, who have drifted here from all parts of the country and of the world. They have no homes, in most instances not even rooms to themselves, and have to depend for all recreation, for even the means of securing light and heat during the long winter evenings, upon "saloons" and theatres. The circumstances which contribute most to the misery of their condition are thus enumerated in the "memorandum:"

(*a*) Many are utter strangers from the country and Europe, and pick up friends and acquaintances by accident.
(*b*) Owing to the change in the mode of conducting business during the past twenty years, the attention of employers has gradually and unnoticed become diverted from the social and moral interests of young men.
(*c*) The general inadequacy of salaries to the cost of living.
(*d*) Increased exclusiveness of society, and the consequent difficulty experienced by strangers in obtaining access to that which is beneficial and elevating.
(*e*) Formerly clerks and apprentices boarded with, and were directly under the eye of, their employers. Now, the virtuous and the vicious are oftentimes herded together in the same boarding-house, room, and bed. Driven to these places by limited salaries, and unable to afford fires in their rooms, they are consequently led to frequent saloons and like places, where they are exposed to the most contaminating influences.

They are, we need hardly say, excluded by the peculiar conditions of city life from all society that would be of any moral or intellectual benefit to them. The church might be expected to take care of them, but it does nothing of the kind—for these reasons among others:

(*a*) The exclusiveness—more or less necessary—largely prevailing among the regular attendants of many of the churches.
(*b*) The lack of social feeling and sympathy with young men, which has been largely increased for the past few years.
(*c*) The cost of sittings in the more attractive churches.
(*d*) The unwillingness of young men to accept charity in the form of mere mission churches.
(*e*) The unattractive character of many others in which the price of sittings is more moderate.

They are thus left to shift for themselves. Having no private rooms, and not being able to afford fires if they had, they pass the long evenings roving from one haunt of vice and dissipation to another, playing billiards for "drinks," playing cards for their scanty earnings, roystering in concert saloons, swallowing blackguardism at cheap theatres, drinking everywhere, the older and more experienced leading the "greener" new-comers every day into lower depths. Drinking habits amongst them are frightfully on the increase. The daily consumption of spirits in New York now is said to be six hundred barrels, and although, of course, this cannot all be set down to the account of single young men, we fear a large proportion of it may. How far even the better class of them are gone in this respect may be guessed by anybody who takes the trouble to watch that, to us, very repulsive performance, an election of officers at the Mercantile Library Association. And yet it is from the ranks of this soiled and demoralized crowd, whose prime has been thus wasted in vulgar vice, vice which does not bring with it even the poor lessons of what is called "social experience," that the business men who are to maintain the reputation and prosperity of this city in the next generation will have to be drawn.

The Young Men's Christian Association is making an effort now to do something towards remedying the evil by procuring a large building in some central position, with branches in outlying districts, to contain a free reading-room, a circulating and reference library, and to furnish lectures and other means of instruction, besides advice to the friendless and assistance to the sick or needy. If instruction be not made too prominent, or, at least, be not forced too eagerly upon the members or frequenters of the institution, and if the imperative demand of all healthy young men for hilarious amusement be reasonably regarded, there can be no question of the immense good it will accomplish. But there is nothing in which so much care and discretion has to be exercised as in an attempt to improve the moral and religious condition of young men. At the outset the physical comfort of the institution ought to be allowed to furnish the main attractions—the warmth, the light, the reading matter, the easy seats, the good coffee, and freedom from undue restraint, or over regulation. In short, it ought to be made as close an approach in all these things to rich men's clubs as its nature and objects will permit. Unless these points are carefully attended to by the managers, those whom it is most desirable to attract, the men of strong and coarse natures and the men of weak and frivolous natures, will inevitably be driven away.

The movement has the very strongest claims for support on every employer in the city. No man carrying on business in a Christian community to-day can possibly rid himself of all responsibility for either the moral or physical condition of those who earn their bread by doing his work. And unless the churches in our great cities can muster up a little more interest than they display at present in the fate of those who, for whatever reason, know nothing of city churches except their architecture, we can promise them that the religious culture of this generation will leave very few traces on the next. Religious teaching is already declining in quality and in the estimation of the people in the country districts through the wretchedness of the pittance offered to the teachers. The cities have monopolized all the talent of the profession, because they only are willing to pay the market price for it; but even in the cities the pulpit is losing the power it once possessed, as a great moral agent, owing to the manner in which ministers are made to "run with the land," like a water privilege or an "ancient light."

THE HUNGARIAN ADDRESS.

The address of the Hungarian House of Representatives in response to the speech with which Francis Joseph, the Emperor of Austria and uncrowned King of Hungary, lately opened the Diet of Pesth, is now before the world in the form of a draft elaborated by Francis Deák, and read to the House, in the name of the committee on the address, by Anthony Csengery, the gifted Magyar translator of Macaulay. We call it "the address" in advance, for, though the European mails have not yet brought us the debates on that interesting subject, there can hardly be a doubt that, like its two precursors of 1861, the productions of the same pen, it will, without any, or with only trifling, modifications, be sanctioned by an immense majority of the Hungarian National Assembly. For about thirty years, with the exception only of a short period—during the brilliant but too brief career of Kossuth—Deák, "the great son of Zala" (a south-western county of the Transdanubian Circle), "the Aristides of Hungary," has indisputably been the parliamentary leader of his people, the chief representative of its constitutional liberalism, and, on the most solemn occasions, its voice. As such, since the attempted restoration of constitutional life in Hungary, in 1860-61, almost every important utterance of his has been received by Austria and Europe. The address now pending, though hardly more than an abridgment of the two great parliamentary state papers of 1861, to which reference is frequently made with great emphasis, was received with the liveliest acclamations by the assembly in whose name it is to speak, and with commensurate interest by the European press. As a calm, logical, and lucid statement of the past and present international relations of Hungary to her dynasty and her Austrian sister states, of her actual abnormal condition, and her determination concerning the future, it amply deserves the universal atten-

tion it has attracted, as its dignified tone and clear and eloquent, yet unaffected, diction fully justify the expectation of the public. The following, drawn from the original, may serve as a synopsis:

The Diet expresses its thanks to the monarch for his avowed purpose to rule his nations henceforward in a constitutional way and with their own co-operation; for having put an end to the oppressive misrule which so long and so heavily weighed upon Hungary; for having assembled the national legislature, discarded the pernicious theory of a forfeiture of rights, and unequivocally placed himself upon the platform of the Pragmatic Sanction (of 1723). The worst apprehensions having thus been dispelled, the Diet can begin the work of regeneration with calmness and hope. It appreciates fully the difficulties of the task. "There are critical moments in the life of nations which may be decisive not only of the fate of citizens, but of the entire future of the people, of its very national existence." The present is, perhaps, such a moment. The reconciliation of conflicting interests, after the vital change wrought in the constitution of Hungary by the laws of 1848, would have been attended with uncommon difficulties even in times of peace. But tranquillity would have made a natural process of transition possible; a regular development could have served as a criterion of the soundness of the new system. Unfortunately, stormy events interrupted the work of transformation, and it remained unfinished, its defects unremoved. Life alone unveils the faults of a living law. Experience points out the remedies. Fate deprived Hungary of the time required for observation, a peaceable transition was made impossible, and thus "seventeen years were torn out of the constitutional life of the nation." While circumstances became complicated, Hungary was doomed to inactivity. Now the task is, to do at once all that remained undone, to remedy so much that was ill done.

However, the monarch's speech from the throne has opened the path of useful action, has inspired confidence and hope, and the Diet will do its duty, "so that the constitutional demands of the King and the legitimate demands of the nation may be realized harmoniously and jointly." The Pragmatic Sanction was well chosen by the King as a base and starting-point in the work of restoration. One of the principal objects of that compact was, to secure to the monarch, as well as to the nation, the unbroken succession to the throne of a legitimate heir of either sex, which serves, on the one hand, to perpetuate the dynasty, and, on the other, to guard the nation against the perils of a war of election in the case of the extinction of the male line; another principal object was, to secure to the various countries and provinces which were to remain inseparably united under the same dynasty and the same order of succession a degree of collective power which would enable them easily to resist every attack from without or within. Events have justified the wisdom of that act. It saved Austria in 1740. The importance of the common solidarity it established is too great to be overlooked by Hungary; she cannot desire that the mutual support and strength it warrants to all should be diminished.

But the compact of 1723 sanctions, besides, another fundamental principle, which was the condition of its acceptance by the nation, to wit: the national and administrative autonomy of Hungary. The Diet is happy to see this principle, too, re-acknowledged by the King. History proves it to have been compatible with the integrity and power of the empire. Since it was re-enacted, in 1723, Austria has stood the most tremendous shocks from abroad without the necessity of abrogating it. In spite of all the changes that have taken place in regard to the equilibrium of power in Europe, the integrity of the empire and the autonomy of Hungary are not conflicting things. There is no contradiction in these two ideas; neither must be sacrificed. The task is to harmonize them and preserve both. The rights of both nation and King rest on the Pragmatic Sanction; to infringe it would be legally wrong, politically dangerous.

It is true, what the King emphasizes, that there are common affairs growing out of Hungary's connection with the other countries of Austria, as established by the Pragmatic Sanction. The Diet will immediately apply itself to framing a law to regulate these common relations. There can be no happier augury for so doing than the King's determination to govern *all* his countries and provinces constitutionally. Liberty increases instead of diminishing by common use. "The sameness of the political condition brings nationalities nearer to each other in sentiment, removes estrangement, distrust, and bitterness." The liberty of the other countries will strengthen that of Hungary, for they cannot desire a constitution which would destroy hers. She is ready to enter into relations with them as with constitutional countries, as a free nation treating with another free nation, without prejudice to the independence of either party. What the constitutional forms of those countries shall be, what their relations to each other, are questions transcending the sphere of the Hungarian Diet, and legally concerning only themselves and the monarch. Hungary will hail with joy their deliverance from the evils of an unconstitutional rule, and, in arranging her international affairs with them, will readily even exceed her legal obligations, guarding only her constitutional rights and full national independence.

The Diet has taken into friendly consideration the diploma of October 20, 1860, and the patent of February 26, 1861, which the Emperor has laid before it. It finds the former highly important as first inaugurating liberty for the non-Hungarian countries of the empire, and as a promise of a return to legality in Hungary. This promise, however, has not been kept. The latter act, which tried to establish a common Austrian constitution, was as unconstitutional as it proved futile. Hungary's constitution dates not from 1860. It is coeval with the nation; it sprang from its life. All regal rights in Hungary rest on it. Her elected kings swore allegiance to it. On condition of its preservation, the hereditary right of succession was established in the house of Austria. Each coronation was accompanied by a new written guaranty, in the shape of a royal diploma. For Hungary to accept a constitution based on the diploma and patent would be an act of national suicide of which the Diet will not become guilty. Neither would such an act promote the objects of the empire. It could never be final. Could the mutual good understanding between the countries, which the monarch declares to be his aim, be advanced by an arrangement securing constitutional freedom to one, and at the same time depriving the other of a constitution made sacred by the use of ages and by numberless solemn guarantees?

But while guarding the integrity of the Hungarian constitution, the Diet is not averse to a revision, in a legal way, of the laws of 1848, if circumstances should require it. Modifications desired by the crown must be proposed by Hungarian ministers. It begs the monarch to complete the restoration of the law by an unreserved return to a constitutional rule, and to give that return the high sanction of a legal coronation, before which no law, modified or framed, could be legally presented to him for his signature. Legislation, however, is demanded by the material as well as moral wants of the nation. The Diet will act in the spirit of the constitution, as well as of equal justice, without regard to nationality or creed. It will not forget that the non-Magyar inhabitants of the country are its citizens and entitled to equal rights. It is ready to facilitate, by the greatest possible concessions, the voluntary and cordial return of Croatia and Slavonia to their old union with Hungary proper, even by acknowledging and treating them as a separate nation, if demanded. It thanks the monarch for having invited their representatives, as well as those of Transylvania, to appear in its midst; but it is aggrieved to see that the like has not taken place in regard to Dalmatia and Fiume, which are just as much integral parts of the Hungarian crown.

The Diet appeals to the heart as well as the interest of the monarch to restore to their liberty and property all those who have been condemned to punishment for political acts—these belonging now to a past over which the veil of oblivion is to be spread.

In its concluding parts the address dwells at length, and with more emphasis than elsewhere, on the immediate necessity—if the new system is to be regarded as a reality and not as a mockery—of restoring the municipalities of the country, and chiefly the counties, to all their rights and functions of self-government; of giving free scope to their deliberations, so highly productive of enlightenment for all classes of the people; of removing all unconstitutional authorities introduced during the ill-fated period of absolutistic or sham constitutional rule; and of appointing, agreeably to the laws of 1848, an independent Hungarian ministry. To the latter all possible forbearance and a friendly

co-operation are promised in advance on the part of the nation, to facilitate the work of transformation begun in 1848, and then suddenly interrupted, as well as all attempts at putting the interests and institutions of independent Hungary in full harmony with those of the other half of the Austrian Empire, and with the legitimate demands of the common dynasty. All this is urged in a dignified tone, which is significantly strong without being overbearing or threatening.

We regret that want of space prevents us from quoting any considerable part of this important state paper, which, in its entirety, is not only a political but also an historical document.

THE MERCHANT SERVICE.

Anybody who has paid much attention to maritime affairs, or even to the reports of our criminal courts, must be aware of the terrible degeneration of our merchant service. A comparison of the present social condition of the officers and seamen of merchant ships with what it was twenty years ago may render some assistance in getting at the reason why. It is true, while officers have held equal rank with the owners, seamen, excepting New Englanders, had hardly a recognized standing off their ships, but were known as brave, honest, cheerful, improvident men, invested with romantic interest. As classes, both officers and men have lost character, a fact of deep national concern. It is the common complaint of officers that ignorant, lazy, careless, insolent representatives of the worst classes of the world's worst seaports have succeeded the formerly well-instructed, prompt, tidy, respectful crew. The change may be partially referred to the extensive introduction of steam navigation, the discontinuance of long voyages, and the employment of very large ships, requiring the services of experienced commanders and many men, and the gathering to the few principal ports of the commercial enterprise of the many small ones, which formerly tempted home-bred boys to an apprenticeship to the sea. Its chief cause, however, is the substitution of degrading treatment of seamen for suitable discipline. Of this ill-usage little is known out of courts of justice, though a miserable reality to those taught as well the abuses as the uses of the belaying-pin, the handspike, and the capstan-bar. Their ignorance and insolence are too often reflections of the characters of masters who have passed into the cabin without the nursery education of the forecastle, and of mates appointed from among the thriftless relatives of owners, men unfit to live at home, whose qualifications for command are profanity and the "brass knuckles" and "slung-shot" that have given them authority in bar-rooms. It is not unfrequently said by worthy men who have "followed the sea" that self-respect has compelled them to abandon it. The evil reveals the cure. Vessels must be suitably officered before they can be well manned. The means of reform lie largely with ship-owners. That they will apply them is not to be anticipated. While trustworthy consignees receive the cargoes, and attend to the business of their vessels in foreign ports, and they do not absolutely require reliable officers of character to superintend these affairs, they will employ anybody who can safely navigate a vessel and be cheaply hired.

Legislation must be resorted to. The federal laws testify to the high popular regard for shipping interests and for the protection of seamen, but further enactments are needed in order to carry out the public policy. As the law clothes officers of vessels with unusual powers, it should fasten upon them a corresponding responsibility. Before their prerogatives can be acquired, it ought to be ascertained by some fair test whether they are fit for them, and the power bestowing them should provide for their revocation whenever they are abused.

At present there is no means of preventing a master convicted at the termination of every voyage of the grossest brutalities to seamen, or a mate repeatedly guilty of stealing his men's clothing, from retaining their commands, habitually and boastfully indifferent to law. A license system appears to be what is needed to make responsibility real. A license, or certificate, to be granted under proper restrictions, and liable to temporary or permanent forfeiture for misconduct, should be required of every officer. A valuable standing should attach to its possession, the loss of it should entail loss of employment, and there would thus be the strongest motives for behaving well.

A sure accountability to the laws should be established by provisions making arrest for their breach certain. Mates who have exposed themselves to punishment, customarily obtain an adjustment of their wages, get themselves put ashore, and are out of reach before the crew is discharged. The unfortunate seaman who patiently bears abuse till arrival in port enables him to ask justice, finds the privilege of asking his only redress. This stimulates lawlessness.

No employee ought to be permitted to leave a vessel till regularly discharged by a government officer, who should, before granting a permit, investigate all complaints.

Regulations for the shipment of proper crews are also needed. The large foreign element they present is the most commonly alleged cause of trouble. Inexperienced men are not seldom led by shipping masters, eager to fill a crew, to ship as able seamen. Of course the discovery of their incapacity breeds abuse. Would it not be well to have on every American vessel a fixed proportion of actual American seamen, speaking the language? No vessel should sail without a substantial inspection and approval of its crew. Some changes in our judicial system, not calling for discussion here, might well be made to meet the necessities of maritime and certain domestic interests.

In this time of steady and wonderful advancement, the deplorable condition of our merchant service is a disgrace to the nation. A vigorous attempt at reform in the particulars indicated, it is believed, is demanded for the honor of our commerce and the individual welfare of our seamen. Self-interest and humanity alike call for it, and now is the time to undertake it.

T. C.

I.

Up from the narrow prison of forms and creeds—
Out from the courts of charlatans and quacks—
Brushing aside whole fields of briers and weeds,
And with strong arm and keen, wit-sharpened axe
Opening his way apart from beaten tracks,
He led us like a father by the hand
Up to the splendors of an undiscovered land.

II.

His heart we loved; his genius we admired;
His quaint and sportive talk endeared his name;
His prophet tones and words our spirits fired;
A breeze of morning from his presence came;
The sunrise touched us with a ruddier flame,
As upward still we trod the heights with him
When truth's white light turned falsehood's blazing dim.

III.

But he, alas! who saw the light so plain,
Who slaughtered shams with scathing pen and tongue,
Deceived by some false phantom of his brain,
Now gropes through cavern windings, darkly hung
With lurid lamps, whose smoky fires the young
Aspiring faith of Christendom derides,
Turns back from in amaze, and seeks for wiser guides.

IV.

O leader up the mount—where visions grand
Burst on our youthful eyes, while others groped
Through tortuous ways—we held thee by the hand
With springing footsteps, as the prospect oped
Wider and wider. Vainly, it seems, we hoped
Companionship with thee in age as youth.
Despair is in thy voice. Alone we seek for truth.

V.

No, not alone—for many a mind which thou
Scornest, proves thy impartial judge and peer.
O tuneless bard! whose jangling wires now
Play o'er thy one half-truth, so sad to hear—
We mourn for thee, as when some gifted seer
Is snatched from reason's light and love's warm spell
To mumble witless words in a poor maniac's cell!

C. P. Cranch.

HINTS FOR TOURISTS AND INVALIDS ON ITALIAN CLIMATES.

THE annual tide of travel from this country to Europe will very shortly set in, with the usual tendency, after traversing the Continent during the intervening months, to rest in Italy during the winter. This will especially be true of such as are in feeble health, and are led to anticipate the most salutary effects from their sojourn upon the peninsula. As their disappointment will be most serious, and ought as far as possible to be prevented, we have thought some suggestions as to what to expect, what to avoid, and what of benefit and enjoyment may be obtained in the kingdom of Victor Emanuel, would have a timely interest and value.

In the minds of many the climate of Italy is little short of tropical. In winter, their imagination pictures a land smiling under an unclouded sun, whose burning rays are tempered by cooling breezes from the Mediterranean —in summer, a hotbed of pestilence that none but a Park or a Livingstone would be foolhardy enough to explore. There are those who have been known to leave their woollen garments in Paris when preparing their wardrobe for a winter in Italy; and some have written thither for information whether it would be safe, hygienically, to visit Florence in October.

To such as these, if we were to say that we have in Italy suffered greater inconvenience from cold and less from heat than we have in Boston or New York; that, in Florence, Austrian sentinels have died on their posts from cold, while the lives of Italians, similarly exposed, were saved by their superior hardihood; and that, sometimes, in the latter part of June and the beginning of September, overcoats and violent exercise are essential to comfort, we should be accused of indulging in paradoxes. Physicians send their patients to Italy as to a Pool of Siloam. Without a word of warning from the hosts of travellers and book-makers, the consumptive patient leaves his furnaced house, his tight double windows, his wooden floors covered with three-ply carpets, his furred walls, and, after various trials by sea and land, he reaches his winter quarters to find less provision often for the comfort of lodgers than we allow our state prisoners. If he is fortunate enough to be well-advised in the choice of his apartments; if he gets a southern exposure on a broad street or square, not on the ground-floor and not immediately under the roof; if, in spite of brick floors and solid walls (for Italians totally ignore the fact that an air-tight compartment in the walls, such as we make with laths and plaster, is a bad conductor of heat, while bricks and mortar are among the best), he has a stove which, by a constant supply of fuel, is capable of renewing the caloric as fast as it flies off at all six sides of his room and by the thin, rattling, unputtied windows and makeshifts for doors—then, all these conditions being complied with, he *may* be able to stave off discomfort and preserve his lungs from irritation and his feet from freezing. But let him beware how he goes rashly into a back chamber, looking on a courtyard or a narrow, sunless street, or turns a corner off the sheltered southern front of his house. In the one is a chill like the grave, and at the other he may encounter a blast savoring of icebergs from the Pole.

It is not invalids alone who suffer. All nations obliged to resort to artificial warmth abuse it, and render themselves in so far delicate and unable to resist the effect of cold. The Americans of the Northern States are among those most dependent on fire. To us, then, this feature of Italian winter-life, this want of comfort, is most interesting, and deserves more notice than it has received at the hands of travellers. It is attributable to two causes: to the character of the air, and to the construction of the houses. Of the latter of these something has been said; but of the former, little or nothing.

The air of Italy, as of southern countries generally in the eastern hemisphere, is heavy and inelastic. We say most southern countries, though in our Southern States and the West Indies the damp chill that in the eastern hemisphere pervades ground floors and all places hidden from the sun is not observed. This want of elasticity in the Italian atmosphere appears most strikingly when one goes out of sunny streets or open squares into a narrow street where the sun cannot penetrate. The contrast one feels instantaneously is so great that the two bodies of air seem like solids, that cannot combine or influence each other but at the point of contact. So, too, you may open the windows of a room long shut up, and it will require much time to effect the equalization of temperature with the outer air for which in a more northern latitude a few minutes suffice.

There is a property of Italian air, of which the thermometer takes no account, tending to keep down the circulation. The mercury may be many degrees higher than with us, and yet the sensation of cold, after sitting some time still, is greater, and it will require much more time to get into a glow by exercise. During the winter of 1857–58 even Italian sentinels were frozen to death in Leghorn, though snow was never seen; and an American informed us that he had slept many winters in Paris under a single blanket, but that during a November in Tuscany no covering was sufficient for comfort. It is common to attribute this peculiarity to dampness; but this cannot be a satisfactory solution, for the north and north-east winds in winter are dryness itself, and under their influence the nails become brittle as glass; yet they abstract caloric in a manner we are quite unused to, and so the poor Austrians found in the cold winter of 1848–49, when, in their own country, with the thermometer much lower, brisk exercise would have kept warmth and life in their bodies. Hence the danger of draughts in Italy, the speedy cooling of the whole body in the hottest days of summer when one faces a gentle breeze, the cooling process of driving in an open carriage, the chill that succeeds sea-bathing in the dog-days, even when the water reminds one of a hot bath, and the miraculous effect of the fan, which ladies must find here gifted with double power.

It would be a better explanation, we think, to say that there is a chemical property of the air which tends to diminish the rapidity of the circulation and to abstract caloric, and that this quality is increased by dampness, altitude, and motion of the air. We suffer, too, more in Italy from dampness, because the unelastic, stagnant nature of the air prevents its rapid diffusion as in northern countries, so that it hangs about narrow streets and lower stories, shady side-walks and the neighborhood of gardens and trees, and prevents the mortar from drying in new buildings. We blame the Italians for want of taste in not planting trees in their towns and laying out gardens in their public squares, but they are not without reason; and it would be wiser not to condemn anything hastily in a foreign country, however contrary to our own habits and ideas. The maxims and old saws of a people regarding health are a sort of common-law drawn from the experience of countless generations; an unenlightened experience, it is true, but the conclusions are rarely altogether wrong. A gentleman with weak lungs has told us that he could always distinguish by his sensations the limits of a garden in an Italian town abutting on the street. We laugh at the Italians for their bathing code, which confines sea-bathing to July and August alone. But there can be no doubt that bathing is not so innocuous as with us, and a chill is more easily taken. Sometimes great benefit and enjoyment are lost by foregoing the bath during a hot June and September; but it is thought wiser not to modify the common-law by statutes, and so the Italians will go on bathing only in July and August, though it sometimes happens that these two months are cooler than the two former. In this extreme they err, but their prudence is not without a color of reason.

Altitude increases the sensation of cold more than with us. Whether mercury is equally affected at a less height, we are not prepared to say. We speak only of our sensations. The inhabitants of villas on Monte Nero, near Leghorn, though it is only a few hundred feet above the sea, and almost destitute of vegetation, represent the evenings and nights as cool in the hottest period of summer.

After all, though we do not believe in the wisdom of sending invalids to Italy, yet it would be idle to argue that it is not a most delightful residence, in spite of drawbacks. The host of foreigners who flock to it and make it a second home would refute such a position. These very drawbacks may be made, with due prudence, a source of good. It is much better to run the risk of catching cold from chilly apartments than, by the over-application of artificial warmth, to become delicate and unable to resist cold. Doubtless many a child has perished under the rigorous régime, sent to an early grave by croup caught by sitting on damp ground or on stone benches, which seem colder here than elsewhere; or by getting into a perspiration on a hot winter's day and returning into a cold, damp cell, sealed to all external influences. But if one has the will and ability to guard against the dangers of a treacherous climate; to dress warmly in-doors, and not be shocked at the seeming paradox of sometimes going out lightly dressed on a winter's day and resuming a warmer garment on returning to the house, and other similar precautions, it is, we think, clear that a child, or even an adult, is better for such physical education than he would be in a climate where, during a long winter, he is coddled in a furnaced house, and where all the temptations and inducements are to an in-door life.

The Italians, with the exception of the wealthiest classes, make no use of fire for the purpose of warming except what they can get into a little earthen pot, called a *scaldino*, which they carry about in their hands during the day, and put into their beds at night an hour before they get into them. To them the poetry of the fireside is a dead letter. Their winters are indeed gloomy affairs, and, as this is the only season when they are seen by foreigners, it is impossible for the latter to form a very cheerful picture of Italian life. Firewood is looked on as a very great luxury, and it is thought more economical to spend money in dress than in providing for comfort. They are not, however, indifferent to the agreeable sensation of warmth, in spite of their

hardihood. They would almost suffocate in one of our furnaced parlors; but we remember the cook of one of our Tuscan landlords, notwithstanding her master's boasting that the climate was so mild that fire was unnecessary, confessing to us, after making our fire, that if she could have her choice between going to the theatre and spending the evening before such a fire, she would choose the latter. Government employees, to whom firewood is furnished gratis, use it profusely.

A large middle-ground is open between the economical extreme of the Italians and our own hot-houses, and, following a few simple rules, the traveller in Italy of average health will find he can make himself tolerably comfortable.

Avoid *new* houses at all seasons, three years being held here necessary to be sure of perfect dryness.* Choose an open square for winter and a southern front; or, what is better, south-eastern, so as to get the first morning sun. Avoid the neighborhood of gardens. Get as many front rooms as possible. Avoid the lowest and highest stories. The fireplaces are never good; but an open earthenware stove costs but little, and the landlords are always willing to put them up if the tenant will share the expense.

In Florence the best situations for winter are the sunny side of the Lung' Arno, the Piazza Pitti, and the Piazza Maria Novella. The Piazza dell' Independenza is not quite so warm in midwinter, but it has the advantage of meeting the spring sooner, being a sort of *rus in urbe*, while the streets in the central part of the town bottle up the winter's cold some weeks longer.

In Pisa, as in Florence, the Lung' Arno is the warmest exposure.

In Rome, Via Gregoriana, the sunny side of Via Felice, of Via Capo le Case, of Piazza di Spagna, and of the streets leading from it to the Corso, viz., Condotti, Croce, and Frattina. But all of these must yield to the first two, where the advantage of height is added to that of sun. Every one must be struck, in coming down the steps of the piazza, with the damp, cellar-like chill of the lower parts of the town. After a rain the highest part of the Via Capo le Case is the first to dry. In the lower streets it is particularly important to live high up in the house, thus getting more sun and less damp. The penultimate is the best; but the highest is better than the lowest or even second story.

As spring advances and summer is approaching, the great flock of travellers is on the wing; but let our readers be persuaded that there is no good cause for flight. *Experto crede.* Believe the word of one who passed through fifteen Italian summers, and is alive to tell of it. You can never see Italy in her beauty if you confine your visit to the cold weather. It is not enough to stay through the spring. We have a letter before us from a distinguished writer, dated Naples, at the end of May, according to which, "if the Italians would only get over the delusion that they live in a warm climate, we could get on very tolerably." Indeed, the houses are built and arranged only with reference to the summer; and it is not till we have got over the damp and chill, even of spring, and can throw ourselves on the turf under the trees, that the true charm of Italy is felt.

Then as for heat, the same quality of the air that, in winter, freezes up your blood, now tempers the opposite extreme. A slight breeze, a friendly shade, a moderate elevation, the neighborhood of woods or the sea—all have an effect that, to an American, seems magical. If the traveller is at Naples, he can spend his summer at Castellamare, Sorrento, or La Cava; or he may pass over to the island of Capri, and there, according to an account of a friend who tried it, go through July and August without a sensation of heat. So much as this cannot be said for Sorrento, where we once spent four months and a half, from the middle of May till the end of September, on a villa on the edge of a cliff that hangs 200 feet over the sea, embosomed in an orange-grove, and covered with vines and climbing roses. Before the house lay the whole expanse of the beautiful Bay of Naples, Vesuvius smoking in the distance. The path to the sea goes through immense caves cut in the *tufa* rock by the ancients, and leads to a smooth sand-beach, where the bathing leaves nothing to be desired. Here it is imagined that the sirens used to sit, and hence, it is pleasant to believe, came the name of the town. The cost of living was but little in this earthly paradise. The villa cost us, furnished, but $25 a month. A boatman (we remember his name well, Raphael, and his honesty, too) used to come every afternoon to bring purchases from Naples, and receive orders for the next day, his boat being one of a fleet that leaves every morning at daylight for the metropolis. He was a perfect Phœnix, and we used to wonder how the Pre-Raphaelites used to get through the season. Boats are in abundance to make excursions to the blue grotto of Capri or along shore; donkeys are ready saddled for climbing the hills that surround this beautiful valley; and one of the most romantic drives in the world is on the road to Castellamare, from which a railroad leads to Pompeii, Herculaneum, or Naples. That was a pleasant summer, if a hot one. But now—*quantum mutatus ab illo!* Our villa is no more, but in its place has arisen the envious palace of the Prince of Syracuse. We doubt not there are many more to be found; and, if not, a summer might be passed in many a worse place than the Hotel Tasso, one of the very best in Italy. It was formerly the family mansion of Tasso and the place where he spent his youth. Things change but little in Italy, and here you may feast your eyes on the identical scene which first woke a responsive chord in the bosom of the future poet.

In the neighborhood of Rome the choice of a summer residence may lie among Albano, Frascati, and Tivoli. In Tuscany the chief resorts for the summer are Leghorn and the baths of Lucca, also Sienna and the mineral waters of Monte Catini. These last and Leghorn are the places most frequented by the Tuscans; Lucca is that most resorted to by foreigners, especially the English.

For our own part, we prefer Leghorn. We know that foreigners are not generally of our opinion, but we think it is because it is not fairly tried. The few who, to our knowledge, have spent a summer there, generally repeat the visit. The Bagni di Lucca, though high and abounding in vegetation, and, therefore, enjoying cool evenings and almost cold nights, are quite shut in by mountains which cut off the ventilation and offer a concave reflector for the sun's rays, which thus become doubly potent. There is a sense, too, here of confinement. One longs to see a sunset, and, like the Prince of Abyssinia, to get beyond the lofty ridges that shut in this Happy Valley. The air seems stagnant and oppressive, and we shall not soon forget the delightful effect, after a hot summer at Lucca, of the fresh sea-breezes of Leghorn. Here the season begins and ends with July and August. The Italians talk of going to the *bagni* in the summer as a prime necessity of life. People of very moderate circumstances, who would not buy a stick of firewood in the winter, leave their houses and crowd themselves into a narrow, dirty apartment, paid for at an exorbitant rate, trusting to the mystic influence of the air or to an occasional dip in the sea to produce a miraculous influence on their bodies. It would be thought by them a tempting of Providence to bathe before the first of July, even if, as often happens, the weather and water have got their maximum of heat; and the first rain that may fall towards the end of August is a signal for all to stop for the season. They talk of a bath as of a most violent therapeutic remedy; and while they dose their insides habitually with the mineral water of Monte Catini, they seem to dread the application of common water, whether salt or fresh, hot or cold, to their skin as they would a surgical operation.

The best position at Leghorn is outside the Porta a Marc. Here, for two or three miles along the coast, are villas and furnished lodgings of all descriptions. The best position is thought to be at Palmeri's baths, and his apartments are always the first to be taken. A mile beyond, *i. e.*, two miles from the gate, is the Casino of Ardenza, much resorted to by the fashionables. There are also villas, further back from the sea, very prettily situated; and if one wishes a cool residence without bathing it can be found a mile or two further, on Monte Nero, where Byron once occupied a villa.

Another place is Sienna, which (to its credit be it said), though like Leghorn offering few attractions as a residence to the passer-by, yet is spoken of highly by those who have tried it during summer, and often returned to. Some ambitious students of the language exile themselves winter and summer in Sienna, on account of the recognized superiority of accent claimed by its inhabitants. Such self-sacrifice is praiseworthy, and it would savor of harshness to suggest to these martyrs that the chance is very slight of their approaching near enough to the true thing, in any part of Tuscany, for the space between Florence and Sienna to afford an appreciable parallax.

Another mode of passing the summer is villa life in the neighborhood of Florence. The country is perfectly studded with these residences, mostly furnished (scantily, however); and, by choosing situations on the brows of the many neighboring elevations, country-life, coolness, and independence may be combined with the advantages secured by proximity to a capital; such are Bello Squardo—chosen by the author of "Aurora Leigh" for the residence of her heroine—San Miniato, and the Poggio Imperiale.

In conclusion, we can only repeat what we have said—that, for invalids and children, Italy is not the place, unless they and their friends bring a large stock of prudence, and are willing to profit by the experience of others. Under these conditions, they can make Italy, throughout the year, an agreeable and healthy resting-place. Let them neglect these precautions—let them get an apartment on the ground-floor of a new house, opening upon a garden to the north, and they may only serve to prove the truth of the law

* As a proof how little travellers are prepared for the climate in spite of all the books written on Italy, a lady, just arrived in Florence, took an upper story just built on the top of an old house. She remarked there was little to be said in favor of the apartment, but that it had *one* very decided advantage—it was *perfectly new*.

maxim: *Cujus est solum, ejus est usque ad cœlum*—which may be thus paraphrased: Whoso takes a ground-floor in Italy will have need of no other lodging this side heaven.

A DESCENT INTO THE DEPTHS.

DIVERSIONS OF THE FOURTH WARD.

THE Fourth Ward, I believe, is the only rival of the Sixth in its triple distinction of filth, poverty, and vice. At the close of our inspection of the latter we held a consultation with Captain Thorn, who recommended not only a separate night for this district, but also two or three hours during the day, and kindly offered his services as guide and protector. We met, by appointment, on Monday afternoon, at the police station in Oak Street.

The sharp north wind which was blowing not only froze the filth and garbage of the streets into a solid mass, but almost completely deodorized the lanes and alleys we visited. In this respect we were not called upon to endure a very severe trial, but there was still enough left to stimulate the imagination and cause us to shudder as we anticipated the effect of summer heat upon these low-lying, swarming quarters.

Since our exploration of the Five Points, ten days previous, an event had occurred which is destined, let us hope, to relieve the city of much of the reproach and the danger which I have already described. The new Board of Health had been appointed, and the owners of these barracks and cellars becoming suddenly conscious of a change in the atmosphere, began at once to clean and ventilate and purify. The names of Dr. Willard Parker and Mr. Schultz have run far in advance of their official action. Fifteen hundred loads of filth have been already removed from the Fourth Ward, and in many courts and alleys only a dirty tide-mark on the walls remains to tell of their recent condition. Some streets (Cedar Street, for instance) were still ridged up to the height of nearly two feet for their entire length, but the accumulations had been loosened and broken up preparatory to removal.

We first visited some houses in Fisher's Alley, which may possibly be a little better than the dwellings in Cow Bay, though of this I cannot venture to speak positively. There may be slight degrees of comfort—or rather discomfort—perceptible to the inmates, which an inexperienced eye would fail to distinguish. It is difficult to draw comparisons below a certain grade of wretchedness; whether true or false, they are equally odorous. In these houses we found a family in each room, some with half a dozen lodgers in addition. Children swarmed in the dark passages, on the broken stairs, and in the noisome back-yards. The walls were cracked, the ceilings leaky, the broken floors mended, in some places, with barrel-staves nailed over the holes, and the windows so patched and dirty as to exclude much of the light. The rent varied from three to five dollars a month. In almost every instance it had either been recently increased, or an increase was threatened.

The custodian of one of the houses—a woman with black eyes and bruised nose—was anxious to impress upon us the fact that the place was soon to be cleaned. Arrangements would be made in a day or two, she said, to remove the great pile of refuse in front of the door. There were also hints of scrubbing and whitewashing; but all such improvements will be very temporary in their effects. There is no permanent cure short of tearing down the buildings.

We next descended into a number of lodging-cellars, not more than one in five of which was lighted, except, perhaps, by a window in the upper part of the door. Dark, damp, unventilated, and so cramped that we were frequently unable to stand upright, these dens paid a rent of from nine to sixteen dollars a month! The price of a night's lodging is fifteen cents. Although we were always careful to leave the door open wherever we entered, a few minutes in such an atmosphere were enough to produce oppression of the lungs and a disagreeable taste i the mouth. What must it be towards morning, after a dozen men and women have been sleeping there for hours?

In the lower part of Cherry Street we found barracks a shade better in appearance, and very much more expensive. The rooms were still miserably shabby and dilapidated, but the ceilings were higher, the windows larger, and some rooms of southern aspect were tolerably cheerful. Here the families have a habit of arranging their crockery in open dressers, the shelves of which are ornamented with cut paper; pictures are common, and the reckless untidiness of the people is chiefly to be seen in their beds. Some of the families occupied two rooms, and furnished board as well as lodging. The fronts of the houses present a better appearance than the rear, but there is little difference in the rent.

In one of the attics we found a German chair-maker sitting at a table, with a bowl of pieces of carrots, potatoes, and turnips before him. He looked at us with an idiotic stare, scarcely answering our questions, though put in his own language, and, finally, after tapping his breast and saying, "I'm sick!" fell to eating again. There was no fire in the stove nor any furniture in the room. Another miserable den brought double the usual rent, because it was a "furnished apartment." The furniture was a bed, two chairs, and a chest of drawers, all on the point of falling to pieces. The inmate, a broad-faced, unkempt girl of seventeen, informed us that a man lived with her. Two other girls, visitors, made a pretence of turning away their heads and laughing, but she faced us with a defiant boldness which might indicate either courage or depravity.

Turning into East Gotham Court we found a block of tenement-houses, upwards of one hundred and fifty feet long, standing at right angles to the street. There were six houses, and twenty families to a house, and a similar block in an adjoining court—making two hundred and forty families, living in the rear of the street, within a space a hundred yards long! The narrow alley-way which gave access to these dwellings was pierced, at regular intervals, with open gratings, down which we looked into a continuous open sewer, the common sink of all. It was fortunate for us that the keen cold kept down its terrible exhalations. There was only one thing to be said in favor of these blocks, and a similar one upon the other side of the street—the cellars were not inhabited.

Two hours sufficed to make us acquainted with the life of the poorer classes in the ward. After seeing the three varieties—the cellar, the vile back tenement, and the shabby front tenement—our further exploration was simply a repetition. The same state of things was continually reproduced, in different phases of repulsiveness. We grew weary of looking upon a degradation so passively accepted.

Captain Thorn promised us a different experience for the evening, and we were not disappointed. We proposed seeing the diversions, the delights, the indulgences, of the same class of people, to whom the dance-houses of Water Street are what the Academy of Music is to the dwellers on Murray Hill. We waited until nine o'clock, that the curtain might first fairly rise on the subterranean orgies, and then set out again in the company of our stalwart friend.

Many nationalities are here represented—mixed in some localities, clannishly separated in others. China was the first with which we made acquaintance. Into a basement, along a dark passage, where a furious little dog gave warning of strangers, and the door opened upon a misty atmosphere of opium and tobacco, a perspective of sleeping-berths in the background, and a group of flat Mongolian faces around a table covered with huge dominoes. The pieces were hastily mixed together, and the game broken off, when the captain made his appearance. The landlord, however, greeted us courteously, and some twelve or fifteen of his boarders gathered around, a mild curiosity lurking in their small eyes. The opium-smokers, stretched at full length in the berths, and inhaling the precious vapor through hollow reeds, looked at us listlessly through the mists of their dreams. It was evident that to them we were phantom figures, standing somewhere in remote space. In an inner room the same indulgence was going on, and the air was dense with the peculiar odor of the drug.

These Chinamen were mostly sailors. Some who had given up the sea, and now sell bad cigars and other cheap commodities, have married Irish women, and are adding a new Celto-Cathayan race to our cosmopolitan population. For board and lodging (the former including, as the landlord informed me, much rice and chop-sticks) they pay two dollars and forty cents per week. Captain Thorn stated that they were the quietest and best-behaved people in the ward. Their demeanor to us was polite and respectful; and, although I have an exceeding dislike to the Chinese as a race, I could not help acknowledging that these specimens, at least, were by no means so brutalized as their Caucasian brethren next door. Their obtuse moral sense, it seems, does not lead them into such depths of degradation as the perverted moral sense of the Anglo-Saxon. The latter, when he is ignorant, is the most ignorant, when vicious the vilest, when brutal the most of a brute, of any race on the earth.

A native-American establishment in Water Street was the next point of interest. Viewed from the street it was a drinking saloon, but through a half-open door in the rear came the sound of music and glimpses of white and pink figures. The floor was clean, the bar in admirable order, pictures on the walls, and an air of order—almost of respectability—about the whole place. A man of firm, sharp features, and keen, intelligent eye, bade us welcome. We passed through the bar-room and took seats in a rear hall, upwards of fifty feet in length. At the further end, on a platform, sat four musicians; on the floor twelve girls were dancing a quadrille. Half of the latter were *décolletées* to the last point; their heads were decorated with ribbons and flowers, and their distended skirts reached a little below the

knee. They resembled giant children of eight or ten, except that their dancing had none of the grace of childhood. The others, in plain dresses of dark calico, moved like nuns among these bedizened creatures.

Presently the host came into the room, took his station by the door, and commanded a march. The music struck up, and the girls formed a double line across the hall, swaying from side to side in time with the measure. Then commenced a series of evolutions, marching, countermarching, right-about facing, the word of command being given by the host in a loud, sharp tone—nor those words only, but many a savage reprimand, as some happened to fall out of step or line. His cold, severe, classical face formed the strongest possible contrast both to the scene and the other actors in it. His authority was unquestioned, whether cheerfully acknowledged or not. My friend ordered some refreshment for the dancers, and it was furnished without interrupting the evolutions. The girls fell into single file, marched, still swaying from side to side, to a counter near the music, took, in turn, a glass of something (apparently beer, from its color), emptied it with a "Here's to you, gentlemen!" and danced on.

The proprietor of this place appeared to be a man of considerable intelligence, if not education. He was no common character; his ascendency among those abandoned creatures was the least manifestation of his capacities, and if his gains are in proportion to his shrewdness (which I suspect is the truth), it will be safe to predict that in three years he will be alderman, in five member of the legislature, and that in ten he will have a house—possibly on Fifth Avenue.

Water Street abounds with dance-houses of similar character. We visited twelve or fifteen, which differed only in the proportions of the dancing-saloons in the rear, and the number of female performers. There are portions of the street where almost every other house is so occupied, and the rents paid by the proprietors are enormous. There are frequently two counters for the sale of liquor, one next the street, and the other at the rear end. Over some of these I saw the notices, "Twenty cents for a dance," and "Ten cents for a drink." Notwithstanding the greater expense, much more dancing than drinking was going on. Perhaps the captain's presence put a stop to the latter indulgence, or it was too soon in the evening; but certainly there was very little drinking to be seen, and no intoxication anywhere.

Towards midnight the dancing became incessant. The Scotch reel seemed to be most popular, though there were occasional waltzes and quadrilles. The male dancers, to judge by their peculiar swing and shuffle, were mostly sailors—many of them boys of eighteen, or even less. The girls went through their part with a weary, mechanical air, often drawing their naked shoulders together as the cold wind blew upon them. At first, on entering, the general effect was coarse and repulsive; and it was singular how soon this impression was softened by the wonderful sensuous glamour which belongs to music. The air, impure as it was, presently became rhythmic; the dancing figures, though by no means graceful, assumed a fawn-like character, and the real purpose of the establishment, carefully kept in the background, was no longer suggested.

I could easily understand that vice, thus embellished, should be attractive, especially to the inhabitants of the dens we had visited in the afternoon. It is, in appearance at least, a step above their reckless wretchedness. Warmed, lulled into semi-forgetfulness by some potent stimulant and "flattered by music's golden tongue," no one can wonder that a week's earnings are so often spent for a night's dissipation. The exhibition of moderate neatness and partial order, in these places, was so agreeable, by contrast, that I found myself constantly forgetting their disreputable character. The first step towards reclaiming the lower classes of our population must be the introduction of some innocent form of recreation and amusement—not moral lectures, but music, dances, puppet-shows even—diversions which give more than the dance-house now offers, without its temptations.

In the midst of this region there is a Mission House, which we also entered. We found a clean, well-lighted hall, with plain benches for the auditory, a platform for speakers, and texts of Scripture upon the walls. The services were over, but the janitor, a grey-headed man, was very enthusiastic in setting forth his own redemption from evil ways. "In two weeks I shall be eight years old," said he—"eight years in Christ. I was once a miserable creature; no one would receive me, or have anything to do with me. I tried to join the Odd Fellows, but they would not have me. No more would the Freemasons; for I was a drunken sot. Then, at last, I went to Jesus, and he took me just as I was." This old man was the happiest person we saw; he was completely filled and satisfied by his faith.

After we had exhausted the principal attractions of Water Street, Captain Thorn proposed taking us to a "dago crib"—a very mysterious and suggestive term, until I learned that Spaniards were called "dagos," when I guessed that it was simply a corruption of the individual name "Diego" applied to a class. The place was kept by a Messinese Sicilian, married to a Hamburg woman. Dancing of an animated character was going on down the centre of a long room, on either side of which sat a row of villanous-looking Spaniards and Italians, with an occasional German. The glances they shot at us from under scowling brows boded no prepossession in our favor, and the captain's company was more agreeable than ever. Yet the landlord and his assistant were models of graceful courtesy. The former sent for a bottle of sweet Sicilian wine and filled glasses for us, the Hamburg woman joining in the salutation. This place, being more wicked than most of the others, was proportionately interesting, and we spent half an hour watching the appearance and movements of the persons assembled.

A round of the lager-beer saloons of Chatham and William Streets closed our labors for the night. If the dance-houses seemed respectable by contrast with the lodging-cellars, these saloons were aristocratic. Here there was plenty of space, plenty of light, ventilation, ornament, music, and, above all, order and (at least external) decency. The proprietors are semi-cultivated men, most of whom have had a wide experience of the world. The beer is excellent, its quality not having diminished with the size of the glass. Many of the saloons do an immense business and their proprietors are rapidly becoming wealthy. Those in the Fourth Ward are in no wise inferior to the similar establishments on the Bowery.

A few steps up Frankfort Street brought us to a view of the City Hall by moonlight. Here, also, there is a foul atmosphere which no Health Commissioners can purify. Which is worse, vice in low places or dishonesty in high? As I reflected upon this question, I found myself less inclined to pronounce harsh judgment upon the classes we had just visited, seeing how inevitably their phase of poverty produces filth, and filth loss of self-respect, and loss of self-respect vice, and vice crime. More than half the evil in the world springs from material rather than moral sources. And missions, charities, schools, and associations for reform work against wind and tide until we have a good municipal government. B. T.

New York, March 8, 1866.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXXII.

Parish of Orleans, La., Feb. 17, 1866.

I WISHED after leaving New Orleans to visit Baton Rouge, and, for the sake of seeing the country and the people between these two cities, I decided to make the journey on foot. My valise and overcoat, therefore, were sent forward by express, and I carried with me only a very light equipment of such things as would be indispensably necessary during a week's walk. I reached the little suburb of Carrollton before twelve o'clock, and there enquired for the road to Baton Rouge. "The river," everybody answered with a stare; "a boat; nobody went by land," and at last they told me to take to the levee. Accordingly I climbed the bank and was fairly on my way. At the end of the first five hundred yards a colored soldier ordered me to halt, and referred me to his officer for the reason. The lieutenant said that he had orders to keep all Jews and peddlers out of the camps; the men were being paid off. Satisfying him that I was not a peddler, he suffered me to pass on, and for a little way I walked in company with two negro women who were going into the country to make a Sunday visit to their relatives. They talked about the capture of New Orleans, the cannonade at the forts, the first appearance of the fleet, and the fright among the citizens. That was the day, one said, when them rebels run all about. Yes, said the other, that was the time when the stripes come off 'n their pantaloons! They told her the d—n Yankees had come, and the very first thing they 'd blow up the city and kill all the people. They would n't kill her, she told 'em. She knowed she 'd never done nothin' but work hard; not her, not since they done sell her out o' old Virginny. They told her a heap more 'n she believed. Same as they said that Confederate flag never should come down off 'n the Custom House; the man that laid a hand on it should die sure. But she noticed the Yankee flag went up very quick. As for herself, her mind was all made up to run for them same cannon that talk' down the river, if the Yankees did n't come up.

These recollections the women dwelt on with much apparent enjoyment, as is usual with the negroes whenever they talk of Federal successes. By-and-bye we came upon another guard, and I went on alone, leaving the soldiers examining the baskets of the women to see if they contained whiskey, and soon I fell into the company of a young man who, after finding out my business, informed me that he was a teacher employed by the Freedmen's Bureau, and urged me to spend the night with him. He would show me a

usus naturæ, he said. He would introduce me to Mr. B——, a man born in the South, once the owner of several slaves, afterwards for a long time an overseer, who was not only a Unionist, but actually believed that the negro was the equal, and in many respects the superior, of the white man, and should be allowed to vote. Mr. B—— was manager of the plantation he was living on, which was only twenty-five or thirty acres further up, and I would find him very hospitable.

I consented to go with him, and as we walked along he bade me remark that the surface of the river was eight or ten feet higher than the land, and that the field-ditches all ran not towards it but away from it. The country along the Mississippi for many miles above and below New Orleans and Baton Rouge was a narrow strip of good land, with the river on one side of it and a swamp on the other. Then each plantation was a strip of land, the most of it worthless, extending back, sometimes many miles, into the swamp water; and in estimating the size and value of the farm the important element entering into the calculation was always the number of acres fronting on the levee. The country is exclusively agricultural. It is customary, therefore, in measuring length to use the measure applied to the farms, and to speak of points upon the road as being so many acres or so many arpents distant from each other.

It was not long before we came to the dwelling-place of my new acquaintance. The house was a low building, shaded by magnolia trees, in the middle of a flat yard, which looked like a goose-pasture with its slippery mud, its short green grass, and shallow pools: His school-house was on the next plantation. On first coming into the service of the Bureau he had been compelled for several months to live in a part of one of the negro cabins; but Mr. B—— had taken him out of those disagreeable quarters, and established him more comfortably where he was then. His pay was eighty dollars a month, the same with that given other teachers of his rank. Those of lower grades received sixty-five and sixty dollars a month, and no one was employed without first passing a thorough and severe examination. In no other State, he thought, had the rate of wages for teachers in freedmen's schools been so very high, and from all I hear of the examination to which teachers in Louisiana have been subjected, I should say that the standard of qualification also has been exceedingly high. General Baird's recent order, directing that the negroes shall hereafter pay the expenses of their schools, goes into operation in March, and during February all schools are suspended. Meantime agents go about explaining its provisions to the people. Its effect, this teacher thought, would be to diminish considerably the number of persons under instruction. Anticipating its promulgation, he had offered to keep his school open during the intermission if each pupil would pay one dollar. Formerly, he had eighty-three pupils; now he has only thirty-five. But, if I am not mistaken, a compulsory support of schools is intended.

At night we walked out half a mile to the negro quarters of a neighboring plantation, and visited the cabin of one of the laborers. Several of his friends dropped in, and the schoolmaster directed the conversation to the subject of education. Two men were spokesmen for the others, and presented the different aspects of the question. Here they were, one said, working for only twenty-five dollars a month. Out of that amount they had to buy food and clothes and everything else they wanted, and were also taxed half a dollar a month to pay for the regular visits of the doctor. If he ordered medicine, that had to be paid for. Mr. M——, their employer, did n't want women in the field—not now, at any rate—and the man's wages were all that was coming in. It was pretty tight living, and come to put on a school tax on top, nobody could stand it. The wages all went for victuals. How could they save a dollar a month for schools?

The other man, a carpenter and engineer, said that the school tax would n't be a dollar; it would be only seventy-five cents a month. Mr. M—— had explained that all out to them; and by-and-bye the women would have work as well as the men, and would be getting half a dollar and a dime a day for it. Education was the greatest of all things. What made the difference between a white man and a black man? Knowledge and wisdom. Look at this: Mr. M—— hired him and paid him thirty dollars a month, and he had to find himself out of it; but he hired Baptiste and paid him a hundred dollars a month and found him everything he wanted. Now he could do the work Baptiste did, just as well, and perhaps a little better; but when it came to taking a pencil and paper and calculating and figuring, he could n't do it. Baptiste could tell the feet in a load of boards; he could n't. Education was the thing. "For we old gineration," he thought, it was too late to go to school; but the children ought to be educated. Leaving learning to your children was better than leaving them fortune; because if you left them even five hundred dollars, some man or education than they had would come along and cheat them out of it all; but learning they could keep. He ended by begging the teacher if his boys would learn their lessons in no other way to whip them night and morning. The little girl was more easily managed; she sometimes sat up half the night over her geography book. The other men fully agreed with him as to the importance of education; it was the tax that frightened them, and they so poor; but of course they meant to keep their children in school as long as they could.

Going back in the dark, we could hear the steamboats panting down the distant river, but could only see them as moving clusters of lights, floating as it seemed in the air, the river was so high above us. Mr. B—— had returned in our absence, but had immediately gone away again, for a squad of soldiers, searching for a stolen mule, had forcibly taken away one of his, and he had ridden to the camp to recover his property. He had not come back when I rose in the morning, and I lost the opportunity of talking with him.

February 18.

The morning was close and warm when I set out again, and it was a constant pleasure to walk through the unfamiliar scenery in the delicious weather, the air full of the earthy smell of the new herbage and ringing with the songs of birds. For miles together the appearance of the country is the same. On the levee one is in the middle of a great oblong space, almost flat. The bank he walks on is about six feet high and a yard wide at the top. Its sides are covered with sods, and a trodden footpath, edged with grass and small-leaved clover, and slightly elastic beneath the step, winds away before him and seems like a green ribbon with a wood-colored stripe running through it. On the left hand is the yellow stream of the river, more than a mile wide. The trees along the further bank are not thick together, and the white houses, never far apart, shine through them For the most part they are leafless and indistinct, and as one looks away up the river the low shores of the distant loops and bends range themselves irregularly behind each other, and at last would almost fade into the hazy sky, but that one sees the globe-like deep green mass of some live-oak standing out against the dim background of blue grey. There is little on that side to break the monotony: the shadow of a buzzard skims along the bank; a skiff runs out and, making fast to the roots of some floating pine, tows it in; a negro silently fishes, swinging a long-handled scoop-net; a steamboat is seen now and then, and perhaps she suddenly turns her bow to the shore, the current carries her stern down the stream, she swings to the bank broadside on, picks up a passenger, and is off again.

On the right hand, at the foot of the levee, is the dirty road. Behind this road the brown fields, with spots of green, and marked by fences and long ditches and canals, stretch back for a mile or two, sloping with an almost imperceptible inclination to the swamp. This appears as a line of bleached and leafless forest, hung with heavy masses of what one knows to be grey moss. Dotting the great muddy plain are the various farm buildings, the dwelling houses near the road, further in the rear the village of negro houses, then, sometimes a mile away, the sugar house with its massive red chimneys, and furthest of all, on the edge of the swamp water and close to an unseen levee, the roof that covers the cumbrous draining machines.

These lowlands of Louisiana are in appearance by far the richest country and the best populated that I have seen in the South. Sometimes for a mile or more the houses stand so close together as to form a continuous line, and one is never out of sight of some dwelling place. In walking twenty miles one usually passes two or three of these villages, with their foreign-looking inhabitants, the shop signs in the French language, the chapel where a bell is ringing for service, and the little houses sometimes plastered with mud, but usually seeming neat and clean. The planters' houses are often handsome buildings, and it is common to see them standing in a fine grove of evergreens, orange trees, perhaps, with loaded branches, while the ground beneath is golden with the fallen fruit. At two o'clock it began to rain, and I took refuge in a wayside grocery, where a young man talked with me about political questions. It was strange, he said, to see what fools the Southern people had been since the surrender. They would n't wait till their Congressmen were admitted, but showed their hand plainly. He had told a good many men that all this legislation about the niggers ought to be put off; there was no hurry; but they thought things ought to be fixed right off, so that they could make a crop this year, and they went on doing what he called playing the radicals' game. Of course the North would stand by the nigger. A couple of months ago he had been in Alabama, and two niggers came into that country from the North; one was a well-educated fellow, too, and had something to do with a newspaper in his own State. The young men run 'em both out of the country. He told them they had no business to do it; of course that nigger told his story when he got home, and made it ten times worse than it was. The result of

that kind of thing would be that negro suffrage would be forced on the South. He had prophesied it for months; but they laughed at him, and said that anyhow they could control the negro vote. Well, when a man was d——d fool enough to talk like that he 'd better be left alone. The niggers would vote for the men that gave them their freedom.

While I sat there several negro men and women stopped on their way home from church and bought whiskey and tobacco. The store was a miserable little room in the yard of a large house, and the storekeeper was the planter's son, a young man and apparently a person of some education. The rain ceased for a little while, but before I had walked far recommenced, and I began to look for a place to stay in for the night. I found it at what is called Rost's Colony, a plantation twenty-five miles distant from New Orleans. It was for some time held by the Bureau as confiscated property, but the owner, having been pardoned, now receives rent for it. It is not only worked as a plantation, but is also an asylum for negroes disabled by age and sickness. There are now 745 people living there, of whom 100 are able-bodied persons receiving pay for their labor. Fifteen dollars per month is the amount given to each full hand, in addition to shelter, food, and two suits of clothing yearly. They are said to work very well; although a man formerly employed as overseer went away in disgust at free labor. The expense of carrying on the farm during 1866 will be about $40,000. Should the season not be a bad one, it is estimated that the value of the molasses, sugar, and cotton produced will be $90,000. The cost of maintaining the colony will be $25,000, including the expenses of supporting an hospital and keeping a physician at a salary of $100 a month. Six per cent. on the net profits is paid to an experienced sugar planter who acts as overseer. This is the only institution of the kind in Louisiana, I am told.

Here I met the agent of the Freedmen's Bureau for the parish of St. Charles. He reports the condition of the freedmen as being satisfactory. They are all at work, except upon some few plantations which are not under cultivation, the lessees having abandoned them for one reason or another. Ten dollars and fifteen dollars a month are the wages commonly paid, and where more than this is given the laborer buys his own food and clothing. The women are not paid so much as the men, and are not always hired by the year, but often by the day. No planter gives his laborers the whole amount of wages due them when the monthly pay-rolls are made out, but one-half of the money remains in the planter's hands until the end of the year. Outrages or frauds upon negroes were very infrequent.

There was only one opinion among the gentlemen at this house about the political sentiments of their Southern neighbors—that they were hostile to the Government and to Northern men. None of them, however, complained of having been himself injured or insulted.

February 19.

In the morning I was invited to ride out and see the plantation, which is considered a model, and has evidently been carefully managed for some years. The powerful and complicated machinery for sugar-making is said to have cost nearly a hundred thousand dollars. There was also the gin-house with its separate engine, the grist-mill and the engine, and heavy water-wheel of the draining-machine in the swamp. The negro houses formed a long street, and, like most that I see in Louisiana, were superior to the laborers' quarters in other Southern States. The house, now used as an hospital, had been built for that purpose by the owner of the place; there are now twenty-one inmates, some of them men more than a hundred years old. After looking at these things I bade good-bye to my kind entertainer, who insisted on my taking one of his horses and riding two or three miles. A little negro boy, mounted on a creole pony hardly bigger than a yearling calf, accompanied me, and was full of chat. When he grew up he intended to be a hand on one of the steamboats; that was better than working on a plantation, only they turned a man away too quick. Freedom was better than slavery, he thought; for one thing, in free times, you could go to school. His horse could run mine down; it was God's truth, and, if I did n't believe it, I could try it. Then he rode straight up the steep bank of the levee, showing off the powers of the animal, and brought her down again safely, and made her jump a ditch. He was sometimes whipped in school, he said. Leaving him to go back with the horses, I walked on in the face of a strong wind which ruffled the river into waves, and made me glad when the levee now and then forsook the bank and interposed between me and it a screen of willows growing up out of olive-colored pools of water. Soon a young man on horseback overtook me, and we travelled together. He was a Bostonian, who came into this State in 1864. Last year he cultivated a plantation on "the coast," as everybody calls the river-shore, and this year he rented one place on the coast and two in the Red River country. The negroes worked as well as could be expected of people who had been brought up as they had, and fed on such food as the slaveholders gave their hands; of course, they were not so efficient and profitable laborers as whites were. He intended to make his home in Louisiana, and desired no better country to live in. He weighed ninety pounds when he left Massachusetts, and now he weighed a hundred and forty, and was afraid of no kind of weather or work. The people always treated him like a perfect gentleman, and there was no greater mistake than to suppose that they did n't like the Northern men. When the war first broke up a Yankee was not very favorably received; it was much the same in the South as it was then in the North when a Southerner was seen; people looked at him and said: "Perhaps that 's the scoundrel that killed my son or killed my brother." But that feeling had worn away. He had lived among the people of this State, he had recently made a long journey on horseback into Texas, and everywhere he had been treated as well as he could ask. And he never denied that he was from Massachusetts nor concealed his hatred of slavery. So far as danger was concerned, there were many mean fellows in the country, who cared nothing for law, who always had been in the habit of using the pistol in any little dispute; but it was easy to take the necessary precautions against such men, and he felt just as safe here as in New England. As to negro suffrage, universal negro suffrage, the men that advocated such a measure as that must be lunatics or fools. At any rate, they had a very poor idea of what made the glory and strength of true republican governments. The niggers were destitute of honesty; they did n't know the meaning of principles; they were ignorant and debased; and to put the ballot in the hands of such a set as the common plantation negroes would be ruinous. Could n't any man of common sense see that the country would be filled with a tribe of miserable demagogues, worse, if possible, than the John Slidell democracy, the moment that the negroes got political power? Of course, if a man could honestly believe in the right of these ignorant men to vote, he had a right to uphold his belief by speech and writing. It would partly depend on how he talked about it whether he could talk with safety in this country. Let him be as civil to his neighbors here as he had to be in New York or Massachusetts, and there was no doubt he could express any opinions that he might hold. Intelligence and good character, in his opinion, should be made the conditions of exercising the electoral privilege; but Congress had no right whatever to interfere in the matter; it should be left to the States.

The gentleman's plantation on this road, a small farm devoted to the culture of rice, was not far from the place where I first met him, and he invited me to dinner. The house was a small cottage, with about two hundred acres of land behind it, and was occupied by his overseer, who has entire control of affairs here, his employer being absent most of the time on the Red River plantations. As we entered the gate a bell was ringing calling the laborers to their afternoon work. They go out at six o'clock in the morning and work till sunset, an hour and a half being allowed for breakfast and three-quarters of an hour for dinner. The food of each laborer consists of a peck of meal every week and five pounds of bacon, or three pounds of mackerel, the cost of a week's rations being $1 40. Two suits of clothing—one worth $25 and one worth $15—are furnished each laborer yearly, and he is paid $15 a month. The quality of the food and clothing is better on this plantation, I am told, than on any other in the neighborhood; and the general management of the place is so well liked by the colored people that when, on commencing work, the overseer wished to hire seven hands, he had more than fifty applications. Seven men receive permanent employment, and there are six women who work occasionally, and are paid fifty cents a day.

At night I stayed at the Grey Eagle Coffee House, the tavern of the creole village of Bonnet Carré, where there was no one able to speak English but the old negro cook. They made me a bed on two benches in the billiard room, and I went to sleep to the sound of my landlord's voice, who read aloud to his wife from a copy of "Les Trois Mousquetaires."

February 20.

In the morning I found him again at his book, from which he was once in a while called away by men, some of them barefooted, who came in with their hands in their pockets and drank absinthe at the bar or played billiards. I received a dozen *bon jours* when I left the party and walked briskly on till noon. Then I stopped at a little shop to buy bread and cheese. Half a dozen creoles were lounging there, and my appearance excited a good deal of curiosity. They gathered round me while I ate, and one who could speak English asked many questions, interpreting my answers to his friends. From New Orleans, eh? When did I leave? I was out of my work and was seeking for place? Perhaps I was a schoolmaster? At last I gave him a full account of myself, but he seemed unable to believe it; a newspaper correspondent was an unknown personage to him. It must be there was something wrong with me. Oh no, not that I was not all

right; but there was some trouble, it was plain, or why should I be travelling on foot. Was there no trouble, no sweetheart? But it was very strange. I knew my own business, but I did not tell to strangers. He liked my look in the face, however, and, though he was a poor man, if I would come dine with him I should be very welcome. He had been a traveller himself.

I should say that nearly three-fourths of the white people along the road from New Orleans to Donaldsonville are creoles, and a great proportion of them are ignorant of English. They are neither large nor handsome, and have the name of being an indolent, careless race. Most of them cultivate no cotton or cane, but raise crops of corn and vegetables on their little farms, which border the road, while the larger property of their neighbors extends behind theirs, cutting them off from the swamp. They live for the most part, one of them told me, on chickens and eggs, and their wood and water comes from the river. A ball on Saturday night and billiards on the other six evenings of the week, it is said, are their pleasures. But some of them are both wealthy and well educated. I stayed at night in the neighborhood of a great white convent, with a family of these creoles, who readily received me. None of them, except the oldest son, spoke English, and he seemed little inclined for conversation, but showed me silently to my room. I learned afterwards that the father had died only the day before.

DONALDSONVILLE, La., February 21.

To-day I was for the first time afloat on the Mississippi, having been ferried across at a point seven miles below Donaldsonville. The ferryboat was a light skiff, manned by a creole and a colored man. Their little pine oars were rudely shaped, but they handled them well and took the boat over in a straight line in less than ten minutes. The row-locks were iron pins driven into the gunwale, to which the oars were tied with cowhide thongs. Landing on the western shore, I was told that the distance to Donaldsonville was six miles and seven or eight arpents by the levee, but by the "cut-off" it was only five miles and two arpents. I therefore chose the cut-off, and was soon exceedingly tired of it, the sun being oppressively hot in the fields and the road now painfully rough and now muddy. I was glad of half an hour's rest under the roof of a lonely draining-machine, and a drink from the ditch, for a walk of seventy or eighty miles enables one to relish very simple pleasures. A little after noon I reached the town.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 1, 1866.

THE bill suspending the *habeas corpus* in Ireland was passed almost without opposition. The debate, indeed, which ensued on its introduction was not unworthy of the occasion. Sir George Grey for once was impressive in his appeal to the good sense and patriotism of the nation; Mr. Gladstone spoke with an air of command which of late has sat upon him not ungracefully; and Mr. Mill was, as usual, clear and logical; but the speech of the evening was that of John Bright. Speaking as he did on an unpopular side, he completely carried away an almost hostile assembly by the force of his impassioned, earnest eloquence. Even the reporters' gallery, the most unenthusiastic, and, in a popular sense, unsympathetic, body of men I have ever met with, felt the influence of that rhetorical power. Yet to those who merely read the debate, I should doubt if this speech of Mr. Bright's will appear by any means the finest of his printed harangues. When you read it over in cold blood, it labors under the fatal defect of proposing nothing. The great free-trade orator felt as keenly as any Tory colonel on the opposition benches that when the Government asked for such abnormal powers on behalf of the safety of the empire, no true Englishman could possibly refuse to grant them. He did not, therefore, object to the motion in itself; he only declaimed against the policy or want of policy which had made that motion necessary. And to me, personally, Bright's position, as a non-objector and yet a critic, seemed a somewhat false one. Either the demand of the Government was just or not. If it was not just, he ought to have opposed it with his vote; if it was just, he was scarcely justified in seizing this opportunity to complain of a policy which belonged to a bygone time.

I have no doubt that the Fenian movement will create considerable interest on your side of the Atlantic, and, therefore, I hope that you will excuse me in speaking of it in somewhat of a personal sense. It is my wish, as far as possible, to exclude my own individuality, if I may use the term, from these letters. I only speak of myself or of my own opinions now because I consider, with regard to this matter, I am a fair representative of ordinary English thought. Now the one thing with regard to the whole movement about which I feel absolutely and positively certain is, that it will be crushed if ever it comes to an outbreak. The town is full of rumors of disaffection among the troops quartered in Ireland; making every allowance for the exaggerations of panic, I have no doubt there is too much truth in these rumors. But, if any regiment in Ireland was to mutiny to-morrow, I should have no more doubt about the restoration of the imperial authority than I should have about the sun rising to-morrow. If there should be any attempt at a Fenian rising, all I can say from the bottom of my heart is, God help the poor wretches who are participators in the outbreak! For them, on this side of the grave, there will be no chance of mercy. We can pardon a "cabbage-garden" conspiracy, like that of Smith O'Brien; we can laugh at the constructive treason of the *Irish People;* but if it once comes to an actual tangible endeavor to upset the Government of Great Britain and Ireland by force of arms, then all England will be united as one man. If once it becomes clear that the suppression of an Irish revolt is essential to the safety and integrity of the empire, then men of all creeds and all parties will be alike in calling for decisive measures. I am not saying now whether this feeling is right or wrong, Christian or unchristian; I am only saying that it is the ruling sentiment of the English nation, and that any person who, judging from speeches like those of Mr. Bright, should imagine that an Irish rebellion would find any sympathizers in England, would find himself most wofully mistaken.

Thus much I feel bound to say, in common honesty, and, even more than that, I must also admit that even liberal Englishmen find themselves hopelessly embarrassed when they are asked what they think ought to be done for Ireland. Our forefathers acted cruelly and iniquitously towards the Catholic population of the island. But because our fathers did wrong we cannot reasonably be expected to give up our imperial system. It would be as reasonable to plead that the Northern States had no right to uphold the Union because in former generations the citizens of those States fostered or tolerated slavery. As far as I can learn, no policy that could be suggested consistently with the maintenance of the empire would satisfy the authors of the Fenian agitation. The existence of the Established Church in Ireland I hold to be a valid grievance; the tenure of land, as it is practically worked across St. George's Channel, I believe also to be a hardship; but if we were to abolish the establishment and establish "tenants' rights" to-morrow, the Fenians would still remain as hostile to our rule as ever. The end and object of Fenianism is the detachment of Ireland from the empire; and this object we neither shall nor, as I hold, ought to assent to, so long as we have power left to resist its consummation by force.

However, I am writing now rather with a view to express what I believe would be the national policy under certain given conditions than to describe it as at present existing. Up to this time the whole Fenian agitation has not taken hold of the English mind. The Government are, as I have reason to know, infinitely more perturbed about the whole matter than the ordinary public. Throughout the week troops have been leaving, evidently for Ireland; but the public cannot yet take Fenianism seriously. Not a single paper, as far as I know, has even sent special correspondents to report upon the state of Ireland; and the money market itself, that most sensitive of all political barometers, has shown no indication of being affected by the rumors of an expected insurrection. Indeed, the optimist view, that everything in the British isles is, on the whole, as good as it could possibly be anywhere, or at any time, is so deeply ingrained amongst us, that it would need a moral or political convulsion before we begin to doubt the truth.

A short time ago, Mr. Thompson, a rich manufacturer, who contested South Lancashire unsuccessfully in the advanced Liberal interest, visited the United States. Being a strong sympathizer with the cause of the Union, he was painfully impressed on his return to England with the utter ignorance of the educated classes on all American affairs. He therefore proposed to found a professorship at Cambridge with a sum of five thousand pounds. The professor was to be nominated by the authorities of Harvard College, and, if approved by the senate of Cambridge, to deliver a course of lectures on legal, social, and historical questions connected with America. A large party amongst the dons of the university disliked the project because it seemed to involve the assumption that something good could "come out of America;" but still this was an argument which even the old-fashioned college deans were ashamed to put forward; and the only overt opposition to the scheme proceeded from an obscure master of arts called Dodd, who propounded the following ingenious theorem—that an American professor must inevitably propound doctrines hostile to church and state, and therefore either he would pervert the minds of the students, or else, what he obviously regarded as more probable, he would so incense their loyal hearts that they would wreak summary vengeance on his devoted head. However, though I suspect, at many of the Common rooms, while the after-dinner port was being imbibed, many of the old fellows opined there was a good deal of truth in what Dr. Dodd said, yet nobody of any note had courage enough to support him. The proposition that the offer hould be accepted was eloquently supported by Professor Kingsley, who had

been somewhat conspicuous during the war for his pro-Southern sympathies. His speech was a genial and friendly one enough; but I think the Harvard professorate will be rather surprised to learn that their especial recommendations, in the eyes of the sometime author of "Alton Locke," are the conservatism of their characters and their keen appreciation of the defects of republican institutions. On the first discussion, then, at which only the resident members of the university were present, the opinion in favor of accepting the proposal was overwhelmingly in the ascendant. But between the first and second discussions the country clergy had been summoned to the rescue of bigotry. As usual, they responded nobly to the call. Circulars were sent round informing the non-resident clerical members of the senate that Harvard College was the chosen abode of Socinianism; that any professor nominated by Harvard would seek to corrupt the youths of Cambridge from the doctrines of the Church of England to those of Socinianism; and that therefore all loyal sons of Mother Church must vote against this attempt to Americanize our faith. The appeal was not made in vain; the rectors and curates of the neighborhood flocked into Cambridge, and a large majority of the senate decided that to allow a professor nominated by Harvard to give lectures at Cambridge would be a dereliction from the duty we owe to the one Catholic and Apostolic faith, as expounded by the Church of England.

I was present the other day at the celebration of a grand, though I fear unsuccessful, effort to revolutionize one of our great social institutions. The public dinner, with its heavy four courses, its fruity wine, its lugubrious glees, and its solemn after dessert oratory, is one of the hardest social inflictions which Englishmen have to undergo. On all such occasions ladies are rigidly excluded. They may, indeed, sit in the gallery, and eat cakes and ices, and watch their lords and masters over-eating themselves below; but they are not allowed within the dining-room. Some years ago there was started a fund for the relief of poor comedians, and this dramatic institution had, of course, to be promoted by an annual dinner. At this dinner it was resolved to admit ladies. Naturally, the supporters of the institution do not belong to the most strait-laced classes of the community. But somehow the experiment has not answered. English prejudices are against it, and English prejudices are quite as strong amongst actors and actresses as amongst the commercial and professional classes, in whom "respectability" is, as it were, incarnate. The actresses who are married do not come because their husbands will not allow them, and those who are not married will not come because the married ones stop away. Even the extraordinary popularity of Charles Dickens as chairman could not induce the theatrical profession to rally round him; and the society, I fear, will never prosper greatly, though an excellent one in itself, till the ladies are sent back to the place whence they came.

By the way, Mr. Sothern is going to bring an action against the owners of the *Spiritual Times* for publishing a libel upon his moral character in a communication from an American correspondent.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, Feb. 14.

THE ingenuity applied to the invention of new amusements in fashionable life continues to grow week by week. The quadrille of "The Gazelles and the Leopards," for instance, which was got up at the ball of the Minister of Marine, was a curiosity in its way. The "Gazelles" were the handsomest women, the "Leopards" the finest men, of the season; the spots on the skin of one of the latter were composed entirely of diamonds. The favorite feature of a ball nowadays is the cotillion, which is always the concluding dance, and is sometimes kept up, under the inspiration of spirited, active, and ingenious leaders, for three or four hours. The latest and most popular novelty introduced into the cotillion is called "The Davenport Wardrobe;" an imitation of which famous piece of furniture, made very light, so as to be easily moved, being placed in the middle of the ball-room, and one of the gentlemen being shut up in it, the ladies put their hands, one after another, through the holes in the door, and the captive is kept prisoner until he has divined the owner of at least one of the hands. When he has performed this feat, another gentleman takes his place, and so on, until the divining power of the cavaliers present has been sufficiently tested, and a sufficient amount of laughter has been got out of the affair.

An old game, called *Le tournoi burlesque*, has lately been revived, and is an infallible mirth-provoker. The jousters in this novel style of tournament (always gentlemen) seat themselves on the ground, with their knees drawn up, their shins crossed, and their hands clasped round the latter. A stick, rather over a yard long, is then placed under the knees of each player, and tied firmly in place with a handkerchief, in such a way as that knees, stick, and hands are securely fastened together. At a given ignal the players, divided into two squads, dodge themselves about upon the floor, each endeavoring to upset the others by poking at them with his stick, and those who are upset, or only touched, are at once put out of the game; the ranks of the combatants are soon thinned, and the fight is presently narrowed to a duel between the two most skilful of the rival knights. It is difficult to imagine anything more ludicrous than the spectacle presented by twenty or thirty of these combat ants, all equally busied in laying about them with their sticks and in avoiding or parrying the thrusts of their adversaries; especially when, perhaps, half a dozen of the heaviest have had the ill-luck to lose their balance, and flounder into the most ridiculous attitudes, in their vain attempts to get themselves again into a sitting posture.

Paris has been making diligent use of the last days of its short carnival, and laying up a stock of satisfied mundane souvenirs for the enlivenment of Lent, which penitential period begins next Wednesday, and will be varied by small, cosy dinner-parties of the most luxurious description and "dancing teas," at which the traditional humiliation and breast-beating of the time will be duly recognized by the rigid tabooing of the word "ball" and the substitution of the piano for the violin. Some very *recherché* little dinners, worthy of Lent, have already been given, the fortunate purchasers of an immense and very fine tortoise, caught last week on the coast near Toulon, and forthwith sent up to Paris and divided among three or four of the leading gastronomic celebrities, having each given a prandial entertainment, worthy of Lucullus, to a few intimate friends, in honor of a windfall most unusual in this part of the world.

Soirées, with or without music, have also been numerous. At the one given by Princess de la Trémouille, the cards of invitation contained the significant word, "Thérésa," and not a soul of all those who received them missed the chance of hearing, in the princess's splendid saloons, the renowned *diva* of the smoky interior of the Alcazar. It is all very well for the devotees of high art and rigid propriety to declaim against the novel style of the popular songstress, and the occasional breadth of suggestive implication contained in her ditties; but it is impossible to deny that the woman is a wonderful artist in a line of her own creating, and that it would be difficult to imagine anything more perfect than her songs and her singing of them in her own peculiar way. At all events, she has taken so firm a hold on the liking of Paris that not even the most strait-laced duchesses would now think of sailing out of a drawing-room to testify against her presence; while Patti, in all the radiance of her starry glory, is one of Thérésa's most enthusiastic admirers, and claps her little white-gloved hands in ecstacy whenever she hears her, which she does as often as she can. Patti, by the way, had engaged to sing a few evenings since for the moderate sum of 5,000f. at the soirée given by the fabulously rich Jewish grandee, Mme. de Gunzberg, but subsequently declined to fulfil so trifling an engagement; whereupon Mme. de Gunzberg engaged that other wonderful warbler, Mme. Miolan-Carvalho, lessee of the Théâtre Lyrique, who accepted 2,400f., and sent the guests into raptures with her exquisite singing.

A couple of brilliant theatrical successes have marked the last week, one being the conversion into an opera of Lamartine's beautiful story, "Fior d'Aliza," by those skilful playwrights, Michel Carrée and Hippolyte Lucas, the music being furnished by Victor Massée; and the other a new play, "Héloïse Paranquet," the manuscript of which was deposited in the letter-box of the manager of the Gymnase theatre, accompanied by an anonymous letter, requesting that the piece, if approved, might be put at once upon the stage, and adding that the writer renounced beforehand all share in the profits of the play, being determined to remain *incog.* The new candidate for the honors of representation having been pronounced a *chef d'œuvre*, was at once put in hand, and has now been brought out in admirable style and with a strong cast, and most successfully, the enthusiasm of the public being wrought up to an unusual pitch, and the house, at the fall of the curtain, making frantic demands for the author. But these demonstrations only succeeded in bringing the manager to the footlights, and in drawing from that dignitary a solemn assurance that it was out of his power to accede to the demands of the audience, the author having intimated his fixed determination to remain unknown, whether his piece proved a failure or a success. The curiosity of the public is greatly excited as to the authorship of the new play, but the knowing ones have arrived pretty unanimously at the conviction that it can only have issued from the practised and fertile pen of the younger Dumas, and explain the mystery by supposing that the dramatist has taken this method of proving his authorship of "La Supplice d'une Femme," claimed, as your readers doubtless remember, by M. Emile de Girardin. The latter, in order to show to an incredulous public that at least he *could* have written that play, brought out "Les Deux Sœurs," a flat, tedious, and absurd affair, which effectually convinced the public that the man who could perpetrate such a lump of theatrical

lead could not, by any possibility, have written the brilliant play whose paternity had been so hotly contested by the rival claimants. It is surmised that Dumas, junior, in order to demonstrate more conclusively the truth of his claim, has taken this method of showing the superiority of his dramatic talent over that of the editor of *La Presse*. "You brought out your 'Deux Sœurs,'" the public imagines the author of "Héloïse Paranquet" to say to M. de Girardin, "with an immense flourish of trumpets and all the publicity of the Parisian press, and it fell heavily, irrecoverably. I send my play anonymously, to make its way solely by its own merits, unaided by the *prestige* of its author's name, and Paris, judging it solely on its merits, lauds it to the skies. It is easy, therefore, for the world to judge which of us two has the best right to lay claim to the authorship of the 'Supplice d'une Femme.'"

The Emperor, amidst his innumerable pre-occupations, has found time to read portions of the forthcoming volume of his "Life of Cæsar" to M. de Sacy; the new senator, it is said, expressing enthusiastic admiration of the passages thus made known to him.

Two eminent chemists have sent to the Academy of Sciences a learned memoir on "the transmutation of metals," which they state to be feasible, and on their method of transmuting several of the other metals into gold, a feat which they claim to have accomplished. The Abbé Caselli has given a lecture, illustrated by diagrams and experiments with his machine, in the amphitheatre of the School of Medicine, on the system of telegraphy which bears his name and which reproduces the exact writing or other design transmitted by the operator. The students were so much interested by the lucid explanations of the learned inventor, who spoke in French, that they cheered him vehemently at various stages of his demonstration, and passed a unanimous and enthusiastic vote of thanks at the close. And a society has been formed at Magdeburg with a view to ascertaining the truth of the solemn declaration contained in the testament of the late Dr. Julius Flschweiler, of that town, recently deceased there, at the age of 109, to the effect that his unusual length of life and the mental and physical vigor he enjoyed to the last are due simply to his having always slept with his head due north, and his feet, consequently, turned to the south, by which means the iron in the blood has been constantly magnetized by the currents of terrestrial magnetism, and the vital energies of the system constantly renewed.

It seems odd enough that, within a day's journey from this brilliant and luxurious city, there are wide districts so infested by wolves that the peasantry are in constant alarm for their flocks and even for their children. Government gives twenty francs for every male wolf, twenty-five for every female, and a smaller sum for each cub, and the skins and fur of the animals fetch a few francs more; thus wolf-hunting is regarded as a profitable employment, and *battues* are organized among the inhabitants of the villages for their destruction. These *battues* usually take place in May, when the lady-wolves are about to add to their families; and in December, when the savage crew, maddened by hunger, come down from the hills to prowl after food.

The head-ranger of the district having announced a wolf-hunt for a certain day, the whole country-side comes together, the landed proprietors, their servants, peasants, doctors, conscripts, and schoolmasters, who, armed with bludgeons, fire-arms, pitchforks, bells, brooms, and saucepans, sally forth at a given signal to the ravines most frequented by the wolves. The riflemen are then arranged in a semi-circle, with their backs to the wind, along the roads which border the woods in which the wolves are concealed. No one is allowed to fire in the rear; and, to prevent accidents, marks are made on the trees for their guidance during the confusion of the *battue*. Everything having been prepared in a dead silence, a signal is given, and the assembled peasants, with the aid of pots and kettles, stout lungs, and iron-shod staves, combine in the production of a general uproar. Owls waken from their slumbers, deer are startled from their covers, foxes and hares bound away panic-stricken. But none of these creatures are shot, every bullet being reserved for the wolves, which appear, at last, in a pack, rushing on like a wave, roaring as it goes; and as the yelling creatures cross the fatal path, every gun sends forth its murderous discharge, and thirty or forty wolves are often the result of the volley. After the *battue*, the peasants mount the heads of several wolves on a pole, and march through the villages, beating drums, singing the local hunting-songs, receiving presents of money, meal, grapes, and wine, and finishing the day with a feast and a dance.

The *battues* of December are differently managed, and the rich land-owners make them the occasions of much jollity. Previous to the meeting a number of carpenters repair to the woods, choose a suitable site, and erect thereon a large square hut of undressed logs, strongly placed together, and with intervals of about four inches between each. This hut is left untouched for several nights, that the animals may become accustomed to it; and a duck or two, a goose, or a sheep are tied up near it as a bait for the wolves. On the evening appointed for the *battue*, the huntsmen and a long line of servants start for the forest, taking with them four calves, a cask of cold meats, a hamper of wine, and a horse-load of pale cognac. Ensconced within their wooden fortress they eat, drink, and smoke; but not the least noise is permitted, not a laugh, or a cough, or a whisper, or even a sneeze. When night fairly sets in and the wolves begin to sniff the air, the calves are led out and each—must it be said?—receives an incision in the neck which sets it bleeding and bleating, and thus unconsciously appealing to two of the keen senses of their enemies. Nine, ten, half-past; the dead silence of the forest is broken only by the screech of an owl, or the crash of a branch snapped off by the wind. Suddenly the calves break out into a fresh fit of bleating; they bellow and groan and tug at the ropes, trying to escape. Every cigar is put out, and the sportsmen pick up their rifles and place their muzzles in the gaps between the logs of the hut. Black spots are seen upon the snow; the wolves are scenting the calves, and, imagining them to have come astray, attempt to carry them off. Four or five of the leaders rush forward and plunge their ravenous jaws into the flesh of the poor animals; their numbers increase every moment, and, just as this hideous banquet is at its height, the sportsmen open their fire; the wolves fall or fly, but return again, and are received with another volley. Other wolves, attracted by the smell of their bleeding comrades, press to the scene and are met by showers of fire and death. This slaughter of malefactors continues for several hours, when the few surviving wolves slink back to their dens, and the sportsmen, leaving their hut, make a huge fire on the ground, round which they sit and eat and crack jokes until the morning, when the peasantry assemble, gather the dead wolves together, and march in triumph through the villages, adding the gifts of the villagers to the rewards given by the Government and making a handsome sum out of the affair.

Preparations for the great exhibition of next year are going on with the utmost activity. The Champs de Mars is boarded in to prevent the irruptions of an inquisitive public. Within the magic circle an army of laborers are at work, and ere long the rising walls of the future edifice will be visible from the high ground of the Trocaders, which is itself being pared, levelled, built on, and beautified as only the determined genius of a Haussman could have decided. The Emperor is determined that the world shall wonder at the splendor of Paris, and he is hardly likely to fail in carrying out this determination.

STELLA.

Correspondence.

WEST POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I have read with satisfaction the comments on the Military Academy which have appeared in your paper, and, as the subject is of great importance, I venture to make further criticisms on the system of discipline.

You have pointed out the absurdity of appointing cadets per Congressional districts; the impropriety of investing members of Congress with this patronage as anti-republican, generally used injudiciously, often corruptly. You urge the necessity of raising the standard of qualifications for admission, and of dismissing pupils pronounced by the faculty unwilling or incompetent to follow the course; so that the country shall maintain an academy wherein the art and science of war shall be studied, and not the rudiments of a general education; and support and tuition expended only on those able and willing to receive it and to render a fit return. When these improvements take place the $3,500 which each graduate now costs the country will be reduced to about half that sum, and this paid for a more complete military education than can be given to the present unprepared pupils.

There is another objectionable feature in the West Point system which impairs its usefulness and its popularity. The monastic seclusion of the cadet detaches him from society, destroys his sympathy with his fellow-citizens, whom he calls civilians and regards as strangers and inferiors. This would be all very well in a monarchy, where wisdom and patriotism are required only of the one who rules, and passive obedience is the virtue of all the rest, who are but puppets in the hands of the showman. But as the success of our government depends upon the intelligent interest of every citizen, any system of education which, instead of cultivating that intelligence and stimulating that interest, tends to incapacitate or disincline young men from taking a part in the affairs of their town, their state, or their country, is anti-republican and disintegrating. This enforced segregation tends also to cramp and warp the mind, withdrawing young men from the world just when their observing faculties are most keen and their un-

burthened memories most retentive. Nor does this unnatural seclusion from the innocent gaieties of youth, from the healthy influences of women's society, affect the morals more favorably than the mind. These young monastics are likely to become either morbid ascetics or to substitute the gratification of the appetites for the enjoyment of the affections from which they are cut off.

Such, it seems to me, must be the consequences from this conventual system, and, as far as I have had an opportunity to observe, such they are.

There are many intelligent and enlightened men who received their education at West Point, but as a general rule the army men are neither so well informed nor so liberal-minded as men of other professions, graduates from our colleges. There are many officers temperate in their speech and in their habits, but they have a tendency (a tendency, I say) to become either saints or satyrs.

Whoever looks over the list of graduates will be surprised to see the number of Catholic priests, Puseyite and other clergymen, bred at this school for soldiers; and whoever has associated much with officers or has heard the history of our battles for the four last years will testify that there are too many who are not temperate in all things, and whose conversation is not simply yea, yea! nay, nay! And if this war has proved the absolute necessity of a national academy where military art and science can be learned, it has also shown that common sense and tact and sympathy with their fellow-citizens with whom or over whom they are placed are essential qualities in an officer, which can only be acquired by mingling more with them in their early and plastic years.

The biographies of many of our volunteer officers, the history of many of our regiments, demonstrate the fact that a soldierly character may be impressed and rigid discipline enforced upon a command by men whose minds and hearts have not been starved and wasted by four years' exile from the world.

L.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

CALIFORNIA has wisely kept pace with the older States in investigating and publishing the results of scientific explorations intended to develop her physical structure. The second volume of the "Geological Survey" of the State is just commenced. Its subject will be the "Palæontology of California." The portion now issued contains the first instalment of the description of the tertiary invertebrate fossils, by W. M. Gurr, to be illustrated by thirteen plates. The technical execution of the work compares favorably with any of the other State surveys, not excepting Prof. Rogers's splendid volumes on the geological survey of Pennsylvania, which were executed at Edinburgh by A. Keith Johnston, and other eminent artists.

—Mr. Wm. Gilmore Simms has announced his purpose of editing a collection of the "Poetry of the South during the late War." He requests copies "of all such pieces as relate to the war, or any of its incidents" from their authors, and desires that the copies sent should be dated, the name of the newspaper or periodical where they originally appeared being also given. Communications should be addressed to Wm. G. Simms, at the office of the *South Carolinian*, Charleston, S. C. If any one can dig out gems from the poetic mine it is one who, like Mr. Simms, possesses an ardent temperament in strong sympathy with the cause of his insurgent fellow-statesmen. Hitherto the specimens that have reached us of poetical inspiration from that quarter do little credit to the superior culture so persistently claimed for the region; grammar and rhyme have as often been wanting as reason in the best known specimens.

—It is difficult to keep up with the great amount of scientific matter relating to anthropology and the questions connected with the material history of man now publishing in separate works or journals in Europe, and equally so to arrive at definite conclusions in which men who are considered as authorities are willing to unite. Prof. Huxley, one of the cleverest and best known of writers and lecturers on the subject, is one of the most contentious, and is conspicuous above his fellows for violent denunciation of contemporary opinions. His last work is on the human remains found in ancient burial mounds in the county of Caithness, in the north of Scotland. He seeks the nearest analogies for these remains in the bones of the aboriginal Australians, and, recording from scattered data the early inhabitants of Britain, gives anything but a flattering picture of them. His description of a female is summed up: "Putting all the elements of the picture together, No. 1, with her long shins and heels, narrow hips, relatively broad shoulders, retreating forehead, and projecting jaws, can hardly have been either a graceful or a comely personage." Prof. Huxley's memoir appears in a volume by Mr. Samuel Laing, M.P., the well-known statistician and economist, on "Prehistoric Remains of Caithness." Other important contributions to the science of man are promised by Mr. Greenwell in his "Decade of Skulls from Ancient Northumbria," devoted to the illustration of funeral interments usually known as British, with detailed views and accounts of the circumstance of each discovery; and by Dr. J. Barnard Davis in a more general and important work, "Thesaurus Craniorum: Catalogue of Skulls of the Various Races of Man." The materials of the work are derived from the author's own collection, the result of many years' research and labor, comprising between fourteen and fifteen hundred skulls. It will form an octavo volume of three hundred pages, with wood-cuts. It is remarkable that, in America, where this science first sprung into being, from the labors of the late Dr. Morton, of Philadelphia, little has been done of late in its prosecution, and no successor has been found to carry on the enquiries and line of research opened by the "Crania Americana" and "Crania Egyptiaca" of Dr. Morton, which are now among the rarest and most valuable works ever issued in America, whose appearance raised the scientific character of the United States in every learned society abroad.

—Messrs. Bunce & Huntington, the new and enterprising firm, who seem to appreciate more than most of our publishers the advantages of combining artistic taste and execution with literature, announce an embellished book on a subject that every New Yorker should take a paternal interest in, "The Central Park," illustrated by A. F. Bellows, of the National Academy. It will contain a full history and description of the Park, with delineations, literary and graphic, of its picturesque and notable features. Though elegantly executed, it is not intended to be an expensive work; but rather to be of service to the million, by making them familiar with scenes and beauties not always appreciated as they deserve from their very accessibility and freedom to all.

—The "Critical History of Christian Literature and Doctrine, from the Death of the Apostles to the Nicene Council, by James Donaldson," of which Vols. II. and III. are just published by Messrs. Macmillan, is a book that may almost be said to inaugurate a new era of theological criticism in England. The author's name is new to the literary world; no clue is given by the work itself to his ecclesiastical "stand-point," though every step of his progress leads him through a land studded with doctrinal pitfalls for the unwary. With no exceptions the early remains of Christian literature have been studied in England only for purposes of attack and defence. They have been examined by the light of preconceived opinions, and such testimony as they afford has been strained and warped as best suited the objects of contending parties. Mr. Donaldson's point of view has been different. After a full literary history of each work, its edition, etc., and a biography of its author, he digests in a purely objective manner the passages it affords that bear upon all the great leading questions of doctrine and polity, respecting which each writer is an undeniable witness of the opinions prevailing in his own day. One of the many interesting results of the process, when faithfully performed, is the proof it yields of the gradual evolution of what passes for the body of orthodox Christian doctrine from the original simplicity of idea that predominates in the apostolic fathers of the first century to the complex metaphysical theories of the Athanasian and Augustinian schools. The first volume of this work is devoted to "The Apostolic Fathers," the second and third to "The Christian Apologists," and others yet remain to be issued. It is an augury for the good success of Messrs. Clark's projected "Library of the Early Fathers" that Mr. Donaldson is named as one of the editors of the series.

—The new edition of the great "Dictionnaire Universel des Contemporains," by G. Vapereau, is an unanswerable argument against all who would reproach the present age with a scarcity of "great," or at least of "notable," men. The ample pages, nearly two thousand in number, must certainly contain ten to twelve thousand biographies, all of persons whose claim to be found there arises from the possession of a certain European celebrity, though to merely Anglican ears by far the larger number will sound strangely. English notabilities come in for their share of attention, though in this department allowance must be made for the inevitable blunders that are found in any Continental treatment of British names, titles, etc. The whole work, however, in its colossal dimensions, is a favorable specimen of the executive skill brought to bear by French littérateurs on compilations of the kind, a skill which has rightfully made them the source of the reference books of the world. One difficulty common to books of this class has been avoided by M. Vapereau, the fact that a name is left out of living biographies as soon as the person dies, though it is very often not until the consecration of death that any general interest is felt about him. In the "Dictionnaire des Contempo

rains" no name is excluded of persons who were living on January 1, 1860, though they may have since deceased; only the article given to them is abbreviated. By comparison with the two previous editions the growing importance of the American rebellion as a subject for the "world's debate" may be ascertained. In the first one Abraham Lincoln was ignored; in the present one all the generals distinguished in the contest are given. Messrs. Stachelto & Co., of Paris and London, a firm renowned for their spirit and enterprise, are the publishers of the work.

—The completion of Mr. Howard Staunton's photo-zincographic facsimile of the famous "first folio" Shakespeare places that much coveted volume within the reach of all who can afford eight guineas for the critical luxury. All its typographical imperfections, whims, and oddities that have so exercised the ingenuity of commentators, are, of course, reproduced in it with lineal accuracy, and probably a new crop of emendations—conjectural and otherwise—will follow, from the increased accessibility of the volume to the popular curiosity. For convenience in reading, the fac-simile edition in a reduced size, printed from type in the ordinary way, by L. Booth, forming a small quarto, may be preferred; but although its accuracy is generally acknowledged, it wants the positive claim to authority that the actual identity of the photographic copy with the original confers on it. The indefatigable Mr. Halliwell, whose colossal edition of Shakespeare is nearing its completion, seems unwilling to abandon the subject, and already announces the commencement of another enterprise of nearly equal bulk. It will be apparently a miscellaneous collection of matter illustrating in its widest sense, by literary and pictorial details, the life, writings, and times of the dramatist, including reprints of rare tracts, etc. It will be published only for subscribers, and is got up in folio to range with Halliwell's folio Shakespeare.

—"The Fine Arts Quarterly Review," a periodical whose expensive and elegant appearance seemed suggestive of a short life only, and which, in fact, deceased, to the regret of connoisseurs, after two years' experience, when published by Messrs. Chapman & Hall, will be resuscitated in the spring, under the editorship of Mr. B. B. Woodward, librarian to the Queen. The publishers will be Messrs. Day & Son, whose name is a guaranty for the artistic excellence of the embellishments. Among the previous writers who will still contribute to its pages are Messrs. Rossetti, Hamerton, Palgrave, and other well-known names in art. The elaborate critical account of Gustave Doré and his works (with specimens), by Mr. Hamerton (author of a "Painter's Camp in the Highlands," etc.), given in the two last numbers of the "Fine Arts Quarterly," has caused a great demand for them, and has probably been of influence in the revival of the work. The literature of the fine arts will also be enriched by a new edition of the great work of Nayler, "Künster Lexicon." The author has lately died, but had completed the revision of his work preparatory for the press a short time previously. As a vast magazine of information, where light is often thrown on the arts and artists of countries, when nothing about them can be found in their own special books, its reputation is universal.

—It is a fact scarcely conceivable amidst our plethora of daily supplies of paper and print that in the whole of Great Britain and Ireland there are only seventy-eight daily papers issued for the supply of some thirty millions of readers. This small number, too, is claimed as a great advance on the numbers ten years ago, under the old stamp law, when, in 1856, only thirty-two daily papers were in existence. The list now is divided thus: of dailies fifty-two are published in England, one in Wales, twelve in Scotland, twelve in Ireland, and one in the Channel Islands. The total number of newspapers for the United Kingdom of every kind is twelve hundred and fifty-seven. Of magazines the number and variety is comparatively much larger, as, including the quarterly reviews, they amount to two hundred and thirty-seven; of these one hundred and ninety-six are of decidedly religious character, representing the views of almost every shade of denominational peculiarity.

—One of the men who have recently passed away, scarcely in the enjoyment of the renown merited by his acquirements and discoveries, is Sir William Rowan Hamilton, professor of astronomy in the University of Dublin, and Astronomer Royal of England. This injustice of his contemporaries is attempted to be remedied by an "Eloge" which (following the French fashion) was recently delivered before the Royal Irish Academy by its president, Dean Graves, and is valuable as containing the first detailed account of the scientific and personal career of its subject. Hamilton was born in 1805. Such was his precocity that while an under-graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, at the age of twenty-one, he was appointed to the chair of astronomy vacated by Dr. Brinckley. In 1834 he received the royal medal the Royal Society for his discovery of conical refraction; and, in the year next succeeding, his paper on mathematical and astronomical science gained him the applause of the first authorities of Europe. His last great invention, the discovery of "the calculus of quaternions," occupied twenty-two years in its elaboration. In early life he was devoted to poetry and literature. He learned modern languages almost by intuition. He anticipated by his own reflections some of the principal doctrines of Kant. He was remarkable for his proficiency in Greek, and twice gained vice-chancellor's prizes for English poetry. Like Descartes, Hamilton ranked metaphysics above mathematics in the hierarchy of science, and maintained that its highest province and the region of poetry lay in the same latitude. His views as to the connection (on which he strongly insisted) between the highest achievement of the modern analysis dealing with the infinitudes and imaginaries of space, and the shaping spirit of imagination which constitutes the soul of poetry, were communicated to Wordsworth. To the poet they were an entirely new revelation, and had the effect of raising his conception of the dignity of science and of its votaries. Sir W. R. Hamilton's manuscripts, in sixty volumes, many of them very large, are deposited in the library of Trinity College. A new edition of his "Calculus of Quaternions" is just published by Messrs. Longmans.

A PLEA FOR THE QUEEN'S ENGLISH.*

Dean Alford's book has enjoyed great and deserved success in England. The second edition, which lies before us, was issued, as we learn by the preface, in October, 1864, and in this date is to be found the only excuse, if it can be called an excuse, for the following passage. The author is speaking of the reflex action of language on national character, and through national character on national history:

"Look," he says, "to take one familiar example, at the process of deterioration which the Queen's English has undergone at the hands of the Americans. Look at those phrases which so amuse us in their speeches and books; at their reckless exaggeration and contempt for congruity; and then compare the character and history of the nation, its blunted sense of moral obligation and duty to man, its open disregard of conventional right where aggrandizement is to be obtained, and, I may now say, its reckless and fruitless maintenance of the most cruel and unprincipled war in the history of the world. Such examples as this (and they are as many as the number of the nations and their tongues) may serve to show that language is no trifle."

We do not care to comment on the bad taste of offering a gratuitous insult to a whole people, by holding them up as an example of depravity in a book on "speaking and spelling." The passage is chiefly valuable as an illustration of the condition in which the excessive word-culture of the English universities is apt to leave the reasoning faculty, even in such very able and excellent men as the Dean of Canterbury. He is throughout the volume before us very hard on the newspapers, and particularly the cheap and provincial papers, for their loose thinking and bad English; and yet we doubt very much whether either the *Morning Star* or the *Daily Telegraph* has ever furnished a better specimen of "reckless exaggeration" and contempt for facts than is to be found in the passage cited above. The true newspaper spirit—confidence in talking about things not well understood and haste in rushing to conclusions—runs through every line of it. As a matter of fact, a very large number of the phrases which "amuse" Englishmen in American speeches and books are old English, which have become obsolete in old England, as has been shown over and over again, certainly often enough for Dr. Alford to take some notice of it. Most of the solecisms and improprieties which deface our literature and parliamentary oratory are undoubtedly due, first, to the presence, and unavoidable presence, in Congress and the State legislatures of men of very imperfect education in the English sense of the word. In a new country most of the work of politics must be done by such men; but if we contrast American legislation with that of older countries, a subject to which Dr. Alford has probably not thought it worth his while to give much attention, we shall be driven to the conclusion that a correct knowledge of "the Queen's English" is not always the best preparation for the work of government. It is strange but true that, in spite of the "exaggeration and contempt for congruity" of our orators, there has not been a single reform made in the English law during the last fifty years which had not been previously adopted in America, if we except the admission of parties to suits to testify in their own behalf.

In the second place, there is a very much larger number of persons gifted with fluency in writing, and with the means of getting their compositions printed, here than in England. Consequently, we produce a relatively large number of books in which the authors' defects of education are only too

* "A Plea for the Queen's English: Stray Notes on Speaking and Spelling. By Henry Alford, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. Second edition." Alexander Strahan, London and New York. 1865.

faithfully reflected. Moreover, we have always had what the English have only had within a few years—a cheap newspaper press; and a cheap newspaper press will and must always reproduce in its columns the inaccuracies of speech and thought common amongst the majority of its readers. The cheap newspaper press of England, in spite of the influence upon it of aristocratic exemplars, is not one whit better in style or in tone than our own, and bids fair to become worse as the lowest and most ignorant class of English society—a class to which we have nothing to correspond—rises in political importance. Our newspaper press is, on the other hand, unquestionably improving, both in language, taste, and temper. The language of a people is not, however, to be judged from its most widely circulated periodicals, but from the best efforts of its best writers. Dr. Alford would be very unwilling, we have no doubt, to have English speech, to say nothing of English character, judged by either the English or the arguments of the cheap newspapers; and we must deny his right to apply this rule to us. If our national character is to be tested by our style, it must be by the style of our best authors. Of these, we say it with all deference, we have produced two at least in Dr. Alford's own lifetime—Washington Irving and Hawthorne—whose English for simplicity, manliness, purity, and elegance is at least equal to Dr. Alford's own. There is, too, a living American scholar, Mr. Marsh, whose knowledge of the history and structure of the English tongue is certainly not surpassed in England, and whose contributions to English philology are, we believe, even more widely known and more highly prized in England than here. We might extend the list further, but we trust we have said enough to show the absurdity of which Dr. Alford has been guilty, in inferring deterioration in our national character from the fact that certain phrases in our speeches and books "amuse" him and his friends. All changes in a language are, and must be, on Dr. Alford's theory, deterioration, and yet languages are constantly changing; and what is more to the purpose, the uneducated classes have in all countries far more to do with the changes than the learned have. Englishmen neither speak nor write the language of Shakespeare; but the England of to-day is certainly a better England than it was in the sixteenth century. What would Cicero or Quintilian have said to the Italian of Dante or Boccaccio, or the French of Racine or Voltaire? In fact, most of the languages of modern Europe are made up of corruptions, and will continue to be corrupted, in Dr. Alford's sense, from age to age; but is this a sign that the world is going backward? Is, in short, the attempt to judge of the condition of a people's morals by the extent to which they depart from an arbitrary standard of correctness in speech, not one of those fantastic theories which rhetoricians are constantly framing, in which facts are completely overlooked for the sake of tickling popular audiences and gratifying national vanity, and on which volumes of cheap philosophy are built up by such writers as Mr. Tupper, the "Country Parson," and our own irrepressible "Timothy Titcomb?" We are sorry to find the Dean of Canterbury serving out the same kind of wisdom.

To say anything worth listening to about the relation between our literature and our life, a writer would require some knowledge of American society, its history, antecedents, mental and moral characteristics, and its relation to external circumstances; but of this Dr. Alford is apparently quite innocent. We, for our part, believe that what people read is a far better index of their mental and moral condition than what their fools and blatterers are pleased to write, and we have no hesitation in saying that if Dr. Alford will devote a little of his time to ascertaining the comparative circulation in this country and in England of the great works of English literature, both of past and present times, he will find that every book which he considers a model of style is read by three times as many people here as there. And we hold it to be "his duty to man," to use his own phrase, to sit down and study this whole subject carefully, which he evidently has never done, before he brings out another edition of his book.

It is almost cruel to comment now upon his opinion about the late war. Still, we cannot help calling attention to the fact that the logician who ascribes our "open disregard of conventional right where aggrandizement is to be obtained" to the badness of our English, is an Englishman writing under the rule of a sovereign who reigns over 100,000,000 of people thereabouts, of whom not quite thirty millions are her subjects from choice, the remaining seventy millions having been incorporated in her empire by a series of conquests ranging over the whole period of the national history, and marked throughout by violations of conventional right which somehow or other have procured for England amongst all foreign nations (the unprincipled rascals!) the reputation of being the most unscrupulous and most selfish of powers. And be it remembered, too, that he is writing of a country which did not, when he wrote in 1864, own one foot of conquered territory, except the wilderness wrested from Mexico in 1847, which was immediately peopled, civilized, and endowed with liberty such as in Canterbury would seem license.

Dr. Alford's opinions as to the "fruitlessness" of our "cruel and unprincipled war" have been proved by events to be hasty and incorrect. They now need no refutation; but it is impossible to speak too severely of the "newspaper style" in which he seems to have formed and uttered them. To form even a tolerable opinion before the close of a war as to whether it is likely to prove fruitless or not, requires a very careful investigation, on the spot, of the resources, temper, character, military and political organization, and natural advantages of the belligerents, by a man familiar with military affairs. Of those of the American belligerents, Dr. Alford, like most Englishmen of his class and profession, knew little or nothing. His sole source of information about what was going on in America in 1864 was probably the veracious epistles of Dr. Charles Mackay, which were for this purpose about as valuable reading as Percy's "Reliques." Whether the war was "unprincipled" or not, required a very careful study of points in American history and American constitutional law which have for eighty years puzzled the wisest heads on this continent, but of which we dare say Dr. Alford has never heard; yet he does not hesitate to make up his mind about it and settle it in two lines, pronouncing it, with the most "reckless exaggeration," "the most cruel and unprincipled war in the history of the world." Dr. Alford has probably heard of the wars of Tamerlane and of Gengis Khan. If the reporter of the *Morning Star* wrote such stuff as this, would he not rap the poor fellow over the knuckles with terrible contempt?

We have left ourselves little space to speak of the book itself. We can only speak of it in terms of the highest praise. It does not go deep or go far. It is simply an attempt, by a man used to good society and who has studied the best English authors, to correct the vulgarisms, provincialisms, solecisms, and inaccuracies of all sorts current in the speech of everyday life, and to solve the doubts which even cultivated people constantly feel with regard to numerous expressions in very common use. A work of this kind is even more needed here than in England, as amongst us correct speaking is not, as there, a mark of a certain social position, and there is consequently less incentive to strive after it, even amongst people of education.

WALES, RELIGIOUSLY CONSIDERED.*

Like most Welsh authors, the writer of this volume has "reverend" prefixed to his name. The sermons are good of their kind; but we value the book mainly for its essays, which embody much valuable information as to the past and present religious condition of the Welsh people. The one on the "Welsh Pulpit" is devoted to a critical examination of the peculiarities of the Welsh pulpit as contra distinguished from those of other nations, especially the English. His remarks on this subject are, in the main, just and discriminating, though we are surprised to find him speaking so approvingly of what the Welsh people call "dawn," or the habit of singing or chanting the sermon. Of course, he condemns those who carry it into extremes; but the habit is intrinsically bad, and to be reprobated under all circumstances.

The essay on the "Social Religion of Wales" is a synopsis of facts illustrating the religious condition of the principality for the last two hundred years.

Wales is comparatively but a small piece of land, on the western border of England, with an area of less than 8,000 square miles. Including Monmouthshire (which politically belongs to England), it contained at the last census 1,286,266 inhabitants. It is a mountainous country, but has a few beautiful valleys, such as Clwyd, Lowry, Wysg, and others; but generally it is hilly and rugged. And this has had a marked influence on the character of its people. It has helped to develop a taste for the muse, in which the Welsh take such delight; and the study of theology, of which they are such zealous advocates. A fondness for the strong and sublime is one of their characteristics; so marked, indeed, is this tendency, that strong words are too often made to supply the want of strong thoughts. The influence of this natural scenery is observed in the seriousness and sobriety of the nation.

In treating of the "Social Religion of Wales" our author only refers to the Dissenting denominations. The Established Church has so little hold upon the masses of the people that it is proper to style the Welsh a nation of Nonconformists, and whatever of personal piety or Christian benevolence exists in the Established Church in the principality is an infusion of the Dissenting spirit, and an emanation from it.

It has been found very difficult to obtain correct statistical informatio

* "Essays and Sermons; together with an Account of his Visit to America. John Thomas, Liverpool." Utica, N. Y., 1865. [Welsh.]

of the different religious denominations, but the following table is believed to be as nearly accurate as it is possible to make it:

Denominations.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.	Hearers.	Sunday-school scholars.
Independents	802	405	94,952	102,400	86,483
Calv. Methodists	908	288	94,996	165,400	134,157
Baptists	508	322	58,292	54,000	49,453
Wesleyans	*510	118	24,960	22,000	20,000
Primitive Methodists	100	—	—	10,000	—
Wesleyan Reformers	45	—	—	2,250	2,000
Unitarians	30	20	—	5,000	—
Quakers	7	—	—	—	—
Total	2,910	1,152	273,200	361,050	292,093

*Including rooms where there is occasional preaching.

From the above it will be seen that one-fourth of the population is immediately connected with the Dissenting denominations.

In the north the Calvinistic Methodists have a large preponderance of numbers. They have taken a strong hold upon the whole country; but in Anglesey and Carnarvon they may be said to reign. They are more numerous there than all the other denominations put together. The only portion of the south where they are strongest is Cardiganshire. In the south generally the Independents have the numerical superiority, but their main strength lies in Glamorganshire and Carmarthenshire. In Pembrokeshire and Monmouthshire the Baptists are strongest. Throughout the south they are very influential, but in the north their churches are generally weak. The Wesleyans are rather numerous in some portions of the north, and in Denbighshire and Flintshire are stronger than the Calvinistic Methodists. In one portion of Cardiganshire there are quite a number of Unitarians, and they have a few churches in other parts of the south, but in the north they have not a single congregation and but few persons hold their peculiar opinions. In tracing the history of the "Social Religion of Wales," it may properly be divided into three periods—the Puritan, Reformatory, and Literary.

The beginning of the Puritan period may be dated from 1639, when the first Dissenting church was formed in Slanfaches by Rev. W. Wroth. Walter Cradoc, William Erbury, and W. Worth were cast out of the Established Church for refusing to read the "Book of Sports." Wroth gave himself to serve the church at Slanfaches; Erbury formed a church in Cardiff; but Cradoc turned out into the "highways and by-ways," preaching the "unsearchable riches of Christ" through all parts of Wales. He found diligent and faithful co-laborers in Vavassor Powell, Morgan Lloyd, Morgan Howell, and others. During the time of the Commonwealth, Dissent made considerable progress, so that there were at least twenty-two Dissenting congregations in existence at the Restoration; and when the Uniformity Act was passed, in the time of Charles II., there were found 106 ministers of the Established Church in Wales who refused submission to that odious enactment. By 1736 the number of churches had increased to 130. This appears, it is true, but slow growth, considering how thoroughly religious the country is at the present day. From statistics collected by Dr. John Evans, about the year 1715, it appears that the Dissenters at that time numbered at least 30,000 church members.

At this period the ministers were generally educated men, and pulpit qualifications were held higher than at any period since. Great attention was paid to the *doctrines* of the Bible, and the people diligently instructed in the principles of the true faith. The following extract from Mr. Thomas, descriptive of a religious meeting during the Puritan period, strongly reminds us of those of the New England forefathers:

"Will the reader come with us to a Welsh congregation one hundred and eighty years ago? Let us start. It is a pleasant Sabbath morning in the beginning of May, and there are many going up into the house of the Lord. The hillside above the meeting-house is dotted with people afoot, coming along the by-paths, to worship; while on the rough, narrow road below may be seen others coming on horseback. The old church stands upon a rock overlooking a rippling stream, in a shadowy forest. It is a secluded spot, far from the noise and bustle of the world; and we can easily conjecture that the place had been selected in a time of persecution. The old church is a long, narrow, and dingy-looking building. Inside we find the altar and two large square seats on each side, evidently intended for some of the worshippers, a little better than the rest in the things of this world, while the middle is filled with benches having backs to them. There is a gallery at one end, with stone steps on the outside leading to it. The place is filled with devout, serious-looking people. Around the pulpit are a number of old persons having a very stately appearance. The cut of their garments and the length of their hair remind us of the old Jewish rabbis, but they are not bearded like them. There is the minister ascending the pulpit. He is a plain-looking man, but his earnest, impressive look makes us feel that we are in a holy place. We observe there more of seriousness than of warmth—more of devotion than of feeling; the meeting has more of the appearance of a teacher coming to instruct his class than a messenger of peace come to preach the Gospel of everlasting life to lost sinners. The service commences at half-past nine, with what is called the 'short prayer'—ten to fifteen minutes in length. Then one of the psalms of Rev. Edmund Pryse is given out to sing; for Williams, Pantycelyn, is yet unborn; they sing the whole psalm, doubling the last two lines of the last stanza. Then a long chapter is read in a slow and impressive manner, followed by the 'long prayer' of twenty-five or thirty minutes. Then a psalm as before. The minister reads his text; the subject to-day is the 'Sonship of Christ.' The sermon is a good composition, evidently prepared with great care; but somehow the speaker talks more about the doctrine than to the people, and he seldom makes an application of the truth to the famishing souls before him. The delivery is slow but distinct, and in the same tone from beginning to end. The sermon lasts an hour and a half, and though the congregation exhibited no signs of emotion during the delivery, they show no signs of weariness at its close. After singing another psalm and a prayer of ordinary length the services are closed, and the people return to their homes, having had enough until another Sabbath. This is an imperfect picture of the social religion of that period. We would not judge it too severely, and though we regret the lack of feeling in the services, still we admire the attentive and devout manner in which the people listen, and the attempt of the preacher to teach and enlighten his congregation, rather than to please and amuse them."

In tracing the agencies at work in the religious regeneration of Wales at this period, we notice a most inexcusable historical omission on the part of Mr. Thomas. The Quakers are entirely overlooked, though they were a very influential religious body at that time, especially in the north. They were certainly quite numerous in the shires of Montgomery and Merioneth at the north, and in Radnorshire at the south, generally composed of men of the middle and higher classes of society, whose simple manners and devout piety was a most powerful agency in laying the foundation of the solid religious superstructure now existing in that part of the country. Large numbers of these people emigrated to Pennsylvania from 1682 to 1730, and settled on what is known as the "Welsh Tract," in Chester County, under an agreement with William Penn that they were to be allowed to conduct their own affairs in their own language and on their own method, subject, of course, to the general laws of the province, as will be seen by an examination of the archives of Pennsylvania. That they formed a considerable part of the early settlers is fully attested by the annals of the colony, and by the fact that about 1720 a Welsh book, by Ellis Pugh, a distinguished preacher among the Friends, was printed at Philadelphia, and soon after translated and published in English. In 1730 there was printed at the same place a large folio "Concordance of the Scriptures," in the Welsh language, by Rev. Abel Morgan, who emigrated from Radnorshire, and was pastor of a church in Pennypack. Of the first of these books we know of but one original copy, which may be found in one of the Philadelphia libraries; but it was subsequently reprinted in Wales, together with a sketch of the author's life. Of the "Concordance" there are several copies now in the country—one in the possession of Rev. B. W. Chidlaw, of Ohio, the eminent Sunday-school missionary. Ellis Pugh, after his arrival here, was sent back to Wales as a missionary by the Friends in Pennsylvania; but he returned in a few years, and died soon after in one of the Welsh settlements near Philadelphia. Among the Welshmen who assisted Penn in building up his province we may mention Thomas Lloyd, the first lieutenant-governor; David Lloyd, the first attorney-general; Dr. Thomas Wynne, speaker of the assembly; and Rowland Ellis, a prominent preacher and influential man among the Friends.

But to return from our digression. Our author next treats of the Reformatory or Methodist period, the time when the fathers of Calvinistic Methodism gave such a powerful impetus to religious advancement throughout the principality. This period was peculiarly distinguished for religious *fervor*. The subject of religion was presented to the people in a new light; it was made to possess a livelier interest for, and take a stronger hold upon, the public mind. We quote a paragraph in relation to the ministry of this period:

"They spoke from the heart to the heart. . . . Their words fell like molten lead upon the hearts of their hearers and convinced all that heard them that they were in earnest with their mission. Their ministry was eminent in its practical tendency; every truth was brought home to the conscience; and they gave special prominence to the fundamental doctrines of the Gospel. Human corruption, the vicarious sacrifice of our Saviour, justification by faith, and the influence of the Holy Spirit, were the burthen of their message. These were the living principles of their ministry."

One of the natural developments of the lively religious interest of this period was a sense of the personal duty of individual Christians to preach, and not depend altogether on those filling the ministry. Consequently we find that quite a large number of men, noted for their piety and zeal, were put forward as exhorters; and, although they were mostly unlettered men, they made up in zeal what they lacked in education, and were instrumental in doing much good.

As time advanced and society became more settled, the more thoughtful began to feel the need of something that would be as it were a combination of the devout stateliness of the Puritan and the fiery zeal of the Methodist; something that would act upon the intellect as well as the sensibilities, and improve the understanding as well as elevate the affections. It was this desire that led to what Mr. Thomas somewhat inaptly calls the "literary period." The planting of Sunday-schools and the creation of a religious literature were its natural developments. The business of publishing received a new impulse, and commentaries, dictionaries, sermons, etc., made their appearance in large numbers. Soon various denominations began to publish magazines to advocate their claims and expound and defend their peculiar tenets. This is one reason why Welsh literature is so entirely religious in its character. The Bible is the national text-book, and theology the almost universal topic of discussion, not only among church members but among the people generally. This subjection of the popular mind to theological influences, a good thing abstractly considered, has operated injuriously on the intellect of the country by confining it too much to one channel. Few men have risen to eminence in Wales who were not somehow connected with the Christian ministry. The country, it is true, has produced men celebrated as poets and authors, but they have mostly been ministers or preachers. No popular movement was likely to succeed unless it was led by some minister of standing and reputation; and therefore men of genius and talent have generally turned their eyes to this profession as the natural one in which their abilities were to develop themselves.

Even the popular desire for amusements has taken a religious direction. We believe there is not a single theatre in the principality; but the "Sassiwn," the "Gymanfa," and Thanksgiving Day are popular institutions, and will draw together more people than anything else, not excepting the annual "Eisteddfod," or Literary Festival. This has been carried to extremes, so that the multiplicity of religious meetings may be regarded as a serious defect in the social religion of the country. It has other drawbacks that mar its symmetrical beauty; but they are as spots on the face of the sun, so that it may truly be said that the "Social Religion of Wales" is its crown of glory.

A SOUTHERN ABDIEL.*

It is worth while to learn something concerning a man who, twice in his lifetime, was obliged to ask himself whether he or the community about him was insane, and appears in truth alone to have preserved his wits. The subject of this biography wrote, in 1830, to a friend who belonged to the party of nullification in South Carolina:

"I am devilishly puzzled to know whether my friends are mad or I beside myself. Let us hope we shall make some discovery before long which will throw light on the subject, and give the people the satisfaction of knowing whether they are in their right minds. When poor Judge W—— used to fancy himself a teapot, people thought he was hypochondriac; but there are in the present day very good heads filled with notions that seem to me not less strange. That we are treated like slaves, that we are slaves in fact, that we are worse than slaves, and made to go on all fours, are stories that seem to me very odd, and make me doubt whether I am not under some mental eclipse, since I can 't see what is so plain to others."

A little more than thirty years later, when a stranger enquired of Mr. Petigru the way to the lunatic asylum in Columbia, he was pointed to the capitol where the legislature was then in session.

The reader will not find Mr. Petigru's attitude in these two periods set forth with equal fulness and distinctness; and in the memoir of a Union man, composed at the very focus of a still active rebellion, he must not expect any greater liberty of expression than we know to have been tolerated within the Confederacy. Neither can the stream rise higher than its source. Mr. Grayson's views may be inferred from the fact that in 1850 he wrote a pamphlet deprecating secession, and from an incidental remark in the present volume that secession is the "extremest remedy of the Constitution." Hence, his opposition to the late attempt at revolution seems to have been grounded on its folly, chiefly or solely, and if his sympathy with Mr. Petigru went no further, it would be natural for him to slight or suppress the loftier sentiment of his friend. Mr. Petigru himself, in a letter to Robert C. Winthrop, dated Charleston, February 25, 1861, declines to adjudicate between the two parties to the impending civil war, and adds: "I venture to say that whatever may be thought of the motives of the actors, their *folly* will be as much the subject of wonder as of censure." Before the year had closed he had an opportunity of resisting the despotism of the Confederacy, which he did so manfully as to draw in question, said his opponent, the district-attorney, "not only the constitutionality of the sequestration law passed by the Congress of the Confederate States, but the very authority of that Congress itself, and the solidity of the government which it represents." And because Mr. Petigru had said he might have recognized the authority of South Carolina in a similar case, the same official thought the admission "remarkable from such a quarter," though "accompanied by the explanation that such submission would be given only because there could be no successful resistance to the tyranny."

As a personal tribute to the character of Mr. Petigru, the volume before us is more satisfactory. He was, we gather, derived from Irish and French ancestors, and bore the names of his paternal grandfathers. His Huguenot blood, according to the ethnological speculations of Gliddon, Nott, Fitzhugh, and De Bow, made him a birthright member of the order of "chivalry," with a divine commission to rule over negroes and Yankees and other inferior stocks. Early poverty forbade the exercise of this prerogative, and the youth, neglecting the idle and vagabond sports of his peers, devoted himself assiduously to study. He passed from the school-bench to the teacher's chair, and finally to the bar, in each and every grade *facile princeps*. His biographer, who had himself "in graceful verse delineated the advantages which the Southern bondman possessed over the European laborer," takes pleasure in recalling his occasional conversation with the muses, but it has nothing to distinguish it from that of any susceptible young man. Tender-hearted and affectionate in all his human relations, he was generous in his living and in the practice of his profession. He was so generous that his friends became alarmed for his fortune, and persuaded him to adopt the homœopathic remedy of running into debt to avoid embarrassment. He engaged "in the ordinary and legitimate proceeding of investing his professional profits in a plantation and negroes."

"It was the approved Carolina custom in closing every kind of career. No matter how one might begin, as lawyer, physician, clergyman, mechanic, or merchant, he ended, if prosperous, as proprietor of a rice or cotton plantation. It was the condition that came nearest to the shadow of the colonial aristocracy which yet remained."

The result was not pecuniarily successful. The slaves, we are told, became sleek, fat, and proprietors in their way, but the crops were unprofitable, and the estate was swept away in the financial panic of 1837. The disappointed, but not discouraged, planter found himself not at the close of his career and in affluence, but at the beginning of a new struggle with the encumbrance of a heavy debt. This he spent many toilsome years in honorably discharging.

Mr. Petigru was a reluctant politician, and resigned his position as attorney-general for a nomination to the State senate only from his desire, if possible, to defeat the nullifiers. But they were too strong for him. How the election was conducted for him and his opponent is thus described:

"The parties supporting them resorted to every device, fair or foul. They bribed with money, with promises of office, with liquor and riotous living. They had their lock-up houses, where voters were imprisoned for days before the election, and kept continually drunk to secure their votes. Each prison had its keeper, responsible for the safe custody of his captives. Thousands of dollars were contributed by patriotic gentlemen and ladies to defray the expenses of these salutary provisions for the freedom of elections and the welfare of the people. The city was a model republic for the time being, with no shadow of difference between the two parties in the purity of their proceedings."

In small things and in great Mr. Petigru followed his sense of duty, no matter how it conflicted with public sentiment. His professional eminence and his well-known nobility of character saved him from the evil consequences of this independence, and won for him a respect which shielded him from harm and even from social proscription. When, in the second year of the rebellion, the legislature cast about for some one fitted to codify the laws of the State, he was selected, and his political heresies forgotten or forgiven. This last public service, like all the rest, he rendered faithfully and cheerfully, and died, having done what one sane man could to obstruct the evil counsels of his demented fellow-citizens. They paused long enough to do him reverence at his funeral, and then relapsed into violence and treason.

* "James Louis Petigru. A Biographical Sketch. By William J. Grayson." Harper & Bros., New York. 1866.

MIND IN NATURE.*

In this book Professor Henry James Clark treats of the origin of life, the five great animal groups, and the correspondence in the mode of development of animals with the type of the grand division to which each belongs. Nothing short of a full review would be sufficient for an examination of his discussion of the important questions involved in the subjects just mentioned. The work is largely made up of Prof. Clark's original observations, and contains admirable illustrations of details of

* "Mind in Nature. By Clark." New York: Appleton & Co. 1865.

structure and modes of development, as seen by him through the microscope, and drawn with his own hands. It gives evidence of patient research on his part, requiring the greatest skill in the use of the microscope, and discrimination in interpreting the appearances brought to his notice. In the discussion of general questions he is not fortunate in his mode of presenting them, is often obscure, failing to give the reader a definite idea of the points he attempts to make clear, and sometimes he falls into singular errors. As an example, we will take the last chapter—which is intended to prove that the mode of development of animals corresponds to the type of the grand division to which each belongs. He gives good illustrations of the development of individual members of each division, well described and well figured, but we are convinced that the reader will utterly fail in forming a definite conception of what the type of each division actually is. In fact, by the author's inattention to the arrangement of some of the details, one would be easily led into positive errors. Taking the turtle as his instance of the development of a vertebrate, one would suppose that the amnios, which is wholly absent in the class of fishes, was characteristic of the whole grand division. We are sure that Prof. Clark meant no such thing. Such oversights as this, and some errors which we could point out, such, for example, as the asserted existence in the vertebrates of the "nervous collar," common to all invertebrates, and of a gustatory ganglion included in this collar (p. 127), are open to criticism.

In treating of the origin of life on the surface of the globe, Professor Clark endeavors to show that life originated through the agency of physical causes, it being clearly maintained, however, that these physical causes were nothing else than the manifestations of the will of the Creator. His line of argument, stated in a few words, we understand to be this:—As we study the conditions of the development of animals in the descending series, physical causes play a more direct if not a larger part. The mammalian egg can be fully developed only within the parent, though here through heat and nourishment supplied from her body. In the bird development takes place out of the body, normally through the heat of the parent; but heat of the same amount from any other source is sufficient. In reptiles the ordinary heat of the atmosphere suffices; and the lower we go in the series, the less the dependence upon the parent both for heat and nourishment. The effect of light in addition to heat in the development of plants is adduced as still further proof of the agency of physical causes. But in all these cases the germ on which these agents act is derived from a parent. May we not go one step further, and suppose that a new being may originate wholly under the influence of physical agents? Our author believes we can, and accordingly treats, under the first head mentioned above, somewhat at length of spontaneous generation, a subject which for the last few years has excited sharp discussion in the French Academy, under the lead of Pasteur against the doctrine, and Pouchet for it. As appears from the last "Comptes Rendus," the dispute continues with as much acrimony as ever. Professor Clark believes this mode of generation proved, and adduces the experiments of Professor Jeffries Wyman in support of his conclusion. We must say at the outset, that we do not think the experiments referred to sustain him; nor does Professor Wyman himself claim that they are decisive in regard to this question. We see nothing in them, as reported by Professor Clark, which warrants the statement that "beings with motion, undoubted living beings, were produced where life *could not possibly* have existed previously." The previous existence of life is just the point at issue. It is certain that living organisms have appeared in solutions of organic matter, contained in hermetically sealed flasks, after these had been exposed to boiling water for a period varying from a few minutes to three hours. But to prove these organisms spontaneously generated it must be shown that the flasks were freed of all such living beings within them at the beginning of the experiment, and kept free from all such from without during the progress of it. The latter condition is ensured by the mode of sealing. But with regard to the first it may be fairly asked, are the organisms found in the flasks after the boiling the survivors of this process, or are they truly newly formed individuals? The argument to prove that they outlive the boiling is based almost solely on the earlier experiments of Schultz, and the later, more varied, and, in most respects, more exact researches of Pasteur. Other observers have seen organisms appear where both of these experimenters assert they do not appear. Pasteur asserts that exposure to boiling water for "two or three" minutes destroys life, while the experiments of Pouchet, of Professor Wyman, and the still later ones of Professor Childs of Oxford, and of many other investigators, show that after a much longer boiling than this life is still manifested. The theory of spontaneous generation, like any other, must be decided solely by the accumulation of experimental evidence, of which there is not yet enough. In view of the uncertainty of the whole subject, Professor Clark, we believe, would have been wiser had he treated spontaneous generation as only a probable and not as an observed process.

In connection with this subject, we will call attention to some very remarkable observations of Prof. Clark, which have an important bearing on the question whether "dead" organic matter in the process of dissolution can assume vital activity. In the ordinary process of nutrition, the dead, cooked, and digested food becomes living and active muscle, nerve, or brain. Whence the life and activity? Were they imparted to it by contact with the living organism, or were they "conserved" in it, in a latent form, the living organism affording only an opportunity for their manifestation? If Prof. Clark's observations are trustworthy, it would seem that dead organic structures contain a certain amount of vital force in a latent state, and that this may be made manifest without recourse to another living organism. In a communication read to the American Academy of Arts and Sciences he informs us that, on examining water in which muscular fibre was macerating, he found swimming about in it living organisms, moving with great rapidity, which he supposed to be vibrios, from which they could not at first be distinguished. But, on a more thorough examination, he was able to demonstrate the fact that the supposed vibrios were nothing else than detached muscular fibrillæ. He further states that he saw many times these fibrillæ begin their vibratory motions when only partially detached, and swim off when wholly freed. Another fact of the same nature was observed in the component cells of a decomposing jelly-fish (*Aurelia flavidula*), which, during putrefactive decomposition, became at first loosened, and then briskly agitated by means of slender processes, motionless during life, with which each cell is attached to the adjoining ones. These were not vibrating cilia. When these cells at length became free, "each moved independently and in every direction." Somewhat similar observations were reported many years since by Schleiden, and afterwards by Pineau; but their microscopes were of an inferior quality, and the evidence adduced was far from satisfactory. Knowing Prof. Clark's reputation for skill as an observer, and in view of the excellence of the instrument which he uses, we are strongly inclined to believe that his statement is trustworthy, and that, if there be any question, it is whether the locomotion, witnessed in the separated fibrillæ and cells, was due to vital or purely physical force. He has repeated the observation many times and in several kinds of tissues; but the fact, if it be one, is of such vast importance not only as bearing upon the question of spontaneous generation, but upon our conceptions of vital force, that it should rest at least on the concurrent testimony of several independent observers.

In treating of the egg, Professor Clark maintains views somewhat different from those of most naturalists, claiming that the egg is not simply the structure out of which the animal is formed, but is the animal itself, and is but one of a series of phases through which it passes by insensible gradations from the condition of a homogeneous fluid. Furthermore, the egg, being a developed structure, presents different stages, in any one of which it may be arrested in different members of the animal series, as may be seen by a comparison of a bird's egg with that of some of the infusorial animals; both agree in having a vitelline membrane or cell wall; that of the bird has, in addition, the germinal vesicle and germinal spot; but the other has neither; yet there was a stage of the bird's egg when these were not yet formed, viz., that stage immediately following the fluid condition. From the moment when the plastic fluid was first separated and began to differentiate into wall and contents, individual life may be said to have begun; and from this time onward we have only a series of gradational changes separated from each other by no sharp limits. From this time the egg absorbs materials, and by its inherent properties modifies and converts them into its substance. The Amœba, so simple in its structure but so wonderful in its properties, is brought forward as an illustration of the perfect individual having the same structure, or, more correctly, the same absence of structure, as the egg in its fluid or nearly fluid stage; without further complication, it absorbs, secretes, travels about, secures and digests its food, perceives and reproduces.

Professor Clark, who has made a special study of the subject, and has an especial fitness for it, maintains, as regards the egg, the doctrine of free cell development. It is a curious fact in the history of microscopic observations, that Schwan and Schleiden, the fathers of the "cell theory," were of the firm conviction that all cells originated anew, having no genetic connection with other cells, while among the latest observers, at the head of whom stands Virschow, there are many who have come to just the opposite conclusion, that no cell is so developed. Notwithstanding Virschow's dogma, *omnis cellula e cellula*, we believe his generalization is too sweeping, and that the egg which is a cell is not a derived, but a newly formed, structure. The vegetable physiologists have arrived long

since at a similar conclusion with regard to the "embryo-cell," which originates anew in the fluid of the embryo-sac. The first step in the formation of the egg is the separation from the ovary of "a minute aggregation of fluid matter;" but this fluid has not a uniform density throughout, though it is not yet a cell, and it reflects light somewhat differently on the two sides, in consequence of one side consisting chiefly of albumen and the other of albumen and a minute quantity of oil; the germinal vesicle or the nucleus, and the germinal spot or the nucleolus, and the outer cell-wall or the vitelline membrane—in fact all that makes it a cell—are subsequent formations.

In recognizing the existence of five great groups of animals instead of four, Professor Clark deviates from the course pursued by the most eminent zoölogists of the present day, including Agassiz and Milne-Edwards. The Cuverian group of Radiates, in addition to such animals as corresponded with the mode of structure which the term indicates, comprised others, as the infusoria, which in no way conformed to it. When it was found that some of these were embryos and others locomotive spores of plants, it was hoped that the difficulty would be removed. But there still remains a group of animals which, in the estimation of good and careful observers, can be resolved neither into plants nor into embryonic forms of other radiates or of higher animals, but are themselves completely developed, traceable through all their stages, and have a type of structure peculiar to themselves. Another great division—that of Protozoa—has been established for them, and this division must be admitted at least provisionally.

We have touched upon only a part of the subjects treated by Professor Clark. His book certainly contains many important suggestions and some positive contributions to science, faithfully worked out, but it is marred by a want of method and by occasional errors, some of which are, doubtless, due to too great faith in the statements of others.

COPPÉE'S GRANT.*

Books following in the wake of such great events as those which have recently excited and interested us possess necessarily a charm given them by the facts they describe which it is difficult to separate from the intrinsic merits of the description. An honest pride in the doings of Grant and Sherman seeks gratification in the reading of everything about them that is written. Besides this, some millions of Americans have a personal or family connection with at least one, it may be many, of the battle-fields of the South; Mr. Vallandigham and Mr. Cox even must feel an antagonistic interest in the war which they opposed, while generals successful and unsuccessful, lieutenants known and unknown, privates of four years or ninety days, are anxious to study the campaigns they fought. Mr. Coppée's book, however, invites the special attention of a small class, and, when the incidental attractions which at present enhance its value are out of date, will be judged by its merits as a work of military criticism. As a critic of military operations, Mr. Coppée has failed, and failed not from the disadvantage of undue haste under which he seems to have labored, but from a lack of ability to accomplish what he has undertaken. He is rather a compiler and condenser than a critic, and wants that professional insight which must be the first qualification for a reviewer of Grant's career. The sketch of the last Richmond campaign, for instance, is an elaboration of the general's report, instead of a critical account of the movements which he conducted; the enlarged edition, too, not having in style the merits of the original, does not easily bear comparison with it. The author throughout appears to draw his ideas from others, rarely to weigh, consider, and search carefully from a self-selected point of observation. Most people know by this time the general features of Grant's victories—the insertion of his forces between Johnston and Pemberton, the assaults and siege of Vicksburg, the crossing of the Rapidan, the advance of the rebels up the Valley to Washington, their repulse and destruction by Sheridan, but the ever changing' still unchanged, plans of the Lieutenant-General—but they wish to know something more. The military profession, at least, wish to look at these operations from a professional and critical point of view.

As a narrative for purposes of general information, the descriptions of Western operations are better, Mr. Coppée having had access to larger sources of information than of the Eastern; but even here there is sometimes a lack of clearness, due mainly to the absence of good maps, an inexcusable defect, and in some measure to the want of a thorough grasp of the events described. Had the Virginia campaign been examined as much in detail as have those in the West, the result would have been a popular military life, of value in proportion to the care with which the abstracts and compilations were made, though without any merits of special interest to military men; as it is, this part of the book is of little profit. But if this is the author's object, maps are essential, particularly one of the field of operations about Chattanooga, and another showing the extent of the immense campaign which began with the occupation of Paducah, ending with the capture of Vicksburg and the division of the Confederacy.

Mr. Coppée gives an interesting and curious reason for the defeat of our army on the first day of Pittsburg Landing. Halleck, he says, ordered the position in general terms to be fortified, but C. F. Smith opposed it, an opposition confirmed by Grant and all the division commanders, on the ground of injury to the morale of the soldiers and our ability to resist any attack. Besides this, a wide gap was left between Prentiss and McClernand. Beauregard, taking a natural advantage of this position, surprised our defenceless troops, went into the gap and hurled our army back. But why this gap should have been left open, whose fault it was, and why General Grant should then have held an opinion which seems now so strange, is left unexplained. Mr. Coppée, indeed, appears often too little inclined to enquire where blame is deserved; the only officer who gets it very roundly is Colonel Murphy, who surrendered Holly Springs, and thus defeated the first Vicksburg campaign. That campaign is on the whole perhaps the best in the book.

Coupon Bonds. By J. T. Trowbridge. (Ticknor & Fields, Boston.)—If there is any one who understands so thoroughly the New England life and character, and describes it so accurately and with so much sympathy and humor, as the author of "Neighbor Jackwood," we are not acquainted with him. Mr. Trowbridge has qualifications as a tale-writer which render all his productions respectable and even exceptional; but he is strongest when he keeps the Connecticut River, the Green Mountains, and Massachusetts Bay in sight. In "Cudjo's Cave" he showed very clearly that he had strayed from his native soil. For, if he is a master in his way, that way is not of the broadest. He cannot, like Gérome, paint you an Arab, Turk, Egyptian, Russian; he cannot call the past before you—the Roman amphitheatre, the Areopagus, augurs, players, philosophers; but he will give you the Yankee of to-day with absolute fidelity, and no historical work can be better—it ranks with the "Biglow Papers" and the domestic poems of Whittier, and will be prized as much hereafter. Readers of the "Atlantic Monthly" have already had their laugh over "Coupon Bonds," which appeared as a serial in that magazine. It will bear a second and a third perusal, and still Mr. Ducklow's tribulation with his "cowpons" will provoke their mirth. Indeed, we fear the paper covers of this handy little *brochure* will not outlast the interest of the contents.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Second Annual Report of the [Massachusetts] Board of State Charities January, 1866.—Report of the Special Commission on the Hours of Labor and the Condition and Prospects of the Industrial Classes [Massachusetts]. February, 1866. Wright & Potter, Boston.

The Dove's Nest, and Benny Averet. By E. L. Llewellyn. Ashmead & Evans, Philadelphia. (James Miller, New York.)

On Leaia Leidyi—Cypricardia Leidyi. Descriptions of Fourteen New Species of Melanidæ, etc. By Isaac Lea, LL.D. Merrihew & Son, Philadelphia.

False Pride; or, Two Ways to Matrimony. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

Fine Arts.

ART EXHIBITIONS AND SALES.

In the first of a series of articles on the French and Belgian pictures New York, which was contained in The Nation for January 11, we ascribed to the Gambart collection in Tenth Street a relative value higher than some well-informed people thought was right. These were the words we allude to: ". . when the visitor, accustomed to average American pictures, goes to see European pictures which may naturally be assumed to be above the average European merit. The pictures which are selected to be sent to this country for sale are generally of a certain order of merit; embody much skill and represent great reputations." Some who know contemporary French art thought that the pictures brought here are not above the average European merit.

The only question is, What is the average merit of European art? We think it is lower than the average of Mr. Pilgeram's pictures at Tenth Street, or of Mr. Knoedler's and Mr. Avery's continually changing collections. We think, poorly instructed as most picture buyers may be, that they are not taken with unmixed chaff, and that it "does not pay" to import, pay boxing, freight, and duties upon, and run a risk for, any works of art below a certain standard. Every public and private sale proves that fact. We think the new collection of French pictures, now on exhibition at the Derby gallery, is going to prove it conclusively.

* "Grant and His Campaigns: a military biography. By Henry Coppée, A.M., Editor of the 'United States Service Magazine.'" New York: Charles B. Richardson; Cincinnati: C. F. Vent & Co.; Springfield: W. J. Holland. 1866. 8vo, pp. 13—521.

This collection more fairly represents the "average" than the Gambart collection. Let any one who is familiar with annual exhibitions of pictures in Paris, London, Munich, or Berlin remember how large they are and how small a percentage of each is of any peculiar value. Fifty pictures, perhaps, by *esprits d'élite*, as Gustave Planche was fond of saying, fifty more by promising pupils of the *esprits d'élite*, and a hundred more, large and small, minute and broad, careful and sketchy, which for some reason or other attract attention—such will be the two hundred among the two thousand. Now it seems to us that Mr. Gambart, in a spirit of exclusiveness, has tried to select pictures from among the first three classes named. The first class it is hard to get representatives of; we have often shown how poorly most of the leaders are represented by the pictures that come to America. But out of class two and class three are taken nearly all the pictures of which we have spoken at different times; and, therefore, we said that they are, taken together, above the average.

Now, in this new collection of "pictures, the contributions of artists of the French Etching Club," there is a strong contingent of the outsiders, the fourth class, the horde of pictures that nobody looks at unless compelled to do so. There are better pictures in it than these (else it would fall hopelessly below the average—for even with them we think it is rather below), but its prominent characteristic is inferiority to what we have learned to expect of French art exhibitions in New York. The three pictures by M. Chifflart are examples of work which it is hardly worth while to import; at least there is no reason for bringing them to America unless they can be sold to advantage, and we hope that will not be the case. M. Chintreuil's "Watering Place," M. Hereau's picture called, in strange English, "The Sheep's Return," M. Pons's four "Decorative Panels," M. Ribot's three pictures, and M. Yongkind's or Jongkind's two—all these, though we do not class them as equal in merit, are alike undesirable and unwelcome. There is a great deal of actual rubbish in the collection with which it is not desirable to spend time; and of the important pictures and other works of art therein, we defer consideration until another time.

—The auction sales of pictures are an important part of the news of the day. Mr. Avery's collection, of which we spoke last week, has been sold—perhaps, on the whole, at fair prices, although some important works brought less than represents their relative value. When Mr. Church's "Twilight in the Wilderness" was sold for four thousand three hundred dollars, it is little to say that M. Lambinet's large landscape, "Autumn," was sold too low at three hundred and fifty, and William Hunt's drawing of fruit cheaply at one hundred and eighty. As regards the latter, though, it is perhaps surprising that it should have brought as much as it did, for water-color drawings are not popular among the picture-buying community. It is a little to their discredit the stir and movement that begin whenever the last oil-painting is sold and the drawings come on, two-thirds of the audience disappearing and the proceedings becoming at once brisker and less solemn. Some one, however, bought the Doré drawing of "Angels Watching over Moses" for three hundred dollars. It and the Hunt were next neighbors—205 and 206 of the catalogue. If they had changed prices, both would have been sold at a fairer valuation.

Other sales are in progress. Mr. Hall's took place Monday, and Messrs. Miner & Somerville's gallery, having been stripped of the pictures of that collection, is filled up again with a large lot of American pictures for a sale which has long been advertised. More important than all, the Gambart collection is to be sold—not all of it, probably, but the greater part. There is to be a new catalogue prepared for the sale, which we have not yet received.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

A COMMITTEE of the French Academy, to which was referred for examination the process of one Louvel for preserving grain in rarefied air, has reported as follows: The apparatus employed consists simply of one or more sheet-iron cylinders, provided with a man-hole on top for the introduction of the grain and a hopper below through which it can be discharged. A partial vacuum having been made within the cylinders by means of an air-pump, it was found that this could be practically maintained during six months or more. All the insects which attack grain, and particularly the weevil, were quickly destroyed by the rarefied air of the cylinders. The grain was perfectly well preserved during the six months devoted to the experiments of the committee.

—In the reports of the juries of the Dublin International Exhibition of 1865 is an account of certain "wood-stuffs" for paper-making, prepared by Roether, of Cassel, in Germany. The samples were made from four kinds of wood—the linden, aspen, pine, and Scotch fir. The best qualities of these, it seems, can be sold for 13 and 16 shillings the 110 lbs. "The samples of papers," says the report, "made from mixtures of rags with different proportions of these stuffs are excellent, and show a decided progress in wood-paper manufacture since 1862. Among them may be specially mentioned a good writing paper, containing 45 per cent. of Scotch fir stuff; an excellent lapping paper, containing 65 per cent.; and a colored lapping tissue paper, which is exceedingly strong, containing 50 per cent. of wood-stuffs." No account of the processes employed in producing these stuffs is given in the report.

—The observations of Lionel Beale on the minute anatomy of nerves, published in the Transactions of the Royal Society for 1862 and 1865, are important additions to the previous knowledge of the subject. The physiology of the nervous system has always followed in the path of anatomical discovery, and no true theory of its mode of action is likely to be framed until the details of its structure are at least approximately made out. Each successive year the microscope reveals something which requires the modification of existing views. It has already shown the fallacy of the belief, recently general, that nerves form a direct and insulated communication between the brain and the sensitive surfaces or contractile fibres, for it is now a matter of demonstration that a large portion of the nerve-fibres end or begin in the spinal cord itself, where they are connected with the nerve-cells; further, these fibres have been found in many instances to branch freely, so that impressions received on the ends of the branches may be transmitted to the centre by a common trunk; lastly, several sensitive nerve-fibres coming from as many different trunks may be received into one and the same cell. How nerve-fibres end and how they begin is still one of the most important questions for the physiologist.

By better methods of preparation, and by the use of the higher powers of the microscope, Dr. Beale has succeeded in showing that both the central and peripheral portions of the nervous conductors are much more complex than had been supposed. First of all, he adduces evidence to prove that the cells in the ganglia, which he has especially studied, have at least two nerve-fibres connected with each of them, and that the so-called "bipolar" and "apolar" cells of microscopists, or the cells connected with but one fibre, or not connected with any, have no existence; secondly, the nerve-fibres in their peripheral portions divide into numerous branches, some of them of exceeding minuteness, and form a complex network, which is spread out either over the tactile surfaces or the contractile fibres; thirdly, this network is intermediate between two or more nerve-fibres which connect it with the nervous centres, or, in other words, it is intermediate between the out-going and in-going currents of nervous force. The central cell, the out-going and in-going conductors, and the intermediate network may be looked upon as the unit of the nervous system—the first being the dynamic portion, from which influences emanate and to which they are transmitted, the second the connecting fibres, and the third the place where nervous force is delivered, or impressions are received. The whole nervous system may, in general terms, be considered an aggregation of such units.

Dr. Beale claims to have made the further observation that the dynamic portions, namely, the nerve-cells, are continually undergoing decay and renovation, certainly in the young and adult, and probably in all periods of life. This, if true, shows the existence of a process entirely different from that previously supposed to exist, namely, that of simple molecular and not structural change. The plates accompanying the memoir, if true to nature, and his great skill as a manipulator and microscopic observer justifies the belief that they are, give evidence of the correctness of his descriptions.

—There exists upon the coast of Greenland a remarkable deposit of a mineral called cryolite, which is composed of fluoride of sodium and fluoride of aluminum. This mineral, but a few years ago a mere mineralogical rarity, has suddenly become the raw material of a considerable industry. During the last ten years it has been mined to a large extent and sent to Europe, particularly to Denmark and to Germany, and recently it has been brought in quantity to this country for the purpose of making carbonate of soda. About a year ago the Pennsylvania Salt and Alkali Manufacturing Company sent out to Copenhagen and obtained from the owners of the cryolite mines and from the Danish Government the right of mining this material. Ships were then chartered in England, in Quebec, and in our own ports, to proceed to Ivigtus, in Greenland, and take cargoes of the mineral to Philadelphia. Six thousand tons or more have already been imported and subjected to treatment at the works of the company, near Pittsburg. In the process of manufacture a mixture of pulverized cryolite and lime is calcined, by which means there is formed an insoluble fluoride of calcium and a soluble com-

pound of alumina and soda—an aluminate of soda. The latter is dissolved out with water and the solution treated with carbonic acid, so that carbonate of soda shall be formed, and the alumina thrown down as an insoluble precipitate. The solution being now evaporated, a very pure product of carbonate of soda is obtained, or the solution is at once boiled with hydrate of lime and the carbonate thus economically converted into caustic soda. It is evident that the alumina which is precipitated, as above-mentioned, may be advantageously used in the manufacture of alum or of sulphate of alumina.

—The quantity of coal dug in Great Britain in the year 1864 appears, by the returns of Professor Robert Hunt, to have been 92,787,873 tons. This would yield, if employed in steam engines of good construction, an amount of available force about equal to that of the whole human race. But in the combustion of coal not less than ten times this amount of force is actually set free, nine-tenths being at present unavailable on account of the defective character of the methods of application now in use.

—A new test, of apparent merit, for atropine, the intense poison extracted from belladonna, is mentioned in the German papers. On warming the atropine with diluted sulphuric acid, in a porcelain dish, an intense and exceedingly persistent odor is developed. This is so characteristic that, after a little practice, one can detect the presence even of imponderable traces of atropine by means of it. The sulphuric acid must be diluted to such an extent that it will no longer develop sulphurous acid on being boiled with organic matter.

—A method of removing fusel oil from potato brandy has recently been published in Germany. It consists in placing a small vessel containing some vegetable fatty oil—like olive oil—in such position that the alcohol vapor shall pass through it during the distillation. Since the fatty oil has a greater affinity for fusel oil than for alcohol, it will retain the former, while the latter goes forward to the condenser. The process is interesting as being a rational improvement upon the old empirical methods of distilling spirit over almond bran or bruised almonds, which, as it now appears, owed their efficacy to the fatty oil which is contained in the almonds.

—The well-known Spanish chemist, Reynoso, of Havana, proposes to bring about a radical change in the present system of sugar boiling, and to remove the water from cane juice not directly by means of heat, as now, but by cold. His process depends upon the familiar fact that water in freezing excludes foreign matters, and separates itself almost completely from the substances which it had previously held in solution. Instead, then, of concentrating the juice by boiling, Reynoso subjects it to such a degree of cold that it shall be converted into a magma composed of small particles of ice and a dense syrup. By means of a centrifugal machine, the ice-powder can now be readily separated from the strong syrup with which its interstices are filled, and the concentration of the syrup may then be quickly completed in the ordinary vacuum pans. The author of the process hopes, by means of it, to avoid the various complex reactions which occur when cane juice is exposed to the simultaneous action of air and heat—reactions by which much sugar is now destroyed during the process of manufacture. He claims, moreover, to have found that a weak syrup, marking only 6° of Beaumé's saccharometer, can be converted, by congelation, into ice and a syrup of 30°. Of course this process would have to be used in connection with some system of artificial refrigeration, such, for example, as that used in England by oil refiners, in which intense cold is produced by the expansion of air which has been previously compressed by mechanical means.

—The opium of Upper Egypt was formerly in excellent repute, but has of late years come to be very poor in morphine, and is now held in little esteem. In discussing the matter, M. Gastinel, the director of the Garden of Acclimation at Cairo, attributes the cause of this impoverishment to the system of excessive irrigation employed, which renders the juices of the plant very watery and the solution of the medicinal matters consequently too dilute. By correcting this fault, and by making the incisions in the poppy capsules when the plant is at a more advanced stage of maturity than is usual, M. Gastinel has found no difficulty in obtaining opium which contains three or four times as much morphine as that of his neighbors. He argues, from this result, that there need be no difficulty in re-establishing the old renown of the Egyptian opium.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening,
March 10, 1866.

GOLD continues to fall. Yesterday it touched 130; to-day it sold as low as 129¾, and then rallied, closing at 131⅛. Government has not sold since the price was 137½, seventeen days ago. The decline of 7 per cent. in so short a period must be ascribed to natural causes—a growing conviction that the currency is going to be reduced, a steady increase of our exports, a constantly developing foreign enquiry for our securities. Among speculators the opinion prevails that still lower figures—say 125—may be touched before midsummer. But, on the other hand, operators who were confident sellers at 137 to 140, are now buyers on the theory that the decline has been excessive. Notwithstanding large short sales by merchants who are trying by this hedging process to protect themselves against loss from a decline in the value of the goods they hold, gold is easy. It can readily be borrowed "flat," and more than once during the week holders had to pay 2 to 3 per cent. for getting it carried. So general is the impression that we are starting on the high road to specie payments, that specie is coming out of hoards on every side, and the enquiry for coin for investment or speculation has almost wholly ceased. It need hardly be added that the decline has gravely affected all the markets for merchandise and produce. A dead dulness pervades the cotton and produce markets. Large quantities of both are held at high prices both here and abroad; holders thus far decline to accept the decline in gold as final, and hold their property above the views of buyers. Should gold react, these parties will have acted wisely. Should it continue to decline, their obstinacy will cost them dear. A continued decline in specie or a tight money market would involve such a panic in cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions as has not been witnessed in this country for many years. In the dry goods trade more suppleness is developed by dealers. Prices have been marked down, both in foreign and domestic goods, to correspond with the decline in gold, and large invoices have been sent to the auction rooms. But neither the concessions of holders nor the apparent peremptory sales have aroused buyers to activity. All classes of people seem to be imbued with the feeling that prices must fall steadily for some time to come, and no one buys more than he absolutely requires. In the language of a shrewd Western man, "a panic is inevitable sooner or later this year, and when it comes goods will sell much lower than they should. Then we shall buy what we want for twelve months' consumption. Till then we shall hold off." At the West the decline in gold is gravely embarrassing speculators and their banks. Many of the national banks are said to have been unduly liberal to buyers of provisions and produce. Such institutions are likely to afford an opportunity of showing how national banks can be wound up under the new law. Exchange has advanced during the week to about 108⅝ for bankers' bills, still nearly one per cent. below the point at which specie can be safely shipped as a remittance.

Money continues in fair demand at 6 to 7 per cent., the latter being the general rule among brokers, the former the exception. The Sub-Treasury balance has been reduced twelve to fifteen millions; but, as most of this has gone to Washington and points further South, the market here has not felt the effect of the disbursement. It is realized on all hands that no such thing as an active money market can exist so long as the Government owes the public $118,000,000 payable on demand after ten days, and many persons question the sincerity of Mr. McCulloch's professions of a desire to contract the currency when they note his continued willingness to receive money on call at 5 per cent. interest. Real contraction can only begin when the Government has emancipated itself from the thraldom of the banks—when it has ceased to draw its breath by their sufferance. At present, with $118,000,000 due to the banks on call, Mr. McCulloch no more dare make money tight for a period of a month than he dare repudiate the interest due on the public debt. Momentary spasms in the money market suit the banks well enough, as they keep money well up to the legal rate and enable lenders to obtain full rates of interest. But a continued and severe stringency, such as would be involved by a persevering course of currency contraction, will not be tolerated by the banks, and cannot be produced so long as they hold the Secretary by the throat through the temporary loan. No further progress has been made in Congress with the finance bill. Rumors of a compromise among the contending parties—a large majority of whom favor currency contraction in the abstract—have been current during the past week, but no positive intelligence on the subject has been received. Parties interested in speculative operations in real estate, merchandise, and stocks have circulated the report that the bill will fail altogether, and that no contraction of the currency will be authorized by the present Congress.

But a sounder opinion is that, after a considerable delay growing out of the antagonistic views of the crude financiers of Congress, a bill will be adopted which may be in harmony with the wishes of the Secretary or may be in accordance with the requirements of Mr. Stevens, but which, in either case, will authorize and direct such a reduction of the national currency as shall develop a general enquiry for legal tender notes and shall compel the national banks to think at least as much of avoiding bankruptcy as of declaring inordinate dividends to their stockholders.

The following table will show the course of prices during the week in the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets:

	March 3.	March 10.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅜	104¼	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds, old	103	103	....	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103	103	....	....
10-40 Bonds	90¾ exc.	90⅝	....	⅛
7.30 Notes, second series	99¼	99¼	....	....
New York Central	90⅜	91¾	1⅜	....
Erie Railway	85¼	82½	....	2¾
Hudson River	103	104	1	....
Reading Railroad	98⅜	97¾	....	¾
Michigan Southern	69⅝	74	4⅜	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	76⅜	75¾	....	¾
Chicago and North-western	26¾	25½	....	1⅛
" " " Preferred	53⅜	52½	....	1
Chicago and Rock Island	105	107¾	2¾	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	90¼	89¾	....	½
Canton	44⅛	43¾	....	⅜
Cumberland	44⅜	42¼	....	2⅛
Mariposa	11½	11	....	½
American Gold	133¾	131⅝	....	1¾
Bankers' Bills on London	108⅜	108½	....	....
Call Loans	7	7	....	....

The course of the stock market this week has been irregular. The "clique" stocks have advanced; other stocks have declined, or have remained stationary. Erie, which has been wholly in the hands of the clique controlled by the veteran director of the road, was made so scarce on Thursday that as much as ½ of 1 per cent. was paid for the use of the stock for a single day. With excellent judgment, the veteran director seems to have chosen this moment to sell his stock, and though there is reason to believe that his associates were not made aware of his operations, it would appear that he personally disposed of not less than 30,000 shares on Thursday and Friday. The consequence was a decline in the price from 87 to 81, and the failure of two or three operators who had followed in his wake. Considerable ingenuity was developed in the operation. While he was selling stock through half a dozen brokers, he was also selling "puts" at 81, 82, and 83 on the stock. Most of the buyers of these "puts" bought the stock against them, and it seems to be generally believed that they bought it from him. Gamblers are familiar with operations by which, on losing $10,000, the operator makes $25,000. This seems to have been the policy of the Erie director. The clique in Michigan Southern have succeeded in putting up the price to 74. It was understood in the Street that the short interest was so large that it would be comparatively easy to force up the price to 80 or 85. But, judging from the ease with which the stock is borrowed, and the general belief that the clique is going to put up the price somehow or other, it would seem not unlikely that the clique exaggerated the volume of the short interest, and that, when the time comes to corner the shorts, there may be no one to corner. A further advance in the price may be effected, but the ultimate decline will be none the less certain. No one is so sanguine as to expect a dividend this year. The movement in Rock Island continues, the present direction and their opponents bidding against each other for the stock, and will go on until one party or the other discovers that it is beaten and "lets go." Sales were made on Thursday as high as 108¼—a price quite disproportionate to the market value of other sound railway stocks. Pittsburgh declines slowly. The clique are said still to hold 25,000 shares of the stock. Reading and Fort Wayne sink, partly from the decline in the earnings and partly from the process of liquidation, which has already commenced on a small scale, and which induces all holders of property to contemplate its conversion into money. Experienced men in Wall Street do not hesitate to predict that for the next year, or perhaps two or three years, nothing will be so good to own as money; that within two years money will buy every description of property that is bought and sold at prices very much lower than those now current; that just as, in 1862–3, when the currency was expanding, the man who made money was the one who ran in debt, and was always buying more than he could pay for, so now, in 1866–7, when the currency is being reduced, the men who make money will be they who take care to owe nothing, and to hold nothing but money, or the funded obligations of Government.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

THE GREAT NATIONAL SAVINGS BANK.

CAPITAL AND ASSETS EXCEEDING $1,500,000.

THE UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

Assets, Nov. 1, 1865, ... $1,400,777 16
Losses paid to date 912,342 00
Dividends paid to date 412,748 00

This is one of the oldest wholly *Mutual* Life Insurance Companies in the United States, and has been uniformly successful, having always made large returns in Cash dividends to all the Policy-holders.

We refer to the following well-known Clergymen who are insured with us:

HENRY WARD BEECHER, R. S. STORRS, JR., HENRY ASHTON, W. P. STRICKLAND,

and are allowed to make the following extract from a private letter of the Rev. W. P. Strickland, D.D., as follows:

From what I *know* of the Union Mutual Life Insurance Company, 151 Broadway, where I am insured for $5,000, I believe that the Company is placed upon an immovable foundation; that its officers and agents are competent and honest, that it will faithfully and promptly meet all its covenants. I make this statement without any compensation, and without any hope of fees or reward whatever.
Brooklyn, July 31, 1865. W. P. STRICKLAND.

We invite careful attention to our table No. IV.,

"Non-forfeiture Endowment,"

being peculiarly adapted to those on salary.

Efficient agents are wanted.

J. W. & H. JUDD,
General Agents for New York and New Jersey.

PACIFIC
MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,
TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - - - - - $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,240

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.
THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64—	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66—	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34—	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same		$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions		20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium		58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies		190,691 40	
Paid Annuities		10,242 55	
Paid Taxes		33,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses		174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums		334,255 12—	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank		$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages		7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)		4,468,921 25	
Real Estate		782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents		36,599 14—	$14,112,349 85
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due		$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid		5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received		655,844 30—	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

NO PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON,	HENRY A. SMYTHE,
JOHN V. L. PRUYN,	DAVID HOADLEY,
WILLIAM MOORE,	WILLIAM V. BRADY,
ROBERT H. McCURDY,	WILLIAM E. DODGE,
ISAAC GREEN PEARSON,	GEORGE S. COE,
WILLIAM BETTS,	WILLIAM K. STRONG,
JOHN P. YELVERTON,	ALEX. W. BRADFORD,
SAMUEL M. CORNELL,	WILLIAM M. VERMILYE,
LUCIUS ROBINSON,	JOHN E. DEVELIN,
W. SMITH BROWN,	WILLIAM A. HAINES,
ALFRED EDWARDS,	SEYMOUR L. HUSTED,
JOHN WADSWORTH,	MARTIN BATES,
EZRA WHEELER,	WELLINGTON CLAPP,
SAMUEL D. BABCOCK,	OLIVER H. PALMER,
WILLIAM H. POPHAM,	ALONZO CHILD,
JOHN M. STUART,	HENRY E. DAVIES,
SAMUEL E. SPROULLS,	RICHARD A. McCURDY,
RICHARD PATRICK,	FRANCIS SKIDDY.

RICHARD A. McCURDY, VICE-PRESIDENT.

ISAAC ABBATT, THEO. W. MORRIS, SECRETARIES. SHEPPARD HOMANS. ACTUARY.

FRED. M. WINSTON, CASHIER.

WILLIAM BETTS, LL.D., HON. LUCIUS ROBINSON, HON. ALEX. W. BRADFORD, COUNSEL.

MINTURN POST, M.D., ISAAC L. KIP, M.D., MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

F. RATCHFORD STARR, General Agent for the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

H. B. MERRELL, General Agent for the States of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, DETROIT, MICH.

HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

JNO. G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.

JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.

STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.

JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

O. F. BRESEE, General Agent for the State of Virginia, RICHMOND, VA.

L. SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.

H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE

AND

TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,

243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,

EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,

Issues

LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,

And Ensures Against

ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for $3,000, with $15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, $25 for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.
A. S. MILLS, Secretary.
T. B. VAN BUREN, Treasurer.

S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.
J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, ...	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS	$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995 92
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS, the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary. ASHER TAYLOR, President.

JAY COOKE, H. C. FAHNESTOCK,
WM. G. MOORHEAD, EDWARD DODGE,
H. D. COOKE, PITT COOKE.

JAY COOKE & CO.,

BANKERS.

In connection with our houses in Philadelphia and Washington, we have this day opened an office at No. 1 Nassau Street, corner of Wall Street, in this city.

Mr. EDWARD DODGE, late of Clark, Dodge & Co., New York, Mr. H. C. FAHNESTOCK, of our Washington House, and Mr. PITT COOKE, of Sandusky, Ohio, will be resident partners.

We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, and EXCHANGE of GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues; to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, and GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.

ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

FOURTH NATIONAL BANK,

27 & 29 PINE ST., NEW YORK,

Has for sale U. S. 7 3-10 Notes, all sizes; also, One Year Certificates and all other Government Loans.

P. C. CALHOUN, President.

ANTHONY LANE, Asst. Cashier. B. SEAMAN, Cashier.

The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, of body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features; and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS,

PUBLISHER,

130 Nassau Street, N. Y.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway.
New York, January 1, 1866.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

FINKLE & LYON'S

IMPROVED

LOCK-STITCH SEWING-MACHINE.

N. B.—Money refunded if the Machine is not preferred to any in market for family use.

AGENTS WANTED. 538 Broadway, N. Y.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale by all Dealers.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Potash or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

WHEELER & WILSON'S SEWING MACHINES,

625 BROADWAY, N. Y.,

MAKE THE

LOCK-STITCH,

and rank highest on account of the elasticity, permanence, beauty, and general desirableness of the stitching, when done, and the wide range of its application.—*Report of American Institute.*

Lock-Stitch Sewing Machines

FOR FAMILIES AND MANUFACTURERS.

THE HOWE MACHINE COMPANY,

ELIAS HOWE, Jr., Pres.,

629 BROADWAY.

Agents wanted.

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The Nation.

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The Week.

THE correspondence between the President and his provisional governors, so reluctantly transmitted to the reconstruction "directory," is manifestly incomplete and not particularly fresh. His part seems to have been to recommend such measures as were calculated to "disarm the adversary," whom he afterwards identifies with the radicals, meaning those who were not disposed to restore the revolted States at once to their relations with the Union. Governor Perry makes the usual display of his shining qualities, and asks repeatedly after the chances of his being allowed a seat in the Senate. Governor Johnson, of Georgia, is "inclined to think a suspension of pardons might have a salutary effect" on the Legislature; and Governor Holden, of North Carolina, begs the President to pardon no leading men without consulting him. The same officer telegraphs, with a prophetic squint at the senators-elect from Georgia, "If I were a Northern member of Congress, I doubt whether I would consent to sit with any member of the so-called Confederate Congress." The correspondence shows clearly that Mr. Johnson demanded of the States far more than he was prepared to insist upon or they to render. Alabama and Florida both ratified the Constitutional Amendment "with the understanding that it does not confer upon Congress the power to legislate upon the political status of the freedmen of this State." Mississippi rejected it altogether, yet she has none the less found favor, though Mr. Seward, writing for the President to Governor Marvin, said: "He regards the ratification by the Legislature of the Congressional amendment of the Constitution of the United States as *indispensable* to a successful restoration of the true legal relations between Florida and the other States, and equally indispensable to the return of peace and harmony throughout the republic."

MR. BANKS'S "great speech" about the Paris Exposition is a fresh illustration of the difficulty there is in getting a large class of politicians to understand that in public as well as in private life there are such things as good taste and good manners. He is in favor of our taking part in the exhibition, but he wants us to go there in the most bellicose frame of mind possible. He would have us, when we arrive in Paris with our goods and our products, "stiffen the sinews, summon up the blood, and disguise fair nature with hard-favored rage;" in other words, make our appearance at a festival of peace with a pistol in each hand and a sabre between our teeth. He wants to have a mon[illegible] the French harbors to fire at all the navies of Europe, on condition that all the navies of Europe fire at it. In short, his great object in having us share in the exposition seems to be to make people afraid of us. His theory, and no doubt that of many of those who encouraged him to persevere in his fanfaronade, is that Europeans are frightened by these rhetorical broadsides. There never was a greater mistake. We doubt if there was anything which did so much to diffuse doubts of our military strength and courage at the outset of the rebellion as the enormous quantity of "brag," like this of Mr. Banks's, which was poured forth in Congress and on the stump for long years before the war broke out. We had hoped we had heard the last of it. If it is to be revived, Mr. Banks is certainly not the man to be charged with the task. We, for our part, believe in fighting hard in time of war, but that in time of peace "nothing so becomes a man (or nation) as modest stillness and humility." We are at liberty to stay away from the Paris Exposition if we please; but if we go, let us go with no thoughts save those of peace in our heads. If a man to whom you owe a grudge asks you to dinner, you need not accept; but if you do accept, it would hardly be seemly to make your appearance in his parlor in chain armor or put a revolver down beside your plate to mark your dissatisfaction with his general behavior. Mr. Bancroft got the foreign diplomatists round Mr. Lincoln's grave to listen to a funeral oration, and "improved the occasion" by slapping their faces—morally, of course. Mr. Banks now wants us to take part in an industrial contest—the great object of which is to promote peace and good-will among the nations of the earth—for the mere purpose, if we are to judge from his speech, of making our war-whoops more widely heard.

MR. JOHNSON has refused to interfere with Mr. Monroe's assumption of the office of mayor of New Orleans. Mr. Monroe was in office when the city was captured, and was very obstinate and defiant in his refusal to submit to Federal authority, and was very properly committed to one of the forts. We have nothing to say about this case except what we have already said about the case of General Humphreys. We believe it to be demoralizing to the loyal men of the South and against public policy to allow persons who have made themselves prominent leaders of the rebellion to fill high public offices, and take charge of the government of cities and States. No matter what view of reconstruction he may hold, no one will venture to affirm that such men are fit to be entrusted with the administration of the law at the South at a period so critical as the next two years are likely to prove. And we have no hesitation in saying that in pardoning such men for the purpose of qualifying them for office, Mr. Johnson has grossly abused his power. We talk of trying Davis for treason; but we may well ask, What moral weight would his condemnation have—supposing him convicted—when General Humphreys is governor of Mississippi?

THE Civil Rights bill has passed both Houses, and a more important bill—one calculated, if but fairly enforced, to effect more important changes in American society—has never come before Congress. It is the first attempt which the nation has made to put the theory of human rights on which it professes to be based into practice, and to extend the protection of the national authority over all classes and races occupying the national soil. None of the main objections which the President made to the Freedmen's Bureau bill lie to it. We trust he will leave the question of its constitutionality to the Supreme Court, which only is competent to decide it.

THE introduction of Mr. Stewart's resolutions proposing a general amnesty in return for [illegible] concession, amongst others, on the part of the

Southern States of the franchise to all persons on the same terms and conditions, making no discrimination on account of race, color, or previous condition—but leaving the status of those already in possession of the franchise untouched—has been, after the passage of the Civil Rights bill, the most exciting incident of the past week. There is no doubt that the voluntary adoption of such a principle by the Southern States, provided the qualifications for the suffrage were intelligence, and not property, would be a pleasant road out of a very embarrassing position. But a State vote is not sufficient to ensure the permanence of any such change. There can be no certainty that any measure of this kind if adopted by the South would prove perpetual, unless it were made irrevocable by a Federal guarantee.

Mr. Raymond is publishing in the *Times* select extracts from an enormous number of letters which he has received touching his course in Congress. They all seem to come from very good people, though we can hardly say that the extracts reveal as much intellect as virtue. But we think the public will agree with us in doubting the value of this kind of evidence. Letters to members of Congress, like witnesses in courts of justice, are to be weighed, not counted, and, when a man undertakes to represent the feeling current in his neighborhood on any public question, the important point is not what he says, but who he is. Then, again, few people write to a member of Congress except those who agree with him; those who do not like his course write to somebody else; and we venture to assert that if the opinion of the country on the President's policy is to be got at by counting the letters written to Washington about it, it will be found that Thaddeus Stevens and Charles Sumner can show more than anybody in either House. We hope, however, that neither of them will be tempted into producing his correspondence. The literature of reconstruction is already sufficiently voluminous, and if the private letters of all the wise men of the country districts were to be added to it, it would certainly raise the price of paper without very much increasing our light.

The lesson of the New Hampshire election—the first State election since the veto—is not merely, it seems to us, that the people side with their representatives in the difference at the Capital, but that they mean to stand by them in the highest effort upon which they can unite for the protection and elevation of the freedmen and the purification of the Republic. The measures which divide the radical majority in Congress would probably, if submitted to their constituents, reveal an equal divergence of opinion; but the vote in New Hampshire has shown, and all signs show, that the constituents trust the Congress and are ready to follow its lead because they sympathize fully with its motives.

By a vote of the Board of Aldermen of this city the flags on the City Hall were displayed from sunrise to sunset on Saturday, "to encourage the Irish people to perseverance in their efforts to drive the oppressor from their native land." The efficacy of this sort of aid and comfort of course remains to be seen. It is evidently cheaper than pikes, or gunpowder, or howitzers, or an iron ram; and if it shall prove to have carried terror to the heart of the British Empire, it will be justly regarded as the grandest improvement in modern warfare.

According to the census of 1860, Illinois produced only six bales of cotton, or from 2,500 to 3,000 pounds. Three years later there were shipped at her railroad stations 100,000 pounds, the next year 400,000, and last year 1,600,000. The total yield, however, for 1865 is estimated at 5,000,000 pounds, or 10,000 bales—twice as much as was exported annually from the whole country at the beginning of the century, twice as much as was grown by Kentucky, and nearly as much as by Virginia, in 1860. The laborers engaged in cultivating this staple are mostly negroes, familiar with the process. The cotton itself is said to equal that of Tennessee in quality.

A part of the miners of Nye County, Nevada, have undertaken a strike, the object of which is to compel their employers to discharge and refuse to employ all Cornishmen. They threaten to expel the latter forcibly from the county if their demand is not complied with. Hitherto only Chinese, Mexicans, and Negroes have been made the subjects of this kind of persecution. The next move may be against grey-eyed men or men over five feet seven in height, if they happen to be in the minority. In California a warm discussion of the eight-hour question is going on. The proprietors of a large woollen mill employing Chinese labor have publicly announced that if the proposed eight-hour law is enacted, they will be obliged to suspend operations, as they cannot compete with the mills in Oregon which would not be subject to the same interference.

Five years ago as many living presidents of Harvard College were able to be grouped on one photographic plate—Quincy, Sparks, Everett, Walker, and Felton. Mr. Sparks's death last week leaves Dr. Walker the only survivor. The event belongs not more to the annals of the university than of our national literature, which the deceased enriched in many ways, and most imperishably in editing the writings of Washington and the works of Franklin.

The Reciprocity Treaty with Canada has expired, and Canada now stands in the same relation to us commercially as the rest of the world. There is still some prospect of an arrangement, however, in spite of the late failure. Every argument that can be urged in favor of admitting Canada to the Union, supposing she were to seek admission, may be urged with nearly equal force in favor of an agreement with her which shall relieve us of the duty of defending the whole frontier against smugglers. How would the removal of the political frontier line affect us? is a question which, if fairly answered, would shed a good deal of light upon the course to be now pursued.

Some soldiers and one or two policemen are in custody in Ireland charged with Fenianism, and it is generally believed that the Government is fully determined to execute the soldiers. The London *Spectator* hopes that the executions will be restricted to those who can be proved guilty of having enlisted, as some undoubtedly have, for the express purpose of spreading Fenianism in the army; but adds, "This is one of the very few political offences which a constitutional government is bound to treat as mortal crimes. No society could endure if men in uniform who taught mutiny were allowed to escape." This is evidently a mistake, as we have scores of such men all over the country who are leading very comfortable lives, and yet society seems to hold together in the United States. We confess, however, that we consider the impunity which has attended the numerous desertions from our army which took place in the beginning of the war, as something more dangerous and more scandalous by far than the impunity which has attended the crime of treason. Civilians may have been misled by the doctrine of State-rights. It is hard to see how any military man could have been misled by anything whatever. The military oath of service to the United States did not derive any of its validity from the presence of any State in the Union, and lost none of it by its absence, and it was binding as long as the United States had an army and a flag. The process by which General Lee and others endeavored to get rid of their responsibility was the merest farce. Resignation at the outbreak of a war for the express purpose of joining the enemy is desertion, and is treated as such by every civilized country.

Reports of the evidence taken by the special commission to Jamaica during their first fortnight's session have reached England. It is conclusive only of the barbarities practised under martial law in suppressing the so-called insurrection, not only in the name of just punishment, but inquisitorially, to elicit information against obnoxious persons. Men and women were flogged naked with the cat, braided for the former with wire, but for the latter—out of a delicate regard for the sex—only with cord. One grave-digger counted upwards of two hundred interments in four days. Gov. Eyre was examined for about an hour and a half, but in that short time betrayed the insufficiency of the grounds on which his intemperate action was based. It seems proved

that the rioters who sacked the court-house at Morant Bay were guiltless of any wanton mutilation of the bodies of their victims.

THE Germans are not a little chagrined because Prof. Buschmann, the royal librarian at Berlin, has swapped the original manuscript copy of the "Cosmos" for a place in the Legion of Honor. This precious document is in five volumes quarto, of which the fundamental text was written out by the professor from Humboldt's scattered and unassorted papers. The whole was then carefully revised by the author himself, and bears his corrections and interlineations on every page. The pretext for the gift on the part of the donor is that Humboldt spent many years of his life in Paris, engaged in scientific investigations, and that "the soul of the wonderful *savant* always belonged to France." So to France and the Emperor the work has gone and has been accepted, and whoever wishes to consult it hereafter must visit the Imperial library, in which it has been deposited.

MAZZINI has at last been elected at Messina, after failing at Genoa and at Naples. He received 446 votes. *La Nazione* sees nothing deplorable in the event, though viewed as an act of hostility to the Government. It thinks the name, authority, and even the prestige of the famous republican have had their day in Italy.

HISTORY not only persists in repeating itself, but sometimes at very short intervals. The patriotism of Italy is just now fervid over the New York *Herald* scheme for paying off national debts. An association has sprung up quite spontaneously, and will be satisfied with nothing less than extinguishing the public indebtedness at whatever sacrifice of private interests or with whatever derangement of the plans of M. Scialoja. Every town has its committees of subscription. Turin subscribed ten millions the first day, and Milan may be reckoned on for twenty. The parallel will probably not lack completeness by reason of the success of this most laudable enterprise.

THE Bishop of Castellamare, having visted Naples ostensibly to care for the souls of the faithful in his diocese during their exposure to the cholera, was more than suspected of having a secret understanding with the reactionists of that city. He was accordingly requested by the Government to return to Rome, and was escorted to the frontier by a brigadier, who, on parting, enquired if his most reverend excellency had any commands for him to carry back. "Tell your superiors," said the bishop, "that we shall shortly meet again at Naples." "If you will only favor me with your address at Rome," said the witty officer, "you need not be at any trouble; we will endeavor to find you there and ascertain your pleasure."

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, March 17, 1866.

THE interest excited by the postponement to Thursday of this week of the various propositions before the Senate for a constitutional amendment now centres in the new scheme submitted by Senator Stewart, of Nevada. This gentleman, elected as a Republican, has been acting with the conservatives ever since the "parting of the ways" upon the Freedmen's Bureau bill. His known sympathy with the President lends significance to the plan he proposes for solving the difficulties of reconstruction, although it is not certain that it is submitted with the approval of the Executive. He claims in its favor that it avoids the difficulty of a remote and probably impracticable constitutional amendment, and disclaims any purpose to coerce the South into a particular line of policy, while that policy, if voluntarily adopted by the rebel States, will restore the Union and secure all that the people of the loyal States, as now represented in Congress, have ever claimed. One of the conditions proposed is the extension of the elective franchise to the freedmen on the same conditions as to white men —except that white men who voted before the rebellion are not to be cut off by any new test of intelligence. It was on this unexpected proposition that Mr. Sumner welcomed the senator from Nevada "with open arms" to the ranks of the friends of negro suffrage, while Mr. Wilson announced himself ready to go with this new convert for "universal suffrage and universal amnesty." Yet it is perfectly well known that Mr. Stewart is earnestly hostile to negro suffrage, and he disclaimed, in presenting this scheme, any committal of himself on that point. He simply offered it as a proposition to submit to the South what he believed to be the opinion of the majority in Congress. Why Mr. Stewart should expect that opinion to be adopted by the votes of the late rebels does not clearly appear. One of two things must be the result of this proposition, if adopted: either the Southern States will adopt it in good faith, and make the freedmen really free in the fullest sense of the term—in which case they will falsify all past and present indications of their spirit and purpose; or else they will avail themselves of the legal loopholes for dishonesty and oppression which the scheme leaves open—amend their constitutions so as to enfranchise only the intelligent of all colors (which will leave about nine-tenths of the freedmen out of citizenship), comply with the other conditions at once, get themselves restored with full amnesty to all their rights in the Union, and then turn round and repeal all this legislation and make their constitutions what they were before. Is it not possible that the Massachusetts senators are a little too hasty in welcoming Mr. Senator Stewart's panacea. Is it any better than the State-rights heresy handsomely sugar-coated? Can we trust communities of traitors outside of a constitutional amendment, irrepealable except by the authority of the nation?

The narrow majority by which the loan bill was lost in the House on Friday night is significant of a renewal of the struggle the coming week. Adding Mr. Garfield (who voted with the majority so as to move to reconsider) to the votes for the bill, it was defeated by only three votes.

The civil rights bill of the Senate, with immaterial amendments, went through the House by the heavy vote of 111 to 38, and was immediately repassed by the Senate without calling the yeas and nays. It goes to the President to-day, and the indications all point to a widening of the breach between him and Congress by another veto. It is a pretty stringent bill, and makes the courts of the United States the supreme arbiters of the rights of the freedmen, who are protected by its provisions.

Another select committee has been appointed in the House, with Mr. Jenckes, of Rhode Island, as its chairman, to consider and report upon a re-organization of the civil service of the United States. The bill drawn by Mr. Jenckes proposes to make merit, and not political services or favoritism, the passport to office under the Federal Government. It contemplates a civil service commission, which shall examine all candidates for office with special reference to their fitness for such office, thus introducing a feature which has worked eminently well in England. It also makes the tenure of office dependent upon good behavior and efficiency, not as now, in too many instances, upon political subserviency and the relinquishment of all personal independence. There is no doubt that Mr. Jenckes's bill ought to pass, properly amended so as to secure a thorough overhauling of the qualifications of all those now in office. This done, and the public service once purged of political partizans destitute of business capacity, on the one hand, and of political eunuchs with not force enough to call their souls their own, on the other, we might dispense with a costly portion of our present demoralizing Government patronage, and place the remainder on an honest basis.

Petitions for the passage of an international copyright law continue to pour in, and are referred without debate to the Senate Committee on Foreign Relations. This is the first time the subject has been broached in Congress since 1860, when Mr. E. Joy Morris (our present minister at Constantinople) introduced a bill to give foreign authors a right to protection in the United States. It was never acted on, however, and the former bill of Mr. Clay (offered in 1838 and renewed in 1842) was defeated, before it came to a vote, by the persistent remonstrances of the narrower portion of American booksellers, printers, and publishers. Then, as now, the best men in the trade signed petitions in favor of properly guarded international copyright, satisfied that, in the long run, honesty is the best policy between nations as between individuals.

DIARY.

Monday, March 12, 1866.—In the Senate, the Military Committee reported adversely on a bill ceding to West Virginia the property of the U. S. at Harper's Ferry. Mr. Grimes offered a constitutional amendment apportioning representation upon numbers in each State, but whenever the elective franchise is denied to male citizens above 21 years, except for crime or disloyalty, the basis of representation in such State to be reduced in the proportion which the number of male citizens so excluded bears to the whole number of male citizens over 21. Mr. Wilson offered a constitutional amendment apportioning representatives according to number of male citizens over 21, who are qualified to vote by State laws, adding thereto citizens disfranchised for participation in rebellion, and persons of like age not naturalized; also, fixing the quota of representation at 100,000 inhabitants to each representative. Mr. Sumner offered a constitutional amendment to regulate apportionment of representation of like effect with the one offered by Mr. Grimes. The bill extending to three years the time within which goods may be withdrawn from bonded warehouses for payment of duties and sale, was reconsidered, opposed at great length by Mr. Sprague, amended so as to take effect May, 1866, and passed—ayes, 24; nays, 10. The bill for admission of Colorado was advocated by Mr. Stewart and opposed by Mr. Sumner.

In the House, Mr. Julian offered a bill to fix eight hours as a day's work in the case of laborers employed by the Government of the United States. Mr. Spalding offered a joint resolution declaring that United States notes not bearing interest shall not be exempt from taxation by State or municipal authority. Referred to the Committee of Ways and Means, after rejecting a motion to lay on the table—yeas, 42; nays, 90. Mr. Shellabarger offered a resolution instructing the Judiciary Committee to report on the constitutionality and propriety of disfranchising by United States law, and rendering incapable of holding office, all persons disloyal to the Government or who have engaged in rebellion. Referred. Mr. Morrill reported back from the Ways and Means Committee the resolution imposing fifty per cent. additional duties on imports, with a recommendation that it be laid on the table. Agreed to. The bill to regulate trade with British North America was debated and amended, after which the enacting clause of the bill was stricken out—yeas, 76; nays, 52. This defeats the bill. Mr. Jenckes offered a resolution for a select committee to consider the subject of the civil service of the United States, and report measures to promote its efficiency. Adopted, and the committee was appointed by the Speaker. The Committee on Roads reported adversely on a bill declaring the bridge over the Hudson a highway, and it was laid on the table. The bill making appropriations for fortifications for the ensuing year was discussed and amended.

March 13.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner presented a petition, signed by many authors and editors of the United States, for the passage of an international copyright law. Referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations. Mr. Sherman offered a joint resolution providing that the outstanding issue of United States notes not bearing interest shall not be diminished below $420,000,000; that all surplus in the Treasury beyond $40,000,000 in coin and $40,000,000 in currency shall be promptly applied to liquidate debt; and that the amount of interest-bearing legal tenders shall not be diminished by payment or conversion at a rate exceeding $5,000,000 per month. Referred. Mr. Lane, of Kansas, offered a resolution instructing the Judiciary Committee to report on or before Thursday next the following five amendments to the Constitution: 1. Basing representation on males over twenty-one years of age; 2. Apportioning direct taxes on the actual value of property in each State; 3. Pledging the faith of the country to the full redemption of the public debt; 4. Prohibiting the United States Government or the States from paying any of the rebel debt; 5. Prohibiting the general and State governments from paying for any slave property. Laid over. The bill for the admission of Colorado as a State was discussed by Messrs. Pomeroy, McDougall, Trumbull, Cragin, Ramsay, Williams, and Lane, of Kansas, in its favor, and Messrs. Grimes, Hendricks, Wade, Sumner, Doolittle, and Conness against it. The leading arguments against admission were an insufficient and declining population (being from 15,000 to 25,000 inhabitants), that the elective franchise is confined by the constitution of Colorado to white men (insisted on by Mr. Sumner), and that the enabling act, passed by Congress in 1864, had not been complied with. The bill to admit the State was then rejected—yeas, 14; nays, 21.

In the House, Senate bill to amend the act incorporating the National and Military Asylum was passed. The House concurred in the Senate amendments to the bill extending to three years the time for withdrawal of bonded goods, and the bill was passed. The Judiciary Committee reported back the bill to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights, with amendments. The principal provision of the bill is that all persons born in the United States are declared to be citizens, and shall have, without distinction of race or color or previous condition of servitude, the same rights of person and property as enjoyed by white citizens, any law to the contrary notwithstanding. The bill was passed—yeas, 111; nays, 38. The Judiciary Committee reported back the joint resolution providing that neither Congress nor any State shall ever provide for payment for emancipated slaves, with slight amendments, which were concurred in, and the resolution recommitted. The fortification appropriation bill was discussed, amended, and passed. The House took up the joint resolution to provide for expenses attending the exhibition of the products of industry of the United States at the Paris Exposition of 1867. Mr. Banks made an elaborate speech in its favor. Mr. Ashley offered a constitutional amendment basing representation on numbers, provided that whenever male citizens of the United States over twenty-one years shall be excluded from voting in any State (except for rebellion) the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number excluded bears to the whole number of male citizens over twenty-one years in such State. Referred.

March 14.—In the Senate, a bill was passed, granting lands to aid in constructing a railroad from Placerville, Cal., to Nevada. The bill to increase and fix the military establishment of the U. S., was taken up. An amendment was adopted authorizing the President to detail army officers to act as presidents or professors in colleges having 150 students or upwards, for the purpose of promoting military education. The bill was passed—yeas, 27; nays, 5.

In the House, the Senate bill to authorize appeals from the Court of Claims to the Supreme Court was passed. The bill to relieve officers acting under military authority from responsibility for their acts, and for trial of such cases in the U. S. courts instead of State courts, was advocated by Mr. Cook and opposed by Mr. Harding, of Ky. The joint resolution appropriating $100,000 for the expenses of a representation of American products at the Paris Exposition of 1867 was advocated by Messrs. Chanler, Grinnell, Raymond, and Garfield, and opposed by Messrs. Washburne, Harding, Le Blond, and Whaley. The resolution was then passed—yeas, 70; nays, 50.

March 15.—In the Senate, a long debate sprang up on a motion to print 10,000 copies of the report and testimony before the Joint Committee on Reconstruction. Mr. Davis charged the committee with unfairness in taking *ex parte* testimony, which was disproved by Mr. Fessenden, Mr. Johnson, and other members. The bill to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights, with the amendments adopted by the House, was passed, without division, after a speech from Mr. Davis denouncing it as overriding the State laws of Kentucky, which provide different punishment for whites and blacks. The deficiency appropriation bill was amended and laid over.

In the House, the Indian appropriation bill was reported and made a special order for March 22. The loan bill was taken up, and debated by Mr. Wentworth in its favor and Mr. Hulburd against it.

March 16.—In the Senate, several petitions were presented praying for equality of rights throughout the country. A message was received from the President, communicating information called for by the Senate as to alleged kidnapping of freedmen. Mr. Stewart offered a joint resolution, providing that each of the States lately in rebellion shall be recognized as having resumed its relations with this Government, and its representatives shall be admitted to Congress, whenever it shall have amended its constitution so as to provide—1, That there shall be no distinction in civil rights among its citizens by reason of race or color or previous condition of servitude; 2, That all debts incurred in aid of the rebellion shall be repudiated; 3, That all claim for compensation for liberated slaves shall be relinquished; and 4, That the elective franchise be extended to all persons on the same terms, irrespective of race, color, or previous condition, provided that none be disfranchised who were qualified voters in 1860; and that upon these conditions being ratified by a majority of the present voting population of each State (including all qualified to vote in 1860), a general amnesty shall be proclaimed as to all who engaged in the rebellion. Referred. The deficiency appropriation bill was passed. The naval appropriation bill was considered and amended. Adjourned to March 19.

In the House, a number of private bills were passed. The loan bill was taken up and speeches made in its favor by Messrs. Garfield, Morrill, Allison, Spalding, and Darling, and by Messrs. Pike, Price, Boutwell, Stevens, Lynch, Baker, and Lawrence against it. An amendment repealing all acts authorizing the withdrawal from circulation of U. S. notes not bearing interest, and making all bonds hereafter issued payable, principal and interest, in lawful money, was lost. On motion of Mr. Morrill, the clause of the bill authorizing the bonds negotiated abroad to be made payable, principal and interest, in the currency of those countries, at an interest not over 5 per cent., was stricken out. Mr. Stevens moved to lay the bill on the table. Lost—yeas, 37; nays, 98. Mr. Stevens offered a substitute, authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to sell bonds under act of March 3, 1865, to such an amount, and at such rates (not less than par) as he may choose, and use the proceeds only for retiring Treasury notes or other obligations bearing interest; also repealing all laws authorizing the funding or withdrawal from circulation of legal tender notes not bearing interest. This was defeated—yeas, 61; nays, 75. The question was then taken on the loan bill, and it was lost—yeas, 65; nays, 70.

March 17.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Hill, Dumont, Anderson, and others. Adjourned to March 19.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE Bureau, acting on timely information, dispersed a large gathering of sharpers at City Point, Va., in anticipation of the mustering out of the 2d U. S. Colored Cavalry. The men were induced to deposit their pay and bounty money in the Freedmen's Savings-Bank, subject to their order. Nearly every soldier of this regiment had learned to read and write while in service. Far less provident was the 104th U. S. C. I., mustered out at Charleston, which deposited only $1,500 out of more than $130,000 which were paid to it. But in this case the officers themselves were engaged in defrauding their late command with bogus jewelry and by other means. The 128th Colored Regiment, which has just been paid off, deposited $15,000, in addition to $50,000 already to its credit from its last preceding payment. In this case, also, the entire regiment had learned to read and write since its organization.

General Sprague reports an increase in the number of dependent refugees and a decrease in the number of dependent freedmen in Missouri and Arkansas during the month of January. Although there is a great scarcity of food, the demand for labor is such that all who are able and willing to work may obtain employment for the coming year at good wages. Large numbers of freedmen are being brought into Arkansas from Georgia and other States, and hired on lower terms than those who were already on the spot. The regularly organized schools of Arkansas comprise 1,361 colored children, and many besides are taught in plantation schools.

Gen. Tillson reports from Augusta that, in a tour among the Sea Islands, he found nearly all the questions between the freedmen there and the former white residents to have been amicably settled. In many instances the latter have returned to their homes, and the freedmen without grants of land have cheerfully gone to work for them. The

commissioner is of the opinion that, in the present scarcity of labor, it is more profitable for the blacks to work for wages than to attempt to cultivate lands for themselves with inadequate means. There is great need in South Carolina of a sufficient military force to ensure the prompt arrest of criminals, with such an organization of the United States courts as shall place all classes on an impartial footing before the law. President Johnson has assured Mr. George T. Downing that no sudden change will be allowed to affect the occupancy of the lands to which Gen. Sherman gave a possessory title.

During the month of February 2,181 freed people were treated medically in the District of Columbia. Of this number, 72 died, and 1,384 were discharged cured. Sanitary precautions are in progress in Washington, in view of the cholera. All the houses and barracks occupied by the freed people are to be cleansed thoroughly and whitewashed, and all lanes and alleys cleared of rubbish and dirt. Vaccination has been applied in 2,056 cases among the freedmen of the District, and an effort is making to extend it to the entire colored population. The small-pox is spreading with considerable rapidity in many parts of South Carolina.

A large number of colored laborers have been, in answer to applications, distributed from Washington to all parts of the country—frequently 20, 40, 50, and even 100 at a time. The excessive accumulation in that city, therefore, has been much diminished, to the relief of those who remain. The latter have been visited with a sort of panic, having heard that these transportations were into slavery again. Pains have been taken to disabuse them of their error.

They are about to organize normal schools at Jacksonville and St. Augustine, Fla., to prepare colored girls for teachers.

A colored church, newly finished, and used for school purposes also, situated a short distance from Norfolk, Va., was burned down a few nights ago, in all probability by an incendiary.

Outrages upon the colored people in Maryland continue, and the perpetrators cannot be reached by law.

G. L. Eberhart, State Superintendent of freedmen's schools in Georgia, invites the co-operation of the various aid societies of the North in sending teachers and missionaries to that State, so that they may be ready to begin work by Oct. 1. He recommends each to select one of the large cities for its special charge. Savannah will furnish not less than 2,000 pupils, Augusta 1,500, Atlanta 1,200, Macon 1,600, Columbus 1,000. These five will require 100 teachers, of whom a fifth should be men, with particular reference to the night-schools—the only opportunity for adults.

—There was a mass meeting of colored people at Hampton, Va., on the 13th instant, to listen to the exposition of a scheme for transporting them to Florida in order to relieve the overcrowded peninsula and improve the material condition of the colonists. Major-General Miles and other officials addressed the assembly, but their advice was denounced by other speakers, among whom Mr. Calvin Pepper, a lawyer, of Norfolk, was prominent. The decision was to stay—not unnaturally, though perhaps not wisely.

Minor Topics.

We have received the following note from Mr. George H. Hall:

To the Editor of The Nation:

Your art critic, in noticing my fruit-pieces, says "his purple is shaded not with darker purple, but with grey." If he will hang a bunch of purple grapes against a grey wall, he will see, as I did, that its shadows are filled with grey reflections.

The American artist bears with patience a great deal of crude writing published by so-called art critics, and I think it only fair that he should sometimes expose the ignorance of these oracular gentlemen.

Yours respectfully, Geo. H. Hall.

We at first thought of refusing it insertion as an act of kindness to Mr. Hall himself, because we fear the last paragraph will not raise his temper in public estimation, and it certainly cannot serve his pictures. One can accomplish no more by telling a critic he is an ignoramus than by telling an artist or an author that he is an ass. The process to be gone through in all these cases was well described some years ago, we believe, in "Household Words," in a controversy between two pot-house politicians: "'Prove it,' says I. 'Facts proves it,' says he. 'Prove *them*,' says I." Whatever authors and artists may think or expect, the public will never accept the theory that a critic is *primâ facie* unworthy of attention because he is a critic and not a painter or a historian or a poet. It is now too late to get people to believe that nobody can form a correct opinion of works of art who is not capable of producing them. The fact unfortunately is, that it is the opinions of those who were neither poets nor artists which have built up all the great reputations that ever existed, and consigned all the daubers and rhymesters to obscurity or oblivion. And we must protest against the notion that the artist himself is the best judge whether his coloring is good or his drawing correct. If no one were allowed to differ with him on this point, of course every picture that is painted or that ever was painted would be a masterpiece. It is the critics after all—that is, in the vast majority of cases, men who can neither paint nor draw—who give an artist his fame or sentence him to damnation. We should like to know what artist has ever acknowledged that an unfavorable judgment passed on his picture by a fellow-man, whether lay or professional, was well founded?

We think, for our part, that American artists display in the matter of criticism an absurd and, let us add, very raw sensitiveness. We deny that they "bear with patience a great deal of crude writing," or any other kind of writing, about their pictures, that is not laudatory. They find themselves now, for the first time, subjected to the ordeal of hostile, perhaps often over-censorious, comment—something to which the artists of other countries have been exposed for two centuries, but no more think of flying into a rage about than they do of blubbering. We do not know any better proof of immaturity and "greenness" than a tendency on the part of either author or artist to lose temper over the public expression of unfavorable opinions of his work, and anybody who finds this tendency still strong in him may feel satisfied that his education in his profession is still far from complete.

There is one thing that artists should bear in mind, and that is that pictures are not put on exhibition for sale simply, like fish or butter. They are to be seen and commented upon. People will differ in opinion about them. Some will think them masterpieces—others daubs; and some people will publish these opinions, and others simply retail them at the dinner-table or in the club. But no matter where or how they may be expressed, the artist has no right to complain, much less to lose his temper or feel personally aggrieved, unless his motives or his character are assailed. The mere fact of exhibition is a challenge to criticism. If a critic says that he thinks either color, or drawing, or expression, or thought is bad, why it is simply an invited expression of opinion; and there is nothing more certain—we mention it for Mr. Hall's consolation—than that no good painter was ever yet written down by one critic or two or three. In fact, any criticism, let it be ever so hostile, is of service to any artist who has any merit at all. It leads to discussion; it causes the public to examine his work more carefully; and, if it is good work, of course the more it is examined, the better it will appear; if it is bad work, the interest of art requires that it be driven out of the field, and the artist be convinced of his own shortcomings as soon as possible. And we must remind Mr. Hall that if the artists have had to bear with a good deal of "crude writing," the critics and the public have had to bear with a monstrous deal of crude painting. People do see now and then historical pictures that are none the better for having had the subject strained through the artist's imagination; figure-pieces of all kinds that are simply bits of maudlin sentiment or affectation; fruit and flower pieces which, in spite of the artist's having taken the greatest pains with the coloring, are not well colored, after all, and are not so considered by the public, and will adorn the trunk-rooms of posterity. Of course, in saying all this, we neither express nor imply any judgment on Mr. Hall's work.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

CONGRESS AND THE COUNTRY.

It is beginning to be understood even by those who, after the Freedmen's Bureau bill had been vetoed, were most disposed to conclude that President Johnson had, for some reason or other, more to do with the work of reconstruction than Congress, that his message did not by any means cover the whole ground, and that there is a great deal to be said in defence of the reluctance of Congress to admit Southern representatives, which is not by any means fully met by a dry statement of the constitutional objections to taxation without representation or trial without a jury. The more people reflect, the better satisfied they are that that branch of the Government, whose function it is to deliberate and debate as well as to legislate, and which is from its very nature in closer contact with the country and better informed of its thoughts and feelings from day to day than the Executive can possibly be, is the branch which has and ought to have most to do with such a work of re-organization as is now before us. We think, for our part, that not only ought the President not to flatter himself that the work of reconstruction is in an especial manner his work, but he should never have entered upon it at all without calling Congress together. He is empowered by the Constitution to convene both Houses on "extraordinary occasions," and if the overthrow of the rebellion was not an extraordinary occasion, calling for the exercise of this power, all we can say is, that we do not believe one is ever likely to occur. No government has ever entered on a task so important as that which Mr. Johnson found before him when Lee laid down his arms. It was one, too, for which he was not chosen by the people, and it is casting no reflection either on his honesty or ability to say that he would not have been chosen for it, and that he was not thought of for it by anybody. It was one such as, we will add, we do not believe any constitutional ruler has ever before ventured to charge himself with alone and unaided. The President ought not to have allowed one week to elapse after Mr. Lincoln's death without calling Congress together, hearing what it had to say about the crisis, and submitting his plans for its approval. If this was not necessary at such a time, we repeat that Congress is a useless institution, and ought to be got rid of. If the President is competent to do the work of reconstruction single-handed, he is competent to do the whole work of government single-handed.

We think the country is gradually awakening to a just perception of the real state of the case, and its reluctance to believe in the ability of one man to manage its affairs has certainly been strengthened by the occasional exhibitions which Mr. Johnson has lately given of his want of temper and discretion. His career has, in fact, furnished one more illustration of the folly of believing that any man, no matter what his character or capacity, is fit for the exercise of absolute power, such as he is now in effect exercising over half the continent. He has exercised it as far as the South is concerned, we confess, with a great deal of moderation, but it has evidently warped his judgment with regard to his own relations to Congress and to the rest of the country.

The public, though perhaps not as sensible of the importance of having Congress share in the work of reconstruction, when the war was over, as it ought to have been, was nevertheless, when Congress did meet, fully prepared to stand by it and see that its policy, whatever it was, should have a fair trial, and that Mr. Johnson's plan should undergo such modifications as it might deem necessary. But then it was assumed that Congress would have a policy. It has now, however, sat for nearly four months, and has nothing of the kind. We hear a great deal of the President's policy; it is something definite, determined, capable of being set down in black and white and discussed in all its bearings; but we never hear of the policy of Congress, because there is no such thing. The people are ready to keep the South out until it complies with certain conditions, but they want to know what these conditions are. They are ready to see that the South does not share in the work of government until it has given signs of repentance and reform, but they want to have these signs fixed and described. Congress has agreed upon none. The Reconstruction Committee has produced several valuable measures, each of them meeting some great want of the crisis, but not forming part of any well-defined plan, and not based on any well-defined principle, and nobody is willing to have the reconstruction process consist of a parcel of patches of various hues and textures. We have had a prodigious deal of spouting about the position of the States, whether in or out of the Union, the history of the war, the guilt of the rebellion, and the eternal fitness of things, but no complete and well-proportioned scheme has yet been set forth on which people could lay hold, or the drift of which, or the relations of which to our theory of government, they could see. In fact, a large proportion of the debates have been rhetorical exercises of about the same practical value as a discussion of Sir Thomas More's celebrated moot-point, "whether beasts of the plough can be replevined in withernam."

In truth, there has been only one thing on which the Union party has been thoroughly agreed, and that is, the propriety of keeping the revolted States out for the present; and this is all very well as far as it goes, but it does not go very far. It is simply the excavation for the foundation of the new building. The public is now anxiously waiting to see the structure rise, and it will be no wonder if it is soon tired of watching the builders who have contracted for the job pass their time in wrangling month after month, down in the hole, over the style of the architecture; no wonder if it is soon disposed to let Mr. Johnson or anybody else go to work, who promises to put up immediately a fabric of some sort which will afford shelter.

There is one thing more which causes the public to look with doubt upon the ability of Congress to meet the emergency, which is, that while it fails to unite intelligently upon any general policy, it shows a great readiness to be led. The most prominent man has been Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, and he has certainly, by sheer force of audacity and energy, earnestness and certain powers of vigorous speech, carried things with a high hand. But then, it must be confessed, the public has not been impressed by his performances with a very high estimate of his statesmanship. His ideas of government do not seem a whit clearer than his ideas of political economy, and it is a curious illustration of the advantage which the quality of mere pluck gives a man in Congress, that he carried the other day a change in the duty on coal—knowing absolutely nothing of the principles of taxation—against Mr. Morrill, who has made them a special study. His speeches throughout the whole session have been one long tirade against the South and its advocates, justifiable, perhaps, and well enough in its way; but very few people are disposed to accept them from the chairman of the Committee on Reconstruction as a substitute for a thoroughly studied, practical, and complete plan of reconstruction. Invective is a very spicy thing, but then people tire of spices. Even drunkards get sick of whiskey by having a little of it put in all their food.

More serious work than we have yet had must now begin. If it does not—if a greater willingness is not displayed by individuals to serve in the more obscure positions, and to unite upon some comprehensive plan—we greatly fear the coming fall will find the public thoroughly out of patience with Congress and quite ready to let the President and his friends have their own way. He would be a bold man who should venture to predict what would then happen, or to calculate how much of the fruits of our victories would be left us.

THE STATUS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES.

There are no questions of political law more important at the present time, and none upon which there is more confusion of ideas, than those which pertain to the civic rights of the States lately in rebellion. What is their political *status?* Are they States at all, or only territories? If they are not States, when did they cease to exist as such? If they are States, what are their rights? Are they entitled to elect members of Congress? Do they stand upon an equal footing with New York, Pennsylvania, and Ohio? If so, why does Congress exclude their representatives even for a day?

These are questions which are constantly and naturally asked.

"Governor" Perry, Mr. Vallandigham, the New York *World*, and the New York *Times* find no difficulty in answering them. According to these authorities, the answer to all such questions depends upon the answer to one, namely, Are these States *in* or *out* of the Union? If they are in the Union, it is confidently asserted that they must needs be entitled to all their ancient rights. If they are out of the Union, then it is said the war for the Union has failed of its purpose.

This fallacious reasoning, transparent as it seems to us, misleads a large portion of the loyal people, and confuses yet more. Let us carry it to its full extent, and it will be easily seen through.

A large part of Louisiana is kept from total submersion by water, only by a long line of dykes. Let us suppose that the *whole* State was in the like condition. Let us further suppose that, in order to carry out military operations, it became necessary to break down all these dykes, and to submerge the whole State, so that it should become permanently uninhabitable. Would the war have been necessarily a failure because Louisiana was destroyed? True, the war was not undertaken for the purpose of destroying a State, but neither was it undertaken for the preservation of a State. It was not commenced for the purpose of spending three thousand millions of dollars or of sacrificing five hundred thousand lives. It was waged to preserve the *nation*, and this was meant to be done whether the lives of individuals or of States should perish or not. So much for the argument from the supposed "failure of the war."

But, in truth, all that is said about States being "in or out" of the Union is utterly irrelevant to the argument. The Territory of Colorado is surely in the Union, notwithstanding it has not been admitted as a State. Does any citizen of a Territory find any difficulty in obtaining a passport as a citizen of the United States? Were not the residents of Louisiana admitted to all the rights of citizenship, by treaty, long before they organized a State government? These considerations dispose also of the argument that the election of Mr. Johnson proves that Tennessee was a State then in existence. There is nothing in the Constitution which prevents the election of a citizen of Nebraska or the District of Columbia to the Presidency. Nor is there anything in the fact that Mr. Johnson continued to act as a senator of the United States, after his State had become disorganized, which binds Congress now to recognize the continued existence of that State. It was a favorite doctrine of Henry Clay that every member of Congress represented the whole nation, and not merely his own particular State or district. This doctrine is unquestionably the true one, and has been gradually acquiesced in by all parties, though vehemently denied at first. It follows that no member can be deprived of his seat (except by regular process of expulsion), even if the entire State or district from which he comes should be swallowed up by earthquake or inundation. Much more is he entitled to remain, if he chooses, after his State has lost its corporate existence.

Coming then to the conclusion that the controversy is not to be disposed of by one or two phrases, let us consider what are the facts upon which it turns.

For the purpose of our present argument, we lay aside all considerations founded upon the belligerent attitude of the South, and dismiss entirely all question as to the effect of State rebellion upon State rights. Waiving these, the following facts remain:

1. That Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, and Texas elected regular State conventions, which, according to the universal law of this country, had a right to make any changes in their frame of government not prohibited by the Constitution of the United States.

2. That these conventions adopted ordinances declaring that their respective States were no longer within the Union, striking out the words "United States" wherever they occurred in their constitutions and laws, and substituting the "Confederate States" therefor, absolving all State officials from their oaths to support the Constitution of the United States, and requiring them to take oaths of allegiance to the new State constitutions and to the "Confederate States."

3. That Tennessee passed similar ordinances, only by her legislature instead of by a convention.

4. That all these States repealed the laws providing for the election of Representatives to the Congress of the United States.

5. That all the officials of these States took an oath of allegiance to the "Confederate States," and renounced their allegiance to the United States.

6. That long before the rebellion ceased, the official term of every State officer within these States, who had ever taken the oath of allegiance to the United States, had expired; and no one held office in any of these States, by virtue of an election prior to the ordinances of secession, except, possibly, a few judicial officers.

Now, in the language of Chief-Justice Bronson (Indiana *v.* Woram, 6 Hill, 33), "that a State is a corporation cannot be doubted." Viewed as a corporation, can there be much question as to the legal effect of such a course of action as we have set forth above? Setting Tennessee aside for the present, the other States took every possible means to destroy their corporate existence. What more *could* they do than they have done? Acting through the most authoritative exponents which they could summon into existence, they declared their fixed determination not to exist any longer as States of this Union. They abolished every law of their own which gave them a place in the Union. They vacated every office held as an office of a State in the Union. They destroyed every right which they had to elect representatives to a Congress of the Union. They left not one shred of legal and constitutional government in existence. True, they believed that they could exist as governments outside of the Union; but they broke down all the bridges behind them, and perilled all upon the hazard of their opinion. The war has settled that they were mistaken upon this point, but it has not provided any remedy for their voluntary destruction of their own institutions. That act of folly must be repaired by regular constitutional processes.

It is said that the States did not lose their identity, although they rebelled. But a State, like any other corporation, may cease to exist, although all its powers are assumed, all its property taken, and all its officers continued, by another corporation bearing precisely the same name. Thus, a number of banks in New York, which were organized many years ago under special charters, re-organized under the general act of 1838, without the slightest change in name, stockholders, officers, property, or business. A few years ago the question arose, in an action brought by one of these banks, whether it was one and the same corporation throughout. The courts held, without a shadow of doubt, that it was not, and that the new corporation was as distinct from the old as a son is from his father. Just so Virginia, as a State of the Union, is totally distinct from the Virginia which professed to exist as an independent or Confederate State. Nor does the fact that Virginia, as a Confederate State, never had a legal existence, have the least tendency to prove that the former Virginia did not destroy itself.

The case of Tennessee, as we have said, differs from that of the other revolted States in the fact that no convention was held therein. But all legal government was destroyed there for four years as effectually as in any other State, and, practically, it stands upon the same footing as the rest, except that its constitution remained unaltered, if a constitution can survive the destruction of all government under it.

In all these States, then, there was no civil government, no civil law, no civil administration of affairs, for years. Nevertheless, it is claimed that, by virtue of some undefined principle of immortality, the States outlived all the forms of government and law which are usually supposed to constitute a State.

Can a State continue to exist without a government or any lawful means of electing one? Can it exist after its people have, in a regular and proper method, declared their will that it shall *not* exist? Is there any self-acting power in a State government that keeps it alive after it has taken every conceivable means to put an end to itself? Were our forefathers wrong when they declared the right of the people to change, alter, or *abolish* the form of government at will, and can we only change, and *not* simply abolish?

These are questions which the supporters of the President's policy never discuss. But they are practical questions, and the President has himself conceded a great part of our position upon them. He has uniformly assumed that there were no legal governments in the rebel States after the passage of their ordinances of secession, and that not a single office, from governor down to

pound-keeper, was legally filled in any of these States when the rebellion ceased, except where Mr. Lincoln had re-organized their governments. The only difference between our conclusions and his theory is, that he believes in the continued existence of a State after its entire government has perished, while we hold, with Mr. Henry J. Raymond, that a State ceases to exist when its constitution and government are destroyed.

The real points in controversy are, whether the duty of restoring the States is a duty devolving on the President alone, or upon Congress, voting subject to his veto power (which we shall discuss hereafter), and, above all, what, as we pointed out two weeks ago, will be the effect upon the national safety of admitting the rebel States to their old places now?

CO-OPERATIVE SOCIETIES.

The eight-hour movement, regarded as an effort to secure to the mechanic or other craftsman larger opportunities for physical, intellectual, and moral culture, to do his duty better by his family, to qualify himself more thoroughly for the responsibilities of citizenship, and withal to produce finer work and to multiply the aids of the human muscle in every branch of industry, is one of the most hopeful auguries of social progress. The modes by which these advantages are sought to be obtained must be considered apart. A special commission appointed by the Massachusetts legislature to investigate this subject, after gathering all the testimony they could attract to their public sittings, decided adversely to any legislation in the direction proposed. They did, however, commend the hours of labor to the humane revision of employers, and to the great body of working-men the advancement of their cause "by temperate and industrious habits, by ambition in work and in workmanship, by the practice of that economy that will help them *to become their own capitalists*, by co-operative labor, securing to each workman a share in the profits of his work, by associations for mutual *good* as well as mutual gain." In these remarks the commission alluded to certain combinations of working-men abroad, which have been remarkably successful, and the success of which seems to be in a great degree due to the incorporation of a principle in their basis of organization to which it is important that the attention of our own working-men should be called. It is expressed in the following words: "The aim of this society is to elevate the moral and social condition of its members by receiving from them voluntary subscriptions for the purchase in common of groceries, clothing, etc."

Having no concern with speculation, they are able to bring the producer and the consumer together at the cheapest possible rates, and thus save directly the profits of the ordinary middle-men, the wholesale and retail dealers. They have a custom which does not fluctuate, and which can always be calculated to a nicety. As they buy, so they invariably sell, for cash, equally avoiding the perils of a credit system for themselves, and rescuing their patrons from its demoralizing effects. Another safeguard consists in their trading only in the necessaries of life; another economy, in their dispensing with advertisements. They have nothing to fear from the competition of capitalists, because there can be none unless the latter reduce their prices to the level of the societies', or, what is the same thing, share their profits with their customers; which would be in itself a triumph of the co-operative principle. As a fact, the societies sell their goods at current prices, and their dividends are paid not every day, with each purchase, but quarterly.

It is upon the last-mentioned practice that the usefulness of these societies hinges. It lifts them out of the category of soulless or purely mercenary corporations, and enables them to accomplish the beneficent design of their foundation. They are, in the first place, converted into savings-banks, with tickets for certificates of deposit. The working-man buying his pound of meal or of sugar is spared the constant struggle between his desire to hoard and the temptation to neglect a trifling gain. Without his own interposition or an effort of his will, or a step—very often the step which costs—from his lodgings to the bank, the saving is made. At the end of the quarter, when the amount to his credit may be something respectable, he has only to decline withdrawing it, and the accumulation goes on. It might go on indefinitely except that this would be to create riches rather than suppress poverty, and there is accordingly a limitation on these deposits. But the habit of thrift is sufficiently inculcated to ensure the social melioration of which it is always the parent, not only in the immediate membership but in the public, alike permitted to buy at the societies' counters and share their profits, and thus extend their resources and their influence.

The Rochdale Pioneer Society was organized during a strike of the linen-weavers in 1844, and commenced business with a wheelbarrow load of provisions in a shop opened only on Saturday evenings, with service supplied by some of the members gratuitously. The first year's profits were £32. The failure not long after of a local savings-bank caused a great accession to the ranks of the society. In a single year the capital trebled; new shops were leased and kept open every day at all hours; the employees were salaried; a bakery and a shoe and clothing establishment were put in operation. The census of 1864 showed 4,747 members, with a capital of £55,221, buying for £151,221 and selling at £174,937, with a profit of £23,716. In March of last year the Pioneers laid aside £221 for the reserve fund and £124 for the educational department, and the rate of the quarterly dividend was twelve per cent. per annum.

The government of this society is thoroughly democratic, with only an exception in favor of the larger stockholders where certain offices are concerned. There is a president, a treasurer, a secretary, and counsellors. The names of candidates for admission must first be posted for the general inspection, and, if other conditions are satisfactory, compliance with the following makes a Pioneer of any one: He must subscribe for five shares at £1 each. The entrance fee is one shilling, which goes to the capital and is never returned to the member. Another shilling is placed to his account, and after that he must pay at least threepence a week or three shillings and threepence a quarter until the value of his shares is fully reimbursed. This process is seldom pursued at length, the party generally preferring to win his complete standing by larger instalments. Yet his share in the profits begins with the payment of the first shilling, and it is possible for him to make up the five pounds without further outlay by simply returning his proportion of the dividends. In drawing on deposits, two pounds ten shillings may be called for at pleasure, but greater sums only after previous notice.

In view of such handsome dividends as we have already mentioned, it is surprising to note the disposition of the profits before any division takes place. First, the cost of administration is reserved; then, interest on loans, if any exist; so much per cent. to compensate for the depreciation of the society's fortune; interest on the capital subscribed, never exceeding five per cent. Out of the surplus come the authorized expenditures, increase of the floating capital, purchase of goods, investments. Finally, two and a half per cent. is reserved from the remainder for the educational department. This consists of a library, a reading-room for newspapers, a hall for public meetings, lectures, and social reunions, at which tea, dancing, and singing are in order.

These statistics do not tell the whole story, but they at least show that it is possible for working-men, laboring under far greater difficulties than oppress them anywhere in America, to gain means of culture, and vastly improve their condition, without special legislation for the purpose. They demonstrate the practicability of so uniting the humble means of laboring men and women as, under good management, to build up a business which shall not only rival that of the wealthiest individuals, but which shall also have the glory of raising its contributors to a loftier plane of life, and to perhaps as great a delivery from grinding toil as is compatible with our present industrial instrumentalities.

WHY ARE OUR RAILROADS NOT LUXURIOUS?

We trust the completion of the Pacific Railroad, whenever it takes place, will lead to a radical reform in railroad accommodation. Whenever people will have to spend a week in the cars crossing the great central desert, with no opportunity and no inducement to stop and rest, even corporations, we should think, will acknowledge that they are bound to provide something better for passengers than is now offered them. We ought to have—and anybody who had had no experience of our

railroads, and drew his conclusions about their condition from what he knew of our manners and customs, would suppose that we had —the most comfortable and elegant railroad cars in the world; that the art of getting over great distances with a minimum of fatigue and inconvenience had been carried to a point of perfection amongst us such as is nowhere else witnessed. We have infused into the art of hotel-keeping a completeness and finish which before our day were unknown. Before the appearance of our great hotels, such accommodation as they now furnish to travellers was only attainable in Europe by persons of very great wealth. People of moderate means never sat down to such meals, in such rooms, or enjoyed or thought of enjoying such a variety of conveniences as were supplied before the war in nearly every city in this country for a sum which all but the poorest could afford to pay and did pay. And it is only within the last seven years that the English and French have thought of imitating us in this. The Lord Warden Hotel, Westminster Hotel, and Palace Hotel, and Grand Hotel, and Hotel du Louvre, are all copies of American models, though we admit they have in some respects improved on the originals. In like manner we were the first to do away completely with all distinctions of dress, and set everybody to "dress like a gentleman." This, we believe, is the only country in the world (the remark is, at least, true of the Northern States) in which there is not and never has been a costume peculiar to peasants and farmers or to persons of a certain condition in life. Every man, woman, and child amongst us dresses very nearly like every other man, woman, and child—that is, when they have their best clothes on. In the cities, of course, some wear richer material and indulge in a more fashionable cut, but it may be laid down as a general rule that there is no very marked difference in appearance between a mechanic in his best suit and a clergyman or a judge or a wealthy merchant in his. All dress well—better than any other people, as a whole, ever dressed—and, if anything, too extravagantly.

In like manner we have indulged in such hackney coaches as were never seen in any other country. The genuine American "hack," as it is to be found from Maine to California, a sort of modernized "glass coach," such as people went to court in in Queen Anne's day, surpasses with all its faults any other vehicle of a similar class in the world. It is warmer, better upholstered, more gorgeous to behold, better horsed, driven by a better-dressed rowdy, and costs more than the hack of any other country. It is, in fact, very much such a vehicle as noblemen in the Old World drive about in, barring the dirt. It is, of course, enormously expensive, unnecessarily heavy, and has one horse too many; but then, for some reason or other, the public has never shown a disposition to be content with anything less. We doubt very much whether the cab or fiacre, in which well-to-do people of the middle classes in London and Paris are content to go to parties and the theatre, would, if introduced here, meet with complete success. The hack would still flourish for many a day as the time-honored "carriage" of the American citizen.

The American barber's shop, too, is one of the most marked signs of democratic *exigence*. Nowhere else does a man who wants to be shaved find himself surrounded during the operation with so much buhl, ormolu, upholstery, and mirrors, and stretched on so easy a chair, and relieved of his beard with so much skill and consideration, and scoured with so many unguents, and "vivifiers," and "invigorators," and "purifiers." Anybody who has tried the resources of foreign shaving-shops knows what a barbarous and disgusting process shaving in them is—how coarse, and clumsy, and tedious, and uncomfortable. And the reason is that, in Europe, a small portion of the men have valets to shave them, and a very large portion like to imitate them, and pretend they have valets; so that nearly all shave in their own dressing-rooms, and leave the public barbers to the ignoble crowd. Here, on the other hand, every citizen in any of our large cities, who can raise ten or fifteen cents, can enjoy very much the same luxury which the European dandy enjoys when he gets out of bed, puts on his dressing-gown, and gets his John or his Thomas to put his chin in order for the day, to say nothing of the "Bay rum," of the virtues of which we doubt if any "bloated aristocrat" has any idea.

Now, why is it that while so much of what is the luxury of the few in other countries is here made the comfort of the many; while our people are, in some respects, the most self-indulgent in the world, the least trained in self-denial, they are content, or have to be content with railroad accommodation which may, with propriety and accuracy, be called piggish? How does it happen that while a hotel-keeper ransacks earth and air to provide dainties for anybody who can muster two or three dollars a day for his board and lodging, untold gold cannot find for anybody, on any railroad in the country, a window that opens easily, a stove that warms his feet, a place in which a woman or a decent man can be secure from the presence of rowdies and the squirting of tobacco juice? What is the reason that the average American citizen finds himself, on coming down to the railroad from his palatial hotel, dumped into a small room, dirty as a cattle-pen, close as an oven, and with as little provision for comfort as a police station? Why, when you go on a long journey on any of our great lines, is it impossible to find a seat that is not an instrument of mild torture, in which people's elbows and knees are protected from hard angles of wood, and in which a weary woman can find a place to lean her weary head against? Why, when she is able to sit up no longer, has she to throw herself on the bony shoulder of her "male protector," and snatch a little fitful sleep in postures that are as ludicrous as they are uncomfortable? Why is the American "refreshment saloon" a repulsive den, in which the food is literally thrown to the guests, and gobbled with almost as little profit for soul or body as if it were burnt in honor of Jupiter?

Arguing from analogy, one might fairly expect that in whatever way the Emperor of Russia travelled on railroads in Europe, Tom, Dick, and Harry would, with of course certain modifications, travel here. These gentlemen live at their hotels very much as he lives; drive about in much such carriages as he does; receive much the same kind of attention from the public valets; and have very much his notions of what comfort is. Now the Emperor of Russia, when he travels, has a special train, one car, we suppose like the saloon of a steamboat, in which he sits in a comfortable chair, walks about, or lies down on a sofa. Another carriage is a dining-room, in which he sits down at a well-furnished table to a good dinner, cooked on the train, and he takes this meal with his suite as easily and comfortably as if he were seated in the Winter Palace. Another car is a bedroom in which he can go to bed if he likes. Now, how is it that, with our enormous lines of railroad, our love of luxury, our riches, our power of organization, our inventiveness, our mania for travelling, we have as yet made no approach to the conversion of the railroad car into what it ought to be, and will be yet—a hotel on wheels? And not only this, but we have hardly carried it one degree beyond the common baggage-wagon. A square box, with the rudest kind of windows for the admission of the light—with no constant means of ventilation or of heating the feet—with no protection for the knees or elbows from the hard wood—with no more space for each passenger than is sufficient for a small person to squeeze into—with no provision for change of posture or of place—no arrangement for the supply of any refreshments except pop-corn, apples, and candy, is just the means of locomotion which we might expect an intelligent Red Indian to devise, if we once got him to acknowledge the necessity for any railroads at all. The answers to all these questions we must attempt hereafter.

EDUCATION IN THE LATE REBEL STATES.

The spirit of the great question of reconstruction is, when divested of all side issues, simply this: Will "the South," when re-admitted, be true to the Union, and will the Union men and negroes residing in the late rebellious States be allowed to remain undisturbed in their rights as citizens?

Passing over the promises of loyalty from people whose most frequent utterances at present, whether in the press, on the rostrum, or from the pulpit, are thinly disguised threats to renew rebellion, we would direct observation to the vigorous and apparently well-organized efforts now made in the Southern States to prevent the blacks from exercising their civil rights, by hindering them from learning to read—a subject appealing in many ways to the sympathy and sense of the North.

From the Vicksburg correspondence of the Memphis *Post*, dated

February 28, 1866, we learn that, according to the report of the Freedmen's Bureau of Mississippi, this petty persecution has been carried on with great energy in every part of the State. There are only eleven places in all the State that report schools for freedmen, and the fact that there are so few is certainly not owing to the want of vigorous efforts by the Bureau. In Columbus, the difficulties interposed by the citizens were so many that the schools were very soon closed. Many of the citizens informed their servants that if they sent their children to school, they, the servants, could not retain their places. In fact, this opposition to educating colored people has been uniform through the State, and is evidently organized with ability and sustained with strength. "In several places," continues the report, "the colored people have been allowed to hold *religious* meetings in basements of churches, or in old church buildings that were forsaken by the whites; but whenever they attempted to use these buildings for *schools* the white people have uniformly opposed it," except at Aberdeen, in which place, to its honor be it said, the town council actually encourages the schools. In most of the towns the municipal government is openly hostile to teaching the blacks. The following items of information on this subject are very significant:

"At Oxford the scheme has been rendered totally impracticable by the presence of Rev. Dr. Waddell, president of the Memphis University of Mississippi. The people have driven out from their place the missionary sent there, though he was a Southern man. They have fired four shots at an old Episcopal minister at Okolona, because he was teaching the colored people."

Every species of petty trick or prevarication is resorted to by the families employing negroes to prevent the latter from learning. "Colored persons are engaged as apologies for teachers; the family *promises* to teach; anything is resorted to rather than employ the hated Yankee school-teacher." But it requires only a limited knowledge of human nature to perceive that this opposition to teaching the blacks is the surest of all means to ensure their learning. Few persons are aware of a very singular fact, that within little more than a year the relations between the whites and the blacks in the Southern States, as regards the ability to read and write, are almost reversed. From the muster-rolls of the Union troops of Tennessee it is shown that in that State only one *white* man in eight, nine, or ten, according to his place of residence, can sign his own name; and this, according to General Benjamin F. Butler, who has examined sixty thousand names on similar rolls, is true of all the late rebel States. As the Union men of the South were generally more intelligent and better educated than the rebels, it is evident that this estimate is a very favorable one for the entire white population. In fact, there is not a country in Europe where the peasantry are so illiterate as the native whites of our Southern States—Ireland perhaps excepted, but not Russia or Italy. A paragraph has of late appeared in many American newspapers, lamenting the extreme ignorance of the French peasantry, from which it appears that in France from one-half to two-thirds of the people are unable to read or write. That is to say, the most illiterate Frenchmen are three times better educated than the white native Americans of our Southern States, or, at worst, are fifty per cent. higher in the scale of education! And it is a mistake to suppose that these ignorant Americans are all necessarily poor. In fact, there are very few *poor* whites there, since most of them have as much land as would make any Yankee rich unless he were extremely lazy. Even in Virginia it is a very common thing to find men owning from one to five thousand acres of excellent land who cannot sign their names to a deed.

Those who hold that the whole black race should be excluded from political rights, because some blacks are ignorant, have in the foregoing facts a hard nut to crack. Between white and black ignorance there is for political purposes no difference. Anybody to whom the latter is terrible, is bound to make provision for the former also, and is, in fact, logically precluded from talking of any electoral test whatever, except an intelligence test. While, too, the whites remain in contented ignorance, school-books, literally by the million, are being sent all over the Southern States and are purchased by, or given to, the "contrabands," and the reports recently submitted to Congress show that the books are not distributed in vain. If schools are broken up by town councils and put down by the influence of the reverend Waddells of Secessia, still the primer and the Bible are conned by the pine-knot light in the negro cabin or deep in the silent woods, for the *will* to learn is working in hundreds of thousands of simple minds, and they are still free enough to find the way easier than it was of old. Nothing is stranger than this persistent blindness of the late rebels to the fact that, so long as learning is a forbidden fruit, it will be sought for with a keen appetite. And it is sought for with such eagerness that it is no rash prediction to declare that in two years' time the South will present the extraordinary spectacle of an illiterate race claiming to be more refined and intelligent than one which can read and write!

CLERGYMEN'S SALARIES.

A PROMINENT religious journal, with abundant ability to procure information, and the strongest motives for ensuring its accuracy, publishes the following statement of the rates of compensation paid to clergymen in the State of Connecticut. The figures are taken from the minutes of the General Association. From these minutes it appears that three pastors have no pay whatever; one has $100; one, $200; one, $300; nine have $400; thirty-three, $500; one hundred and four, $1,000; forty, $1,500; sixteen, $2,000; four, $2,500; and three, $3,000 a year. No salary of more than three thousand is mentioned; the average remuneration in the several counties is given thus: in Windham Co., $653; in Tolland Co., $728; in Middlesex Co., $819; in New London, $848; in Litchfield, $880; in Fairfield, $1,044; in Hartford, $1,060; in New Haven, $1,127.

This statement respecting the condition of ministers of religion in New England, and, of all places, in Connecticut, the stronghold of New England orthodoxy, even where it excites no surprise, must awaken serious reflection on the religious state of the community. The largest salary mentioned in the table is insufficient for the support of a man and his family in days like these; and but three ministers receive that. Fifty-six receive what at the best is scarcely more than a pittance; and forty-six receive less than a pittance. These men must eat and drink, and have wherewithal they may be clothed, even if they are not over-anxious about such things. They must have a roof over their heads. They are generally, we may presume, married; at all events marriage is a privilege which cannot be refused them. They have families of children, large in proportion to the smallness of the stipend. They are, moreover, in most cases, educated men, whose mental furniture has cost money, and is so much capital invested in their profession. Their profession demands all their time, as at present conducted. It leaves no leisure for other means of obtaining a livelihood; and if it did leave leisure, it leaves no ability or aptitude for money-making pursuits. Its duties, by their very nature, disqualify men for practical affairs; they carry both mind and will far away into regions remote from every kind of market, even from the market of literature. Their time, their strength, their feelings, sympathies, efforts, even their flaccid purses, are incessantly and mercilessly drawn upon by all sorts of people, who make them do their work for them, and offer them no compensation, often not even gratitude, for important services. The poorest class in the community, they are the most pitifully fleeced class in the community.

It is urged that they are the most privileged class, too; that they are universally honored and beloved; that the best social position is cheerfully awarded to them as by right; that all doors are open to them; that they are admitted to intimacies such as no other class of men are indulged with; that they enjoy the distinction of being reckoned a purely disinterested and self-sacrificing order of men, whose reward is very certain in the next world and whose impecuniosity in this life is abundantly compensated by the wealth of good-will that is lavished upon them! All this is willingly conceded, so far as the social privilege and the parochial affections are concerned, but we cannot see the relevancy of such considerations to the case in hand, so long as all this social privilege and saintly fame amount to so much practical impoverishment. "Fair words butter no parsnips." In this case they cause the transfer of the parsnips to another man's mouth. A reputation for disinterestedness is a very fine thing, but it will not pay the shoemaker, or the schoolmaster, or the stationer, and it goes a very little way towards paying the bookseller. It is fair, perhaps, that one's love for his neighbor should make him rich for the next world, but his neighbor's love for him should put something in his pocket for this world; and this precisely it fails to do.

The argument that, on the whole, ministers receive about as much as they are worth, is plausible at the first glance, but it has no force. For why are they not worth more? Simply because they have no means to make themselves worth more. Their natures are starved by their povetry.

Mental nutriment cannot be obtained, for papers, magazines, pamphlets, books, the only and the indispensable food for the mind, are very expensive. They cannot enlarge their observation or increase their experience of the world by travel; they cannot profit by the stimulus of better minds, for they gain no access to the intellectual centres where such minds congregate. Their health suffers from enforced confinement to one spot summer and winter. No variety of scene or of influence changes their mood or refreshes their spirit. No inspiration from mountain or ocean gives them new hope and vigor. What can be expected from men shut under the cover of an exhausted receiver? Where is the stuff for sermons, or for prayers, or for spiritual consolation and quickening to come from? The spirit is powerful and should be put to its power; ministers should not be so well paid that they can dispense with it, or that it can dispense with them; but certain temporal conditions must be conceded in order that the spirit may work at all.

That these conditions are less faithfully met now than they were in former times, we have no right to say. Probably they are not. Perhaps the clergy are as much respected as they ever were. We have seen no proof that their stipend has anywhere been diminished. But that is not the point. The stipend should be greatly increased to meet the material and the intellectual demands of the time. The scale of prices in the intellectual world has kept up with the scale of prices in the physical world. It costs at least as much, in proportion to the requirements of the last generation, to keep a man's mind fully up to the standard of culture at present maintained, as to keep the man himself up to the same mark of animal comfort. The old salaries, even when eked out as they used to be with the minister's fire-wood or an occasional barrel of potatoes, are not enough, nor anything like enough. Ministers *never were* paid sufficiently; and the reason why they are not paid sufficiently now must, in our judgment, be sought, not in any local or incidental change in the public mind towards them; not in any altered relation between them and their parishioners; not in any disrespect or coldness towards them as a class; but rather in certain general dispositions which we can by no means applaud, but which we must wait on with such patience as we can command.

We account for the general "exploitering" of the clergy, first, by the fact that men will not pay more for any kind of service than they are obliged to in order to have it; and as women, and clergymen, who are supposed to be a cross betwixt men and women, are in the habit of taking what is given them as a favor, making no remonstrance, they are kept without compunction on starvation prices. People wonder how they live; but so long as they do live and do not rebel, it is presumed they are content. It will be soon enough to pay more when they demand more. In the next place, the uneducated lay people—be they farmers, shop-keepers, mechanics, traders, or even merchants—have no comprehension of the wants of intellectual men; no doubt in many respects they fancy their own wants to be greater. They can understand that the minister may need less meat and drink, being of a "spiritual" mind; that he can dispense with carved furniture and heavy draperies, with mirrors and Wilton carpets, with paintings and bronzes, and such like gauds of the world; but they do not understand how necessary it is that he should have books, magazines, society, and, above these even, that intellectual repose, that freedom from anxiety, which to themselves would be simply intolerable. They therefore make provision neither for the things he is supposed not to wish for because he is "unworldly," nor for the things they cannot see that he wants because he is intellectual. They starve his flesh because he is not carnal, and they starve his spirit because they do not know what it is to be spiritual.

But more cogent than either of the two reasons assigned for the low rate of ministerial compensation is, probably, a third reason, namely, a general want of appreciation of ministerial service. That such want of appreciation should be found in New England is very remarkable, and is a strong evidence of the fact that people usually are indifferent to all affairs but their own. In New England no class of men are practically of more value than the clergy, and the same is, to a large degree, the case in all our communities. Besides preaching the Gospel and doing pastoral work in families on all the most trying occasions of life, they are the general patrons of education and the superintendents of charity. They serve diligently on school committees, they supply lecturers for lyceums, they are called on for addresses on all occasions; they perform a vast deal of literary work that seems to belong to nobody in particular; they manage benevolent enterprises and work the associations that are organized for the benefit of the poor, the unfortunate, the abused; they save time and money to the whole community, as the community would soon feel were their efforts to be suspended. In small towns they are useful in keeping alive, even in creating, the taste for literature, art, and cultivated intercourse. They start the book clubs; they form the reading circles; they encourage the debating societies; they lead in refined entertainments. All this is worth money, and, if estimated at its value, would bring money. Such a class of men should not be treated as worthless and unaccountable rubbish.

How it is to end no one can certainly say. We venture the opinion, however, that matters will not go on from bad to worse. The religious sentiment must have organized and instituted expression in the communities of men. When the present profuse experiments in lecturing, lay preaching, "inspirational utterance," and trance speaking shall have been fairly tried, it will be found, we doubt not, that the best way of obtaining wise and useful religious teaching is to have a class of men gifted for it, educated in it, and devoted to it through their lives. We are inclined to believe, too, that the need of such a class will be recognized more as the people advance in intelligence. Increased culture will bring increased appreciation of culture in this highest form of knowledge; and instead of reducing the ministry to yet lower terms, if lower be possible, rational men will supply them with more abundant means of support, will exact of them higher service, and will hold them in greater honor than before.

FLOORS AND FLOOR COVERINGS.

Under ordinary circumstances and in ordinary houses the floor of every room is covered with carpeting. It is generally assumed that the natural state of a room floor is to be covered with carpeting. Floors are finished with sole reference to this sort of covering, and are expected to remain invisible all their days, except at horrid moments of house-cleaning. The ideal of flooring is supposed to be attained when it is brought to such smoothness and solidity as will best ensure the duration of the superimposed textile fabric. The yellow pine, which we have not been able to get since 1861, is only regretted because it was so hard and durable. White answers as well. In the best houses the floors are carefully laid; the width of the planks is limited to two and a half or three inches; they are driven together with tongue-and-groove joints and edgewise nailing to the joists; but all this only to secure a level and permanent surface for the carpet to rest upon, not to be disturbed by warping planks and starting nails. He who would build him a house, if he or his wife be thrifty and thoughtful, instructs his architect to determine the width of rooms with reference to "breadths" of carpeting; the second-floor rooms, at any rate, to be thirteen feet six inches, or fifteen feet, or some multiple of half a yard wide inside the mop boards, since the carpets used there will be "ingrain" or "three-ply" yard-wide stuffs. And then, when the furnishing is in hand and the carpets to be bought and laid down, the carpet-seller's employee comes and measures carefully into angle and recess, and the carpet is sent home an accurate cast of the floor.

Such being our custom, our universal custom, in America (it is very unlike the custom elsewhere, as we shall see), it behoves us to consider, first of all, what good can be got out of the observance of that custom. Nine people in ten will always do what is easiest and cheapest in these matters of decoration, and it is, of course, always easiest and cheapest to do as the world does and to get mechanics to work as they have always worked before. The matter-of-course way is, then, to go to the store and choose a carpet, and have it made up to fit the floor. Are there any principles involved in such a choice?

This one there is, that the carpet must be subdued and not calculated to attract attention; and this one also, that it must be dark rather than light in color. It is a mistaken notion, as we remarked on a former occasion, that the carpet should be the predominant piece of decoration in the room, giving the key-note of color to everything else. Wall-painting or paper is of greater importance; ceiling decoration in color is of greater importance; curtains, if large and of heavy, full-colored fabric, are of greater importance. These are in a better light; they are in a better place to be seen; they are not changed, or only the curtains are changed, by changing seasons; they are not so continually soiled and injured; they are in consequence less rapidly worn out; they are much more susceptible of delicate and varied decoration. A carpet is a hard-worked servant, and is, therefore, not to be in too rich a livery. A carpet is put in just that place of all the room where it can be least easily seen, the light falling on it in every way but a good way. Furniture hides the pattern, soil and wear mar the colors, sweeping with a common broom is exactly the sort of currying one would choose to take all the character out of a design he might not like. All woven fabrics are to be designed with reference to their uses, and those which are used for rough work and liable to rapid defacement should not receive too varied and resplendent chords of color or delicacies of design. Moreover, of all textile fabrics to which ornament is applied, carpets are perhaps the coarsest, and this coarseness of grain interferes with the delicate colors and subtle

forms. The gradations look badly when you can count the stitches and, with them, the successive shades of color which make up the shading. The curves look badly when the eye resolves them into steps and jogs. We are speaking of the more commonly used varieties of carpet. Oriental carpets are delicate in pattern and in color; fine, too, in material; some of them are solemn and rich, and some blaze with brilliant harmonies of color. The Eastern idea of a carpet is splendid enough; but what is the Eastern idea of the use of a carpet? Not to walk on it with the boots which have just come from the street; not to cut it out into shapeless shapes to fit a shapeless room, and then nail it down; not to leave it nailed down from October until May, harrowing it the while with bundles of broom-corn; not to roll about over it bedsteads of half a ton weight, supported on little wheels; but to sit on it, sleep on it, and pray on it.

For common use, then, the best carpet will be that which is the least salient and pronounced in general effect. Rich colors are good—pure red and pure blue—if so mingled in small masses that a dark and grave general effect is produced. Large patterns may be good if not too prominently relieved upon the ground color. Small patterns are safer, because their design is much more apt to be inoffensive and quite as apt to have actual merit. Flower patterns are excluded, as a general thing, because flowers can be but poorly rendered by the carpet-loom, and these are ugly things which would pass off their jagged edges and crude contrasts of color for the beauty of blossoms and leaves. Patterns of imitated relief, projections and depressions with cast shadows, are, of course, inadmissible. Negative laws of choice are of binding force, positive laws much less so; for of the patterns offered the would-be buyer for his selection but few will be passable, and, perhaps, none will be actually good. The chooser's first act will be to put out of the question ninety-five pieces of carpet offered him as each the "newest thing" and latest fashion, and the next to wonder which of the remaining five will be the least insupportable. In this matter his choice will be, if he is wise, of a very grave and simple carpet indeed.

People who, either because they enjoy moving or from some other cause, pack up their belongings every year or two years and flit to a new habitation, are in constant torment because their carpets are so hard to adapt to the sizes of their new rooms. They cut down and fold under, patch out and re adjust, with great want of economy and poor effect. If any device would relieve them and make the carpet that helps furnish one room more easily available for another, it would be a real gain to society. In this matter we might take a hint from the Orientals, different as we found their practice to be in almost all that relates to floor-cloths. All fine carpets made for their own use are made with borders. Borders are essential in all their designs, as they are, indeed, in almost all cases of ornamental design; we found them very necessary in our wall-papering and wall-painting—we shall always find them necessary when it is a question of a really beautiful and significant design for the ornamentation of ceiling or floor. And, in the case immediately before us, the use of a border to our carpets would help us in practical difficulties as well. Suppose the floor to be not just the right width from mop-board to mop-board to be covered exactly by so many breadths of carpet. Suppose it to be very varied in outline by recesses and projections. What matter, so long as we can use a border? Borders agreeing with some kinds of carpeting are for sale at the carpet stores. When these are not available, one carpet will often make a good border for another. If the room is small and to be covered with ingrain carpeting, another piece of ingrain carpeting, split, will make a border eighteen inches wide, which will be wide enough for the widest part. The projection of the chimney-breast will cut into it more than half its width; perhaps, if the hearth is to be left uncovered, the border on that side of the room must be three feet wide; but the other variations in outline of the room will not encroach upon it seriously. In buying carpet for a room, then, the centre part will be covered three yards wide or four yards wide and of convenient length, this parallelogram of carpeting not to be altered in outline to suit the present or any future room, all those alterations and cuttings and doublings under to be the lot of the more easily modified border.

But, after all, these and all other expedients of the kind are but compromises. The true floor is made to be seen and used; the true floor-cloth, like a table-cloth, is made to lay down and take up at pleasure, and to roll up, carry out, and shake once a week. We call ourselves civilized, and broom our nailed-down carpets till the dust flies, and the carpet is ruined. Our bare floors we do not sweep with brooms, but with soft brushes with long handles; well, all our floors should be bare floors when sweeping time comes, and all the carpets hanging out of the back windows. People in Germany and in France have no nailed-down carpets, but waxed or painted floors, and such floor-cloths laid upon them as they need, according to the season, and the permanent or temporary uses of the room. In summer one wants no floor-cloth, except a rug under his writing table, and one at his bed-side. Floors must be made as handsome as we can afford for summer wear. Or, if one likes Chinese matting as well as we do, the Chinese matting that the Chinese use is not in yard-wide rolls to be nailed down, but in square and oblong mats, and very fine it is and beautiful in color. In winter our living rooms will be pleasanter with a parallelogram of the heaviest and softest carpet we can afford in the middle of each room. Probably we could afford better stuff than now, if such a piece were all we had to buy. The furniture next the wall should stand upon the floor, the carpet coming close to the front of sofa and arm-chair, to receive the feet of the sitter. There are several ways of overcoming the only real difficulty in this case, namely, the disposition of the edge to curl up—lining, loading with "tea lead," the application of a heavy fringe, etc., of which the last is usually the best. Experience has shown the practicability of such a plan of floor covering, and those who care for actual beauty in their rooms, if they are masters of the situation, are often found to adopt it in spite of tyrannous custom.

A SUNDAY IN WALES.

At the end of the week, not very long ago, I found myself in Cardiff, an ambitious little Welsh city, which, within the space of forty years, by the prophetic enterprise of the late Marquis of Bute in spending £400,000 of his pocket-money on its docks, has been raised from a beggarly hamlet of feudal reminiscences to be a rich and growing mart with thirty thousand inhabitants. I was anxious to pass the Sunday in an atmosphere of unmitigated Welsh; and Cardiff, I thought, resting on the rim of the sea, with the flags of all nations flying over its docks and the tongues of all nations chattering in its streets, had sunken all Cymmric individuality in the complexities of a bustling seaport town—that medley of wild, wanton, ravenous sea-monsters let loose upon land; that Babel of uproar, dirt, and polyglot profanity; that saddening hotch-potch of whatever flits or floats of the scum of nations. I resolved, with the morning light, to go inland a few miles, up among the mountains of Glamorgan hire, and find a genuine Welsh village, hear a genuine Welsh sermon, eat a genuine Welsh dinner, and see what a genuine Welsh Sunday is like. I had the luck to pitch upon the name of Caerphilly. So to Caerphilly I went.

The train, which seemed half reluctant to disturb the drowsy quiet of Sunday morning along the valley of the Taff, yet tried to appease its conscience by carrying a few Methodist and Baptist exhorters and dropping them tenderly at their several preaching stations, reached Caerphilly just as the more tardy villagers were straggling to their churches. Situated about half a mile from the station, in the midst of a vast circular valley, whose circumference is a coronet of kingly mountains, this quaint, irregular, and very ancient village of eight hundred inhabitants crouches beneath the ruins of the famous old Caerphilly Castle, next to the royal castle at Windsor the largest in the kingdom, and now, in its decay, the most majestic, the most extensive, and the gloomiest of the remains of ancient English architecture. I remembered some lines in "The Norman Horse-Shoe" of Sir Walter Scott:

> "And forth in banded pomp and pride,
> Stout Clare and fiery Neville ride;
> They swore their banners broad should gleam
> In crimson light on Rhymney's stream;
> And vowed Caerphilly's sod should feel
> The Norman charger's spurring heel."

Before alighting from the train I had a glimpse of the immense, solemn walls of the old castle, of its mouldering battlements, of its huge towers, standing in the grandeur of a mighty sorrow and calmly awaiting, age after age, the slow hostility of fate. Though eager at once to visit the wondrous relic, I saw that now was my only chance of being present at a service in Welsh and of hearing a specimen of that celebrated eloquence, the eloquence of the Welsh pulpit. I knew the old castle would keep. I was not so sure that the sermon would. Dropping into a stream of villagers along the road and listening to the incessant click and rattle and bang of their Celtic words, I was told by a man to whom I addressed myself that the best preacher in the place was he of the Baptists—a verdict of rare sectarian magnanimity, as the man was going to another congregation. A brisk walk soon brought me to the Baptist chapel, and as I approached I was made aware that the work had begun in earnest. The two doors were open, a very fervent prayer was being uttered, and many of the congregation had risen and turned about in their pews, bowing their faces upon the pew backs. Several of them, who were not too far rapt in prayer to perceive a stranger standing in the vestibule, condescendingly peeped through their fingers at me, and then pointed to a seat.

The room was nearly square, with a lofty old pulpit at the end opposite the doors, and a gallery running round the other three sides. It was well

filled in every part. The minister was a young Welshman, with thick black hair parted in the middle, with dark, massive, and tough features, and an intense expression. His voice was incisive and sharp. The hard Welsh words were hurled from his tongue like stones from a catapult. There were the Celtic fire and passion; the consciousness that, in the simple minds of his hearers, he was invested with a mysterious authority, an appearance of invincible earnestness and determination. I could easily accept him as a very likely young Druid—if Druids were ever young.

The congregation seemed composed of plain country-people, shopkeepers, miners, farm laborers; and one portion of them, from first to last, enchained my attention. Directly in front of the pulpit was a large square pew, capable of holding about thirty persons, obviously a place of eminent and solemn honor; and on this occasion it was filled with men, mostly old men, all of them apparently being the more advanced and redoubtable saints of the community, the veterans and senators of the spiritual host. The lesser saints and the average sinners were accommodated with subordinate sittings at the sides and back of the room, or were comfortably stowed away in the gallery; but into this great central box, as into a sacred enclosure, had gone the potent, grave, and reverend seniors of the flock; and I found that their function in the exciting exercises of the service was a very important and picturesque one. Some of them were men of strange visage; they seemed a group of the seventeenth century Puritans, confessors, and religious heroes; they had grim, iron old faces, stiffened into preternatural rigidity by the awfulness of their Sabbath occupation, and by the two or three centuries which they had evidently lived; altogether they had the air of men who fasted and prayed; who defied the world, the flesh, and the devil; who kept the eye fixed on one thing with a gaze to be distracted by no terror and by no fascination; who came into the world on purpose to be prophets, apostles, martyrs, and Baptist deacons.

All this time the prayer was going on. Not one word was intelligible to me, and I was left to give my whole attention to the strange tones of the preacher's voice, to the anatomy and cadence of his sentences. There was something weird and impressive in it all. His utterance did not flow, it came forth in jets and gushes. Then at every clause a series of inarticulate guttural sounds issued from the midst of the great pew, and occasionally from other parts of the room. At last, the audible character of the prayer underwent a sudden and startling change: it rose high above the already fervent level, at which I had first heard it, into a sort of ecstacy, and then followed the wildest and most electrical sounds I had ever known. The speaker's voice became transfused by a terrific enthusiasm, the words leapt forth in torrents; they were not a vulgar shriek, they were not a canting bellow; they were a real old magnificent Druidic chant, the sentences taking their places in perfect rhythm, flowing and ending with a cadence so mild, so poetic, so mysterious, that it made the blood thrill in one's veins. The effect on the congregation was wonderful. From the depths of the great pew the responses heaved loud, swift, distinct, and impassioned; they were re-echoed all round the room, and even in the gallery; and when, at last, this devout ecstasy of prayer lapsed into sudden silence, the cries from the whole congregation of amen, and of certain Welsh ejaculations, continued for nearly a minute, like the lingering and passionate reverberations of the speaker's own voice, or as if the people would storm heaven with a love and a desire that could not give over the supplication.

In Cardiff, afterwards, I was told that this stage of vocal and emotional ecstacy is the necessary final act of all Welsh prayers in public, and, as I soon discovered for myself, the necessary climax of all the important passages in the sermon. For ages the people have been accustomed to it. They await its coming as the sybil might have waited for the rushing descent of the god. Their fiery Celtic natures are inflamed and electrified by its magnetic delight. It is a tempestuous spiritual intoxication to them, a spasm of devout frenzy, a rhapsody of heart and brain struggling toward the Highest in an agony of prayer and praise. The Welsh ministers themselves, from childhood accustomed to observe its manifestations, unconsciously cultivate the art of reaching this rapt, impassioned stage. They learn to work themselves up to it whenever they preach or pray, like the lions referred to by Montaigne as goading themselves into madness by the lashings of their own tails. Yet, concerning these Welsh preachers, I do not mean to imply anything affected or disingenuous in their habit; and I can testify that its manifestations are as far as possible from being repulsive.

Next came a hymn. It was abominably sung; nay, it was not sung. Through linked discord long drawn out, it was simply twanged; the venerable patriarchs in the large pew, more especially, employing their great, ancient, sonorous noses as if they thought them originally constructed by the Creator for speaking-trumpets and organ-pipes, and that to contravene the divine ordination would have been impious.

At last came the sermon. The preacher began in a low, almost inaudible tone. His manner was so quiet and informal that I supposed he was "giving out the notices." Soon, however, his words became more clear, his tones more earnest; and this fact was immediately signalized by the responses of the assemblage. Thus he proceeded for about ten minutes, gradually swinging into his theme and warming with his thought, accompanied at every step by the audible sympathy of his audience, until finally he seemed to reach the vantage-ground from which to bound forth into what I have indicated as the ecstatic stage. Now came once more those strange wild notes, that hurricane of oratorical rapture, those indescribably impassioned and rhythmic sentences which I have spoken of as concluding his prayer, only in the sermon borne onward by greater freedom of gesticulation on his part and of bodily movement on the part of his audience. In this torrent of Celtic eloquence he stopped as suddenly as before, and began the next article of his sermon in the same quiet tones. This process of storm and calm was repeated, though at shorter intervals, five times in the course of his address. I have never in any other religious assemblage observed such excitement as was manifested in this little rustic congregation. Moreover, long before the conclusion of the service, I saw what efficient allies the preacher had in the venerable lay senators of the large pew. Their devout and even sepulchral mien cast a sort of subduing shadow over the whole assembly. Their heads were the first to nod and sway in confirmation of the preacher's statements; their voices led the ceaseless rumble and shout in response to every sentence which fell from his lips. Those hard, iron faces became molten, and gleamed with enthusiasm. The first notes of the hymn rose from their midst. They were, in look and speech, in act and attitude, the coriphæi and exemplars of devotion.

The sermon lasted but thirty minutes. I had been able to recognize only four words—Jericho, Jerusalem, and Christmas Evans; but I am bound to confess that it was one of the most interesting, exciting, and profitable sermons I have ever listened to. And the foregoing account is, I believe, a fair description of the general spirit and method of the Dissenting congregations of Wales.

I dare not venture upon a history of the Welsh dinner which I got after the Welsh sermon, or of the magnificent ruins I visited after the Welsh dinner. Later in the day, in a delightful walk of several miles down the noble valley, I was struck with the general external observance of Sunday by all classes of the inhabitants. I encountered many groups of people, all in their decent Sunday garbs; and the little children whom I met saluted the passing stranger with quaint marks of respect, which, to one accustomed to the pranks of London urchins, were quite embarrassing. I also saw along my route multitudes of placards posted against walls and pillars, and nearly all of these were the advertisements of quack doctors tendering their compassionate and confidential assistance to persons of both sexes who might be suffering the penalties of imprudence. In lonely rural scenes, amid the quietude of Sabbath observances and the footfalls of returning worshippers, these saffron and parti-colored proclamations had an ominous significance. They recalled, if they did not confirm, the celebrated verdict of the royal commissioners, that Wales is more addicted to sermonizing and licentiousness than any other country in the world—always excepting Scotland!

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXXIII.

BATON ROUGE, La., Feb. 27, 1866.

I STAYED in Donaldsonville three days, weather-bound, and, though it was reasonable to expect very bad walking, I escaped from that dirty, squalid little town as soon as blue sky showed itself, late on Saturday afternoon.

I found no opportunity of talking with any citizens of the place except my landlord, a German Unionist, who considered himself a bad representative of the community; but I met two Northern men, one a lawyer settled there and the other a cotton planter, and the agent of the Bureau gave me some information about the freedmen in his district. He said he had no paupers on his hands, and the negroes were all at work at wages varying from ten to fifteen dollars a month for the best hands. The women on almost every plantation were hired by the year as the men were, and not by the day, and yet the demand for labor was not fully supplied. Cases of violence to negroes were of rare occurrence, and the feelings of the planters and laborers towards each other were better than in 1865. While we were conversing a negro came into the office and asked that a letter should be written to his old employer, Mr. La C. As the lieutenant knew, Mr. La C. had promised the boys a part of the crop if they would stay and work with

him, but at the end of the year he made it out that the hands owed him over $300, and refused to give them their portion. They had worked hard, till they puffed same as a bellows, but Mr. La C.'s hand was locked, and it was no good trying to get so much as a copper out of it. Not if he was offered four thousand dollars he would n't work for him again. While he lived there he had built himself a dwelling-house, a corn-house, and a hen-house, and there was a patch of ground that he had cultivated as a garden. He intended to move his forge to Donaldsonville and work at his trade, whenever he could get a job in the town or on the small plantations, and he wanted authority to move the buildings, and also still to use the garden ground. But the garden belonged to Mr. La C., he was told, and it would be impossible to grant that part of his request; two of the houses he built, on his own showing, seven years ago when a slave; he might take away the corn-house, which was but three months old and built of wood saved from the river, but he must touch nothing for a fortnight. A letter was given him ordering Mr. La C. to permit the removal of a certain corn-house now on his plantation, or to appear within ten days and how cause why it should not be removed, and armed with this the man went away. As a general rule, the officer said, the negroes were willing to listen to reason and justice, and in words, at any rate, paid respect to equitable decisions. The case I had just listened to was one of a great many. In 1865 about one-fifth of all the plantations under cultivation in his district were worked on shares, and he believed that without a single exception, in every case where persons worked under such a contract, they found at the year's end that they were in debt to the employer, or that the amount which he owed them was the merest trifle. The accounts kept by the planter always showed that the expenses of the plantation had eaten up the value of the crops, or that the laborer had violated the contract, or was heavily in debt at the planter's store. But even when he was well satisfied that the accounts were fraudulent it was difficult for him to put his finger on the exact spot where cheating had begun. He thought he should have less trouble from this and other causes during the coming season, and that the condition of the freedmen was improving. This he attributed to the operations of the Bureau, declaring that if the South to-day has anything like food enough to keep her people from starving before a new crop comes in, it is due to the good influence which the Bureau has exerted upon the negroes through its officers and upon the planters through the military.

Northern men in Louisiana might get into difficulties, especially if the military should be withdrawn, for a good many of the people that he heard talk were just as loud-mouthed secessionists as they ever were. In such a little hole as Donaldson you could hear it especially frequent; the young fellows and roughs from all around came in there to drink and play billiards; and, if I had ever noticed it, they were very fond of playing the bluff game in their talk when they knew a Yankee was listening. But he himself intended to stay in Louisiana. It was the place for a young man more money could be made than you could make in the North. That gentleman that I saw come in a few minutes before had been a captain in the United States army, and was running a plantation not far from the town. Some time in January he was riding out to his place and he was shot at from the side of the road. He saw the fellow that did it sneaking off. The ball went just across the back of his neck, grazing his coat-collar. He was going to stay, though, for all that. It was only a certain class that did that kind of thing, and sometimes the other side shot too. There had been a fellow living in Donaldsonville, by the name of Le B——, a notorious bully, that everybody hated, but everybody was afraid of. He had killed two men in fights, and had never been put through for it, and nobody dared say a word to him. It was well understood, so the sheriff had informed him, that there was a reward ready for any one who would kill Le B——, and get him out of the way. But nobody killed him, and during the war he was a rebel, of course, and after the war he was bitter. There was a man by the name of F—— keeping a drinking saloon in town, who had been in one of the Louisiana Union regiments. So, one day Le B—— went into F——'s place, drunk, and began to abuse all Yankees and traitors, and finally he drew a pistol. F—— drew his pistol at once, and shot him dead. They arrested F——, of course; but they only put him under two hundred and fifty dollars bond to appear for trial in May, and nothing would be done to him. It would be different if it had been any other Confederate but Le B—— that was killed, but everybody was too glad to get rid of him.

On the second morning of my stay in his house, the landlord called me aside, and said he knew what my business was, and he was desirous of some conversation with me. He wished to explain to me the political situation in Louisiana, so that I might expose the treachery of Governor Wells. The Union men of the State had taken that man up and made him. They put him on their ticket as lieutenant-governor when a nomination was equivalent to an election. Then, when Governor Hahn was sent to Congress, Wells got into power, and in order to perpetuate it he sold out the party that elected him—sold it out to the rebels. Union men were put out of office all over the State, and red-hot rebels were put into their places, and had everything just as they wanted it. He himself was the Union sheriff of his parish, and of course the rebels wanted to put him out; but a sheriff can only be removed by the Senate, and they could find nothing against him. Resign he would n't; but when he saw how everything was going, how Andy Johnson was doing on a large scale what Governor Wells was doing on a small one, he gave up, and did resign. He was getting more and more discouraged every day. While General Canby was at New Orleans, the loyal men knew they had somebody to look to; but when the military were taken away, and he supposed that would be the next thing done, a loyal man might as well go away from Donaldson, for the rebels already had their heels on the necks of everybody not of their way of thinking; and if they were so bold now, what would they do when the soldiers were gone?

I asked him for some facts in support of his assertions.

Why, were there not men, he said, who openly threatened that, before long, no Yankee would be suffered to live in the town? Were there not men who would never come into his house because he was loyal, and other men who always looked in at the billiard-room windows before they entered, and would not enter at all if a Yankee officer was there? There was a person living on the bayou, a few miles from Donaldson, who had been fined five dollars, in 1861, for not being present at a Confederate muster. He was prosecuted, and judgment was obtained against him, but the fine and the costs were never paid. Here, last week, a rebel justice had endorsed the old writ of seizure, and a constable had actually gone to the man's house and levied on his goods for the amount. The facts had all been made known to General Canby, and he would straighten out these fellows; but what would be the condition of things when there was no General Canby in New Orleans? A neighbor of his, a shopkeeper, was notified, not a month since, to pay his tax. All right, he intended to pay it, he was an honest man; but it is customary to allow ten days after such notifications, and the man, relying on the custom, did not immediately carry in the money. In a day or two he was arrested and carried before the mayor, as big a rebel as could be, who fined him thirty dollars and confined him in jail forty-eight hours as a punishment for refusing to pay his tax. If I thought that was improbable, here was another case that he would prove by two or three good witnesses. When his own tax bill was brought in, he was surprised at the largeness of the amount, and resolved to make some enquiries at the collector's office. But the fate of his neighbor had been a warning to him, and he therefore took two or three military men down with him to hear what he said. He did not come down to refuse to pay his taxes, he told the collector, but they were so much larger than he had been expecting to find them, that he wished to talk the matter over with the collector. He could get no satisfaction from him, and soon came away. By-and-by an officer came from the mayor, and made him go up to the mayor's office, where he was at once charged with refusing to pay his tax. But he was too strong in his witnesses, and they could not effect their purpose. It was such things as these—there were plenty of them—that made him say the rebels had their feet on the loyal men's necks. It would soon be time for the loyal men to leave, before things got to be worse. There was Mr. N——, the lawyer, he had been stopped in the street and threatened with death because he wrote letters to a radical paper.

The facts in this last-mentioned case seem to be these: The newspaper referred to is the *Tribune*, published at New Orleans, and, if I am not misinformed, owned by a number of colored citizens of that city. It maintains the right of the negroes to complete political equality with other men. It has published recently several letters dated at Donaldsonville, for the most part devoted to setting forth the injustice and inexpediency of shutting out the negroes from the polls; but some of the series have touched on matters of local interest, and in one of them reference was made to a citizen of Donaldsonville as trembling at the ghost of a certain man who was described as having been murdered, and whose name was mentioned. The letter-writer might almost as well have mentioned the name of the citizen, too, for it is well known that he killed the other in a quarrel. The citizen, a doctor by profession, accosted Mr. N—— in the street, and demanded of him if he was not the author of the letter in question. In one hand he held a copy of the *Tribune* and a pistol in the other. Mr. N—— said he was not the author. He was commonly said to be the author, he was told, and if it was only certain that he was he should be shot there and then.

The landlord's story about the writ of seizure was confirmed by the lawyer who drew up the papers to be submitted to General Canby and by the

officer who forwarded them; and these gentlemen confirmed also, in all its essential particulars, his account of the mayor's action in reference to the taxes, and drew from it the inference which he had drawn. I asked him how he accounted for the fact that two Northern men, both of whom had served in negro regiments, and who were well acquainted with the community which he described as so hostile to loyalty, were intending to live in it even after the Federal troops are taken away? Neither of these men had done that yet, he replied, and their intentions would be changed. At present they were making money, and the troops were not gone. And though one of them had been shot at, they did not yet know so well as he did the community they were trying to live in.

The rain had hardly ceased when I resumed my journey and was ferried over the river. The levee was wet and slippery, and the afternoon was raw with a north-west wind. I have been told by a Northern man, who expressed some contempt of the natives for never discovering what he pronounced a fact not to be doubted, that an acre of land on the western shore is more valuable by several dollars than equally good land on the eastern, because the season there is warmer and nearly a fortnight longer. The prevailing winds along the coast, he said, are northerly and westerly, and they blow cold from the river, shortening the summer on the eastern bank and retarding the spring. I found the plantations above Donaldsonville larger than those below and the houses more widely separate, so that the road at first was lonesome. The river serves for company, however, with its bends and turns and the plash of its motion, and with its color changing, as one sees it from different points, from silver, through many shades of stone color and dull yellow, to russet and even to red, with patches of blue as the sun shines on the surface and the wind ruffles it. Till half an hour after sunset I walked fast, and then, stopping at the one house in sight, asked leave to stay all night. But the head of the house was away from home. Soon a mule-cart overtook me driven by a negro, who said if I would ride with him as far as he was going he would find me a lodging. I mounted the cart, therefore, and we went on together, he relating his history as we went, for he soon found out that I was from the North, and announced himself as "a whole, thorough-breded Yankee." He was fifty-two years old, and was born and raised in Tennessee. He had never had but two masters. The first was a fine man, Major W——; I must have heard of him? No? well, he was a fine man. He used to be always lending somebody money; 'peard he 'd lent out pecks of silver, and he used to say to him: "Now, master, you 'll lend out all your money till you won't have not a dollar, and some day I 'll see the sheriff come and sell us all up." "Oh no, William." But it was so. The sheriff came and took all the people, and his master had to run off to New Orleans very quiet with him and sell him so as to get a little money. That was the way he came to Louisiana. His wife was left behind, and he took a new one down here. For some years they worked him on the sugar plantation, and then he was made a cooper, and that was his regular trade till the Yankees came. He had done something for his freedom, for whenever the rebels came down in the woods towards the Federal camp, he always left his work, no matter what he was at, and took word to the colonel. And when they began to raise negro soldiers, he started right off for Thibodeauxville, he and another complected fellow, and offered to join the ranks. But the walk swelled up his knees and feet so bad—working in the wet and cold, you see—that they said he was no good for a soldier and would n't take him. That was in 1864. In 1865 he left his master and got work on a place up the road, where the planter promised him one-twelfth of the crop. He worked all the year, found himself a good deal of the time, and how much did I think he got?—and Mr. D—— did n't pay him till the day before yesterday either—how much did I think Mr. D—— gave him for all his share of the crop? And there was nine bales of cotton made too. Just excisely eleven dollars and ten cents!

But he owed Mr. D—— for rations or for goods?

Not a copper. He could prove that Mr. D—— owed him. He let him have a half-barrel of pork, although it was the agreement that Mr. D—— was to feed him. No, there was no bill presented. Old Mr. D—— had his two witnesses there, and called him in as he was going past and offered him the money. He refused to take it; there ought to be over a hundred dollars coming to him, he said, for the pork and all. Then Mr. D—— said the expenses were so great that he himself had n't hardly got five dollars left from his own share; and just think of the old rascal! while he was a-talking he took out his pistol and changed it out of one pocket to another to skeer him, you see. But that did n't skeer him. He had a pistol of his own, and he told Mr. D—— that the pistol was a thing he did n't care about. At last he took the eleven dollars and ten cents and signed his name.

Why did n't he go to the Freedmen's Bureau if he could prove that he was cheated in the settlement?

Well, he 'd been there too much. And he could n't prove how he made the contract. But old Mr. D—— could n't get a colored man to work for him now. One of his friends told him that he was going past the house the other day, and the old man was walking up and down with his hands under his coat behind, and called out to him, "Boy, you want to make hire? You want to make hire?" No, Antone told him. He could n't get anybody to go work for him. Antone knew him, and so did all the colored folks.

He had never been whipped but once in old times, and that was for swimming across the river in trying to save a raft that came floating down. "S'pose you 'd got drowned in that river, you d——d rascal!" his master said—his master owned him, you see—and then he give him, oh, a *fair* whipping. But, gracious goodness, there was licking along that coast! Whoo! They used a hand-saw sometimes; struck with the flat of it; but mostly a whip, or a cat-o'-nine tails, or a strap. The strap was the worst, because it raise a great welt on your skin, and the blood was drawed right through the little holes in the straps. If it was only light he 'd show me a house up above with a big iron ring in the side of it, and the marks of the blood where they whipped the people were on the boards of the house, to be seen to this day. It was a devil owned that place then, but he could n't lick now. He was working this year for a very good man, he said, who gave him his rations and clothes and sixteen dollars a month, and paid the hands their money whenever they asked for it.

It would be long past supper time, he told me, before we reached the house where I could stay, and I therefore stopped at a grocery store to buy some eatables and talked with the storekeeper. He asked for news, but I had none to tell. He never got a paper except by chance, he said. He had heard that the Legislature had passed some bills over the governor's veto, but he did n't know what they were. On this point I was able to give him some information, and he approved the action of the Legislature. Our governor was shaky, must have been shaky, or he never would have vetoed them. Vetoing was the order of the day, though; he reckoned I knew about Johnson's vetoing the Freedmen's Bureau bill. Was n't that a noble piece? I had not seen it, and he proceeded to tell me what it was. He was sorry he had n't the paper with the message in it; every Southern man ought to study it. It took the right ground. It proved that the Bureau concern was a complete tyranny; that it cost more to feed and teach niggers than it cost to support the whole of John Quincy Adams's government. He set it all out, and showed that the radicals were an unconstitutional set, and were keeping the South out of the Union. But they were nowhere. Johnson was doing fine; no doubt about that. He thought we had a right to take our places; so the message said. It was the grandest thing he 'd seen.

We rode five miles, the mule going slowly, and then my guide went to procure me admission to a farm-house a little way from the road, but came back with the statement that no one was at home, and his promise was broken. At the next house I applied in person, but unsuccessfully, and, as it was cold in the night air, I decided to travel no further in the dark, but to sleep in the same house with the driver. It was a negro cabin on a plantation which is in litigation and occupied by but one family. There was only one room for us all, and that a small one, and the family were embarrassed by the presence of a white man as a lodger; but we were received with apparent willingness, and the old couple stripped their own bed to make a pallet for me. A fire of drift-wood smouldered on the hearth, and we sat before it for an hour talking. The husband was younger than his wife, a little black woman with white hair visible under her turban and a troubled expression of countenance. She spoke French better than American, as she called it, for she had been bred in a creole family. The creoles were better masters to live with than the Americans, she said, and the men agreed with her, for though they did not feed or clothe their hands so well as the Americans, they granted more liberty. On the big plantations in old times the hands were never allowed to go anywhere except on the levee in front of the overseer's house, and that made that now they did n't know nothing but just crop. This may account for their ignorance of distances along the road, for I seldom get a correct answer to my enquiries. But, for that matter, a creole family with whom I breakfasted on the following morning, who lived about sixteen miles from Baton Rouge and about the same distance from Donaldsonville, could tell me the distance to neither place.

The old negro, Lewis, told me that the plantation was in court, and that consequently he could make no crop on it this year. Three men claimed it, and none of them would let either of the others give him leave to go to work. My guide explained to Lewis that the reason of their unwillingness was this: when men claimed a farm and another man was living on it, the one of the two men who gave the first order on the place would get it into his hands when the trial came on. That was a rule in law. But it would

be much better for Lewis to move away from there, and get work down where he himself was. His boss would pay him good wages and feed him five pounds a week, and, best of all, would give his money whenever he wanted it—even once a week. Lewis had been thinking he ought to go; he was spending his last dollar there and making nothing, and he had told Mr. L—— so. Mr. L—— would n't make objections to his going either, he thought, but the old woman was too timorous.

"Yes, William," the woman said, "I tell him not to go. Stop where you is, Lewis. Behavior will carry a man. Money thinks it will go furder, but behavior carry you." And she seemed obstinate enough as she shut her eyes and smoked in silence. Lewis changed the conversation, and for some time we talked of the fish of the river, and of the bayous, and of the various reptiles with which Louisiana abounds. I heard such stories of alligators, of scorpions, of moccasin snakes, of rattlesnakes as big as a man's thigh, of the rattlesnake spider, whose bite is more deadly than his namesake's, of the thunder-snake, who can kill a hog, even, and who looks, till you tread on him, like a bit of rotten wood, that I walked more warily all the next day, though as yet I had seen none of these creatures but the scorpion.

Rising at daylight on the next morning, the old woman brought me a tiny cup of very strong coffee, unsweetened, and I went away without breakfast. Lewis, with a readiness to serve me which I have found almost universal among the negroes as soon as they learned me to be a Northern man, walked with me half a mile or more to put me into a road that would shorten the journey. He was anxious to know if it was probable that the negroes would get land of their own, by gift or by purchase. While he had to labor for what the planters would give him, he was n't hardly free from them, he thought. "I 's thankful," he said, "for what I is got. I never 'spected I 'd see it, me;" but still land was a great thing for a man, and made him free and his own man.

"What," I said, "without religion and education?"

Well, he was a member, sinful, he knew that; but he 'd been a member this many year. He was too old to go to his book; but them two little chaps I saw at his house, he wanted them to learn. They knew some reading now, for he sent them to school a while, as long as there was a school. But the people broke it up, took all the doors and windows out, and the teacher went away. That was one of his reasons for wanting to move away, so he could put the children to school. They were not his sons; but if he was earning he would be willing to pay for their schooling.

The children were two light yellow boys, grandsons of his wife. He enquired also about the death of Mr. Lincoln, of which he had heard something, but he did n't know if he was really dead. He expressed wonder that any Yankee should have been the assassin. Though he did know one or two Yankees that were like the rebels in everything; they turned the point of the sword at a colored man's back, though they were good to his face.

I walked then two miles through the fields, which were, in some places, covered with water, and the ditches were brimming full. Getting out upon the levee again, I met the people going to church, some in heavy coaches and some on foot, but most on horseback. The young men wore plated spurs and the tails of their horses were braided and the ends of the braids tied in a knot. They rode in little companies, talking gaily and bowing to the ladies in the carriages. The church was one of the queer little structures common along the levee road, weather-beaten and picturesque, and, I suppose, like nothing between here and Lower Canada. People were waiting at the door as I went by; but the horses of the young men I passed further up were tied before the door of the St. Gabriel grocery. The stores by the roadside were all open and so were many stores in Baton Rouge. At a point nine miles from Baton Rouge I turned my back upon the river and travelled over a direct road to the city. Soon I came to a gently rising ground and good walking, the narrow way for miles together lying in the shade of tall hedges of rose-bushes, which grow in continuous clumps and form a beautiful green wall impervious to anything larger than the small birds. Baton Rouge came into sight long before I reached it, the city being situated on a considerable hill, and the glaring white of two large buildings, the asylum and the capitol, being visible far off. The latter building is ruined, and I am told that the finest part of the city was also destroyed during the war. Certainly what remains is not fine. But I see it without its green trees.

From the reports made to his superiors by the agent of the Bureau stationed here, I take some information about the negroes in the parish of East Baton Rouge:

"Jan. 20, 1866. The majority of the planters in the parish are offering from $12 to $15 per month without clothing."

"Jan. 31. Many of the planters are giving the freedmen a share in the crop. Those who are paying wages generally offer from $12 to $18 per month without clothing. . . . The conduct of the freedmen seems to be very good. I have heard but few complaints of them, and I think nearly all the planters are dealing very fairly with them."

At present the common rate of wages for hands of the first class is $18 a month and rations. Clothing is offered by a few men, but not by all.

"Jan. 2. I have conversed with several of the planters in the parish, and they all agree in saying that they prefer to keep the old colored people on their plantations and support them, as they find they are but little expense, and can often pay their way by doing light work. The mayor of the city informs me that there is not one colored pauper fed by the city. I would state that during the months of September, October, and November, 1865, while the poor of the city were fed by the military authorities, out of 180 paupers there was not one colored."

I called the captain's attention to an editorial article in the Baton Rouge *Advocate* of Feb. 21, with the caption, "The Pauper Question," which, among other things, says:

"Baton Rouge is the great centre of attraction. Before the war there were but six hundred negroes in this place. Now there are as many thousand. . . . We have to support them, nurse them, and bury them, and this at an expense of $6,000."

The article does not expressly say that the paupers crowding in from the adjacent parishes are negroes, but no other impression could be produced by it. The captain said that laborers were scarce, and that for some days he had kept a person employed searching the town for vagrants. He had been able to find three negroes without employment. He had no knowledge of any colored paupers except the sick and aged, and the number of those was extremely small.

I hear of but one opinion held by Northern men living here as to the loyalty of the people. Much that is told me is told on condition that I do not repeat it. The letter, of which I give a copy below, is pronounced by the colonel commanding at this post a concise expression of the feelings entertained by a majority of the citizens. It was sent on the 19th of January to a Mr. Rider, an Englishman, who for the last thirty-five years has resided in East Feliciana:

"We have been informed that you are 'lowing niggers to squat about on your land; or, in other words, you are renting niggers land. One of our committee told you that you would be burnt out, but you would not pay any attention to him. Now, sir, your gin-house is burnt for renting niggers land. If this is not sufficient warning we will burn everything on your place. If that do n't break it up, we will break your neck. If that do n't break it up, we will shoot the niggers. Beware, sir, before it is too late, or you will be waited on by A COMMITTEE.

"The niggers are not to be blamed. You are the villain. C.

(In pencil:) "Since writing the above we have decided to burn more than your gin-house, and will kill you if you do n't break up your infamous nigger camps. COMMITTEE."

Mr. Rider is a gentleman of wealth and respectability, who, it is believed, has never given his neighbors other grounds of complaint than they find in this endeavor to introduce upon his estate a system of labor resembling the English tenant system. It was not his gin-house that was burned, but a corn-house with four hundred bushels of corn. The fire at the gin-house was put out by the negroes. Col. Edgerton sent an officer into East Feliciana to investigate this matter, who succeeded in getting the testimony on oath of one of seven men, planters in that parish, who, having met together, had taken Mr. Rider's affairs into consideration, and had decided on intimidating him. The evidence being sufficient, the colonel proposes to General Canby that these gentlemen be compelled to pay for the property destroyed, and he is confident that the general will adopt the course which he recommends. It is sure of the cordial approval of General T. W. Sherman. General Canby has not yet spoken, but great confidence appears to be placed in him by all Union men whom I meet.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, March 8, 1866.

THE terrific winds which have raged for some weeks past with such unusual violence in the narrow channel between Calais and Dover, frequently preventing the crossing of the mails, and causing so much misery to travellers and their friends, give special interest to the two plans which have been suggested for obviating the inconveniences and dangers of the rather more than *mauvais quart d'heure* which all must brave who would cross from one to the other of the two shores which geologists tell us were united a few thousands of millions of years ago. The first of these projects proposes to purchase the *Great Eastern*, fit her up with a first-class hotel, a garden, croquet ground, reading-room, and all other desirable appliances of advancing civilization, and keep her constantly plying as a ferry-boat between the French and English coasts. The roughest Channel weather would have no appreciable effect on the steadiness of motion with which the giant

ship would glide over the "chopping seas" that cause so vast an amount of suffering to passengers in the course of a year; while the speed and comfort with which the transit would be made would lead, it is anticipated, on the part of European travelling, to the abandonment of all other passenger routes between England and the Continent, thus rendering the speculation highly remunerative.

The second project for getting rid of the nuisance of the Channel is that of a submarine tunnel between Dover and Calais; and a deputation of the English company, which proposes to undertake that colossal work, is now in this city, and has just had an audience of the Emperor to solicit the Imperial permission to commence certain experimental cuttings under the shore at Calais.

To the great satisfaction of the members of the Skating Club and of all that larger public which dreads the return of cholera with the coming spring, the weather has been much colder during the last few days; but as the goods of life, including "seasonable frost," are very unequally divided in this world, we are still waiting for our share of the thermometrical favors which are being bestowed so lavishly on neighboring Switzerland, where the winter has been so rigorous that much anxiety has been felt for the safety of the three brave Swiss savans who, last autumn, ascended the St. Theodule mountain, between the Matterhorn and Monte Rosa, with a quantity of provisions, fuel, etc., intending to pass the winter on the summit, for the purpose of making meteorological observations. The mountain is 12,000 feet high, and the snows have stopped all communication between the scientific hermits and the world below since the 28th of November. A courageous member of the Swiss Alpine Club, Mr. Alexander Seiler, of Brieg, accompanied by the far-famed Zermatt guide, Zum Taugwald, Jr., determined, a few days ago, to take advantage of a sudden rise of the thermometer, and ascend the mountain to ascertain the fate of the three investigators. The ascent was a very difficult and dangerous one, but was successfully accomplished; and their brave and humane attempt was rewarded by their finding the meteorologic recluses in perfect health and spirits, and so well supplied with creature comforts as to be able to give a most hospitable reception to the welcome invaders of their solitude. The descent, effected with equal success, was celebrated with bell-ringings and bonfires at Zermatt. It is, however, most unlikely that any recurrence of the exceptional temperature which rendered possible a feat hitherto unparalleled, at this season of the year, in the annals of Alpine climbing, will enable the three savans to quit their eyrie before May or even June.

How curious is the contrast between the silence and stillness of that sky-perch among the Alpine giants, broken only by the howling of the wind, and the animation and glitter of this pleasure-loving city—somewhat changed in character, but in no wise slackened by the penitentialities of Lent. Official receptions, snug dinners, and "dancing teas" are in full swing, and the crush of equipages in the fashionable thoroughfares is greater than ever. A day or two ago the Emperor, who greatly enjoys driving about in his latest vehicular acquisition (a very neat mail-cart, in which his Majesty is always accompanied by a friend on the seat beside him, and a servant on the ledge behind), was stopped for full ten minutes at the corner of the Chaussée d'Antin and the Boulevards, in one of those well-nigh inextricable "jams" of carts, carriages, and omnibuses which Paris has so peculiarly happy a knack of getting up. The Emperor was in the very midst of that dense, excited, and shouting crowd, looking on with an amused and slightly quizzical expression of face, while the mass of vehicles was striving to get itself free. It may well be doubted whether any other sovereign of France could have found himself so completely and for so long a time absolutely at the mercy of those about him with such perfect indifference and, above all, with such perfect safety. The Emperor likes, apparently, to see for himself how things are going on. For six weeks past the Parisians, especially the dwellers on the left bank of the Seine, have been greatly excited by the ingenious "dodge" of that cleverest and most daring of civic geniuses, the Prefect of the Seine, who proposed to secure about twenty millions of francs toward the cost of the rebuilding of Paris, so busily going on, by cutting off three or four large slices of the Garden of the Luxembourg, so familiar to the readers of Béranger, Balzac, and Henri Mürger, and selling the same for conversion into new streets. A couple of days ago the Emperor drove over in his mail-car to the garden in question—the largest and most beautiful in Paris—and spent an hour or two in examining the proposed changes. On his return to the Tuileries he wrote to the prefect a few lines (which were published next morning in the *Moniteur*) informing that enterprising functionary that his famous project was not approved, and that the shady groves and whispering alleys (which they are in more senses than one) must be respected. All Paris has heaved a sigh of relief at this termination of projected mutilations. As for the population of "the Latin Quarter," its joy and exultation equal the indignation and despair which had been excited by the ruthless proposition of "that barbarous Haussmann."

The French Academy received, yesterday, a new member, M. Camille Doucet, the well-known writer of the *Dêbats* newspaper. M. Prevost-Paradol will be received into that learned body on the 8th of next month. The intensity of desire with which the greater part of the French people long for a seat amongst "the immortal forty" can hardly be understood by those who have not lived among them; and such is the anxiety to be present at the admission of a new member that it is extremely difficult to obtain tickets. For some weeks past every place for sitting and for standing has been engaged beforehand by the shoals of people of every degree who are anxious to witness the admission of M. Prevost-Paradol.

Vanity is by no means rare among the literary people of any country but it can hardly be denied that the great mass of French *littérateurs* possess that quality in a superlative degree. Third-rate scribblers will expatiate, by the hour together, on their own productions, and will, if connected with the press, complacently assure you that they "have never failed" to produce a smart opening sentence and the concluding sting of the "trait final." Their "betters" in the literary line will not hesitate to refer, in every second sentence, to their own writings, and will, probably, contrive to pay such a compliment to those with whom they deign to converse as shall compel the latter to return the compliment in kind. Nothing can be more amusing than a tourney of this description, where each devotes himself to flattering his neighbor in the hope of being flattered by him in return. I should like to show my readers, as an amusing example of the sort of self-worship referred to, the home of a lady who has achieved some small reputation as a writer. The ante-room is hung with pictures presented to her by artists, and complimentary letters neatly framed and glazed; the library contains all her own books, magnificently bound and conspicuously placed; and the parlor walls are covered with likenesses of herself, of which there cannot be far short of a hundred, from the slight pencil-sketch of some adoring *rapin* to the finished portrait by Ingres, which constitutes the master-piece of the collection. In the embrasure between the two windows is a large flower-stand, composed of shelves, broad at the bottom, narrowing towards the top, and forming a sort of pyramid, lavishly supplied, all the year round, with the rarest plants and flowers; and on the top of this pyramid, as the crown and glory of the whole display, is the bust of the lady herself by Canova. The mistress of this temple of vanity, still a handsome woman, in spite of the wear and tear of nearly seventy years, sits in a large, low chair, with the portrait by Ingres and the beautiful bust just before her eyes, and receives the compliments of the literary people who attend her receptions with the air of a queen in the midst of her court, but taking good care to flatter adroitly the vanity of all who approach her, as the surest means of securing the payment by them of that tribute of flattery which few French people can bear to be deprived of, no matter how truly they may have learned to estimate its value.

STELLA.

ITALIAN FINANCES.

FLORENCE, Feb. 19.

SINCE the transfer of the capital to this one-time homelike refuge for artists and quiet-seeking folk, Florence has become the abode of every species of the world's citizens—ministers, ambassadors, senators and deputies, fortune-seekers, place-hunters, and pickpockets. The "good old days" of the grand duke are over; court gaieties are grim and stately; apartments are as dear as in Fifth Avenue or Park Lane; provisions treble their former price, as unfortunately the city is not large enough, nor the suburbs sufficiently productive, to house and feed us all comfortably. Narrow streets are being enlarged, crooked ones made straight. Every stroke of the workman's hammer desecrates some time-honored stone, causing antiquaries to weep tears of blood. Arnolfo's walls, six centuries old, are to be razed to the ground and in their place Parisian boulevards arise; edilic and political inspirations are alike Napoleonic. Yesterday, General La Marmora informed the House that Italy is not only able to sustain a war on the Mincio but also to bear through a defeat and come out victor in the end. Yet that war will not be waged until Napoleon sanctions it, nor shall we, on the other hand, disarm, as we are called on to do in the name of our impoverished finances. The situation of Italy to-day is far from hopeful, and will grow darker until either war or disarmament is decided on. Despite the 280 millions deficit, the country would send up a worthy response to an appeal for Venice, because, though the state coffers may be empty, the Italians are rich, twice as rich, say statistics, as they were in 1859. The liberation of Venice, the establishment of national independence, would restore national credit, render possible the reduction of the army from 300,000 to 50,000 men,

and, by introducing stability into the newly organized state, enable the Government gradually to balance its revenue and expenditure. Disarmament, at the present moment, is scarcely to be thought of, as the presence of Austria on the Mincio and the Po would necessitate organization of popular forces on the volunteer system, and to this monarchy would not consent for more reasons than one—because the popular attachment to the House of Savoy has declined considerably since 1859; because an armed people would propose and carry certain radical reforms which that monarchy cannot be expected to sanction; and because, in any European crisis, say for example the restoration of the French republic, the dynasty might find itself in a most precarious position. Hence our choice lies between war or a financial abyss.

Besides the Napoleonic *veto*, another circumstance militates against our chances of war, namely, the convention of the 15th of September; and, unless Austria attacks, we may calculate on peace until February, 1867, when, if the Emperor fulfils his share of the bargain, the last French soldier will be withdrawn from Rome. It is natural, therefore, that the nation which, for the last six years, has been making such gigantic sacrifices in order that its army might cope with Austria, which was told but yesterday that it could now sustain a war and yet finds itself compelled to keep the peace, should be in a chronic state of irritation against the "magnanimous ally" who is looked upon as the arbitrator of its destinies. The secrets revealed in the Yellow and Red Books, the knowledge that the courts of Spain and France do intend to preserve the temporal power of the Papacy within its present limits, have not tended to allay this irritation, and the vials of wrath are poured on the devoted head of General La Marmora, the "nominee of the Emperor"—the Emperor himself being too far off for the burning streams to reach him.

"Give us war or an economical peace," cry the public and the press; "propose a financial system that shall save us from dishonor and bankruptcy, or make way for those who can; mend our finances instead of truckling to the Tuileries, or we shall soon be convinced that monarchical institutions are unadapted to our wants, and return to our old plan of barricades." Newspapers are daily being seized for using such menaces as these; the governmental papers taunt the democracy for sending up a House with which it is impossible to govern the country; the opposition papers reply, "You have tried and failed; our time has come." Meanwhile the law of the circumlocution office, "How not to do it," seems the motto of the cabinet and the Chambers alike.

Parliament met on the 27th of November and defeated the Government on a question trivial in itself, but important in its check to ministerial encroachments on the prerogatives of Parliament. The House adjourned on the 19th for the Christmas holidays, which were prolonged until January 22d; adjourned again on February 7th on the plea that no bills were ready for debate, but in reality that its members might enjoy the carnivals of Milan and Turin, and re-opened on Thursday last in a spirit decidedly hostile to the La Marmora cabinet, which, as Ricciardi informed the Premier, with more truth than politeness, "having been turned out at the door, crept back through the window."

That it cannot last long is a fact recognized by all parties, but whether it will be beaten on the "two months' provisional exercise of the budget," or on Signor Scialoja's financial measure, or on the bill for the abolition of religious corporations and administration by the state of ecclesiastical property, cannot yet be seen. The provisional exercise is now under debate; thirty orators are inscribed; four days have passed, and seven honorables have occupied the floor without throwing any light on the subject. The nine committees are divided as to the grant; four would concede the two months as a purely administrative measure; three would limit the grant to one month; two refuse a single day. The cabinet rejects the one month grant as implying a vote of want of confidence; would accept the two months without considering it a vote of confidence; and this question furnishes the orators with a pretext for introducing all sorts of extraneous matter into their speeches. I think the two months will be granted, because the old grant expires on the 28th inst., and then will come the debate on the budget. A motion has just been passed which will shorten the preliminary work so tedious in the Italian parliamentary system. In a general way the minister presents a bill to the House, and hands it to the Speaker to be printed and distributed, and the public fondly hopes day after day for the debate. But it often happens that the bills are pieces of blank paper, to be sent back to the minister, who takes sometimes weeks, sometimes months, to elaborate his "project of law;" once printed, it is distributed among the nine offices into which the House resolves itself afresh every month by lot; discussed by the members, who choose a reporter. These nine reporters form a special commission, who again discuss the bill, and elect one of their number to draw up a report and present it to the House, when the general debate commences. Owing to this circumlocution system, endless time is lost, and as the urgency of the financial system seems at length to have awakened the honorables from their lethargy, a motion has just been passed to the effect that the House shall nominate a commission of fifteen members to study and report on Signor Scialoja's financial measures, without passing them through the committees.

That these measures will be accepted by the House few believe. The new Minister of Finance has had the courage to say to the county: "No more loans, no more expedients; you must pay for your whistle in hard cash; the first necessaries of life, even oil and wine, must be taxed; the expenses of each branch of administration shall be reduced; our system of tax-gathering must be reformed, and even then a deficit of eighty millions will remain to be met." Many good authorities shake their heads and affirm that Scialoja's scheme would cripple the resources of the country, and that the only remedy lies in the confiscation of ecclesiastical property. Here again three schemes are proposed. The Government bill proposes the abolition of all religious corporations, the grant of a pension to male and female members for life, the administration by the state of all ecclesiastical property, the clergy, from archbishop to parish priest, salaried by the state. No, says Minghetti (ex-Minister of Finance, the author of enormous loans which evaporated during his administration and left no trace behind): no! this project violates the aspirations of modern civilization; is opposed to the very spirit of our revolution, which aims at the separation of church and state and objects to a clergy salaried by the latter. Abolish religious corporations within the space of ten years, and in the same time oblige the clergy to transform their *mani morte* into personal property and to hand over a third of all they possess, *i. e.*, six hundred millions, to the state; to provide for the expenses of public worship with the remainder. This proposition, fathered ostensibly by Signor Minghetti, is rumored to have been brought from Rome by Baggio. To it the democrats reply: The idea is not bad; only its application errs. We do object to the union of church and state and to a salaried clergy; but we cannot consent to leave this untold wealth in the hands of ecclesiastical administrators. Let all ecclesiastical property be administered by the communes; let the communal councils contribute a third to the state and employ the remainder in the expenses of public worship, public education, and charitable purposes. Thus our debts will be paid, the rising generation educated, and religion no longer sacrificed to the interests of the Roman shop.

This is the only concise idea yet emanated by our friends on the left, and if they, with the help of the left centre, succeed in overthrowing the present ministry on the financial question, this will be their card if their hope of holding portfolios be realized. The ministerial organs continue to hint at the probable dissolution of the House; but it is a mere scarecrow, as every one knows that if the present members be sent home the country will return two democrats for every one rejected. J. W.

Correspondence.

PHOTOGRAPHS OF FRENCH CELEBRITIES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

A few years ago, while in Paris, I amused myself sometimes in studying the faces of distinguished Frenchmen, chiefly authors and artists, whose photographs were exhibited in the shop windows of the Boulevards. I recorded briefly, at the time, the impressions some of these faces left upon me. Here are some of my jottings, which, perhaps, may not be uninteresting.

C.

AUTHORS.

Alexandre Dumas, Pere.—A face whose features have an unmistakable basis of the negro in them. Bald, bright, jovial, somewhat coarse, and decidedly earthy. Indications of a tough epidermis and a strong constitution. Plenty of self-esteem and vanity.

Victor Hugo.—A magnificent head—the brow piled up square and compact, where all the intellectual organs seem well and evenly developed. Immense ideality, above which the moral faculties arch the head into a well-rounded dome. The hair grey and cut close to the head. Eyes not large, but deep and intense with a soft fire. Large ears. Nose in harmony with the rest of the face, which inclines to squareness. Mouth full of determination, yet expressive of feeling. Thick moustache and very short grey beard.

Lamartine.—As complete a contrast to the last as can well be. A high but retreating brow. Vain, supercilious eyes. Nose long and pointed. Mouth rigid, yet weak. No beard or moustache.

JULES JANIN.—A large head and face, full of joviality and *bonhomie*—suggestive of a portly person and a life of intellectual ease. Looks as if he swam in butter.

THIERS.—A head and figure which perfectly recall the English Punch—or rather a cross between Punch and a Yankee clergyman. Face very compact. Short grey hair; no beard. Wears spectacles, through which he looks intensely senatorial and dignified.

GUIZOT.—Very old and very grave. A large, intellectual brow. Thin grey hair. Eyes not bright; the muscles beneath them swollen and baggy. Thin, fixed mouth. No beard.

THEOPHILE GAUTHIER.—Face indicative of an intellect rather disposed than not to make a pillow of its accompanying indolent temperament. Large, heavy features. Affected slovenliness. Seems as if he required a strong stimulant to set him going, but as if capable of much intellectual power.

MICHELET.—A face of an old man, benevolent, serene, and intellectual, but not revealing any other special trait.

EDMOND ABOUT.—Young, hearty, jovial, witty. Good, handsome eyes. Looks as if he would soon get acquainted with you, and be the best of company.

EUGENE SCRIBE.—A fine-looking old gentleman of the old school. Eyes and mouth full of bright thoughts and fancies.

ALPHONSE KARR.—Broad, high head, and large nose and ears. The close-cropped hair and long pointed beard make him look like an author of the time of Sir Walter Raleigh.

EUGENE PELLETAN.—An intense and serious face, bent downward in thought. Black, piercing eyes, black hair, and thick black beard.

EDMOND TEXIER.—His bald head, round eyes, and aquiline nose give him the look of an eagle. A very earnest and thoughtful face.

EUGENE MIRECOURT.—A good deal of the North American Indian chief in this face. Looks as if ready for a fierce onslaught with tomahawk and scalping-knife. The features and expression not unlike those of Voltaire.

EMILE GIRARDIN.—A shrewd eye; head turned on one side; a look of easy circumstances, self-satisfaction, and indifference to the world.

MADAME GEORGE SAND.—Long, oval face; large dark eyes with drooping lids. Face expressing a combination of a dreamy, voluptuous temperament, great benevolence, and intellectual genius.

ARTISTS AND MUSICAL COMPOSERS.

C. F. DAUBIGNY.—A landscape painter of some note in Paris. A calm, earnest, grave expression. Intellectual development in head and features not remarkable.

GUSTAVE DORÉ.—Rather handsome; dark grey eyes, full of unmistakable genius; a good head; mouth and chin indicating firmness and perseverance.

FELICIEN DAVID.—You would take him for a full-blooded Scotchman. Inclined to baldness; his long thin hair looped over his head. Full, earnest eyes, and full lips.

JEAN LEON GEROME.—A thin, saturnine face; rather high cheek-bones; a proud, sad look; moustache, but no beard.

GUSTAVE COURBET.—A broad, common face, with high cheek-bones; thick, long hair and beard; has a bold, conceited look.

J. B. C. COROT.—A simple, honest, pleasant face, clean-shaved; a coarsely shaped mouth; big burly frame; not the least trace of the poetic about him, though his French admirers claim this quality for his pictures.

THEODORE ROUSSEAU.—A face full of benevolence, honesty, child-like enthusiasm, and modesty. Seems like a man you can hardly help liking. The brow is high, and expressive of calm, quiet thought and calm communion with nature. Dark eyes; wears a large black moustache and beard.

HENRI LEHMAN.—Handsome, proud, cold, aristocratic features; round grey eyes; light, short German hair.

CONSTANTIN TROYON.—Large face; long, large aquiline nose; plenty of beard. A solid, healthy, strong look about him, like one of his favorite oxen. A quiet, self-sustained temperament.

JUSTIN OUVRIER.—A clever landscape painter. Does not look like an artist, but rather like a lawyer or minister of state.

THOMAS COUTURE.—His face gives no indication of his great talent and skill as a painter.

EUGENE DELACROIX.—Neither does Delacroix's face suggest to me the works he has done. A dark, nervous, morbid face, indicating uncertain and unequal effort.

A. G. DECAMPS.—A good face, and a good intellectual head.

J. A. D. INGRES.—Heavy features, baggy cheeks, full lips, a queer conical head, a short and dumpy figure.

ROSA BONHEUR.—A face not expressive of genius. Features somewhat hard and fixed. Expression bright but unsympathetic.

J. L. E. MEISSONIER.—The head is so much inclined forward, and the eyes cast downward, that nothing can be divined of his character and genius. His figure is small.

HALÉVY.—The last face in the world you would take for a musical artist. You might take him for the most dogmatic of doctors, whether of law or physic. You are puzzled to conceive how any music could ever have issued from a man with such a face as that.

ROSSINI.—The veteran composer has grown old. His features do not express what they should. The full, dark eyes, however, still seem to flash with sparkling melody.

GOUNOD.—A good, solid, musical face; good, high head.

AUBER.—Has the nervous, musical temperament chiefly indicated about the brow.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

THE late sale of the library of J. B. Fisher, conducted by Messrs. Leavitt, Strebeigh & Co., which was concluded March 9th inst., is worthy of notice as showing the appreciation of choice books among our collectors. The library was a peculiar one in the superior condition of the books and the care displayed in the selection of choice copies. Its principal features consisted of works on American history and old English literature, the two branches most especially in demand. American history, however, unquestionably bore off the honors of the day, and prices were realized for articles of this description above any previously known. Among the most noticeable lots, from the sums they brought, were: Lot 657, a unique tract printed at Philadelphia by Reinier Jansen, in 1699, "God's protecting Providence, etc., by Jonathan Dickenson," the relation of an escape from shipwreck, and "The Cruelly Devouring Jawes of the Cannibals of Florida," no other copy known, sold for $85 00. Lot 716, "Easton's Narrative of Philip's Indian War," Mr. Munsell's reprint, Albany, 1858, $50 00. Lot 1,169, "Jacob's Life of Capt. Cresap," Cumberland, Md., $31 00. Lot 1,360, "Martin's History of Louisiana," 2 vols., New Orleans, 1827, $22 00. (We may mention that about 150 copies of this book were bought twenty years since at *a cent and a half per volume*, and were sold for waste paper by a bookseller who was present at this sale.) Lot 1,449, "Hutchinson's History of Massachusetts," first London edition, 2 vols., 1760, in boards, uncut, $40 00. Lot 1,605, Gen. Moultrie's "Memoirs of the Southern Revolutionary War," 2 vols., New York, 1802—two dingy looking volumes that used to be common on bookstalls for $1 50 the set—brought $33 00. Lot 1,883, "Proceedings of the Court-Martial on Major André," Philadelphia, 1780, $31 00. Lot 1,945, "Mad. Reidesel's Memoir," New York, G. & C. Carvill, 1827 (usual price a few years since, fifty cents), $21 50. Lot 2,029, "Loyalist Poetry of the Revolution, edited by Winthrop Sargent," Philadelphia, 1857, $77 00. Lot 2,262, "Heywood's History of Tennessee," 8vo, Nashville, 1823, $26 00. We might go on to a great extent quoting similar remarkable prices of which the above are only a sample. Few better investments can be named than those made by curious book-buyers ten or even five years since, and the high prices now current are bringing numerous collections into the market without apparently lessening the demand.

—The irresistibly advancing strides of wholesale trade are rapidly depriving Broadway of the pleasant air of refinement that a leading thoroughfare derives from the intermingling of books, engravings, and works of art with the less intellectual but more substantial wares of everyday commerce. When a dry goods jobber, who counts his annual sales by millions, insanely imagines he can increase his business by parading its insignia in the most frequented streets, a few thousand dollars a year rent make but little difference when the desire to get ahead of his neighbors in less frequented localities is the motive. The consequence is the gradual withdrawal of the book-stores to side streets, and if the rates of the present year continue, in twelve months there will scarcely be a book-store left in the whole length of Broadway. It was not so thirty years ago. To those who can carry their remembrance back so far, Broadway, below the Park, is chiefly characterized by the book and publishing houses that centred there. On the east side alone, between Wall and Ann Streets, "might be seen" (as G. P. R. James says) the famous juvenile book establishment of William B. Gilly; Charles de Behrs' extensive stock of French and foreign books; G. & C. Carvill's emporium of all that was valuable in standard and classical literature; William A. Colman's gallery of pictures, books, and engravings; the time-honored Episcopal publishing house of T. & J. Swords; Messrs. Leavitt,

Lord & Co.'s bustling and active store, full of clergymen and country merchants; Messrs. D. Appleton & Co.'s establishment, then just removed from Clinton Hall, and emerging into notice; and Messrs. Betts & Anstice's retail book-store. The above are all things of the past except Messrs. D. Appleton & Co., who still remain in Broadway, but who are understood to be meditating a flight to quieter regions. At the time mentioned the only book-store above the Park, in Broadway, was that of Mr. Lockwood, near Canal Street, whose enterprise in fixing himself in so distant a locality was admired, though his prudence in so doing was considered very doubtful. A number of "the trade" now driven out of Broadway are finding refuge in Broome Street and its neighborhood. It is felt, however, that this can be but a temporary lodgment, and there is a general desire to concentrate in some locality, such as Bond Street offers, uniting great accessibility with comparative moderation in rents, where a New York Paternoster Row might be established to the convenience of the booksellers and the public.

—The active and prominent publishing house founded in London by the late Mr. John Cassell, and now continued by his surviving partners under the firm of Messrs. Cassell, Petter & Galpin, have just established an agency in New York for the sale of their publications. It is conducted by Mr. Walter Low, a younger branch of the parent stock of the firm of Messrs. Low, Son & Co., well-known for their liberality to American authors, and the enterprise they have shown in fighting their battles on the international copyright question. Mr. Cassell, who died during the past year at an early age, was a man who would have risen to eminence in any profession. His early pursuits were quite disconnected with publishing, but the idea of popular education and enlightenment took possession of his mind, and in carrying it out he showed all the business tact and talent that was wanting in his predecessor in the same enterprise, Charles Knight. Cassell's "Popular Educator," illustrated Bibles, and histories of England, atlases, etc., have reached a currency, while circulating in penny numbers, that the publications of the Useful Knowledge Society could never attain to throughout the whole country. The business establishment of the firm in London has kept pace with the demand, and is now said to be the largest and most complete in its facilities for the production of books in every department in the metropolis. It has lately made a great advance in public notice by securing for English use the wonderful designs of Gustave Doré. The Bible illustrated by that extraordinary artist is reproduced by them with English text, and is now publishing in monthly numbers. These are supplied by Mr. Walter Low at one dollar per number, and are, no doubt, destined to meet with a larger sale than any similar enterprise ever undertaken. They also issue his "Dante's Inferno," "Munchausen's Travels," and a great variety of other illustrated books, particulars of which are given in the catalogue.

—The "History of the Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac," by Mr. William Swinton, announced for publication during the present month by C. B. Richardson, is unavoidably detained by the anxiety of the author to secure every possible corroboration of his narrative from the documentary evidence most liberally placed at his disposal from all quarters. The Duke of Wellington is reported to have said, "When my papers are published many reputations will disappear," and though such results may not follow the appearance of Mr. Swinton's book, it is certain that it is eagerly looked for, especially in military circles. It is understood that the forthcoming work will be subsidiary to a complete standard classical "History of the War of Secession in America," that will probably occupy the time of the author for several years to come, and may be expected to take its rank in libraries as the accepted authority on the momentous subject, which it will treat with the thoroughness demanded by the highest class of historical composition.

—We have already mentioned the beautifully executed edition of the "Dramatic Works of John Marston," the Elizabethan writer, now in progress at Boston. Another piece of evidence is afforded of the intense interest felt in old English literature by the proposals for a reprint of George Chapman's translation of "Homer," issued by the new firm of Messrs. Wiggins & Lunt, of Boston, lately established with the express view of publishing and dealing in antiquarian literature of the most *recherché* kind. Their object in the bringing out of Chapman's "Homer" would be to produce an edition far superior to the only modern English one ever issued, in five small volumes in J.R. Smith's Antiquarian Library. They intend this work—including the "Iliad," "Odyssey," "Hymns," etc., as edited by Rev. R. Hooper, with original introductions by a distinguished American scholar—to form five splendidly printed octavo volumes, executed in the finest style of the typographic art, a small number of copies being printed on large paper for the sake of bibliographical amateurs. Subscribers' names are now received by the publishers.

—The English papers mention the appearance of the first number of "The Bookworm: an Illustrated Literary and Bibliographical Review." We have not heard that any copy has crept across the Atlantic, though the title is promising, and it will no doubt secure a liberal patronage on this side the ocean. When the volumes of "The Philobiblon," a journal of the same description, edited by Mr. George P. Philes, of New York, were noticed in London, it was mentioned reproachfully that nothing of the kind existed there; and we are glad to see that the lovers of old books and sound literature are removing the stigma. With the revival of commercial prosperity in this country, the journal above mentioned, "The Philobiblon," will make its re-appearance. We understand arrangements are nearly ready to that effect. Under its accomplished editor it promises to be a medium of great value to scholars and literary men who love the by-paths of literature.

—With the exception of Arthur Henry Hallam, no English poet of the present century has left a brighter image of himself in the memory of his friends than the late Arthur Hugh Clough. One of the earliest of these was Dr. Arnold, the famous head-master at Rugby, by whom Clough was educated, and who, at the yearly speeches in the last year of Clough's residence, congratulated him on having gained every honor which Rugby could bestow; Mr. Thomas Hughes was another; Mr. F. T. Palgrave another; and Mr. Matthew Arnold, son of the head-master, and present professor of poetry at Oxford, a third. And they have done what they could, which was much, to perpetuate his memory; especially the last, who went a little out of his way, in his "Last Words on Translating Homer," to praise him for his single-hearted love of study, and to speak of his pastoral, "The Bothie of Tober-na-Vuolich," in which he found "some admirable Homeric qualities, out-of-door freshness, life, naturalness, buoyant rapidity." Mr. Arnold has since, and recently, it would seem, done more than this—done, indeed, what no other living English poet could have accomplished—written a monody to commemorate his friend, which is almost unique in English literature. We can recall nothing like it, except one of Mr. Arnold's early poems, "The Scholar Gipsy," which was occasioned by a passage in Glanvil's "Vanity of Dogmatizing," and to which he refers in his monody. The title of the latter, "Thyrsis," leads one to expect a poem of the pastoral order, which it is to a certain extent, but much more and much better, we think, than any mere modern pastoral could be. Here and there are gleams of the old Greek pastoral element, veins of the profuse golden ore of Theocritus and Moschus; but they are richer than in those poets, containing as they do "gems of purest ray serene" in the shape of noble and earnest and sorrowful thoughts. What the poem may suggest to poetical students is the pastoral poetry of England at the beginning of the seventeenth century; as it exists, for instance, in William Browne and the two Fletchers. It has all the freshness and picturesqueness of these writers, with a finish and an art which no poet of their time, save Milton, could have given it. Its nature-painting is not unworthy of the young poet who sang "L'Allegro" and "Il Pensieroso," those two exquisite jewels hung in the ears of antiquity, and who hymned his shipwrecked friend in the one great dirge of our literature, "Lycidas." Its place is somewhere between that and Shelley's "Adonais." The appearance of this poem, after so long a poetical silence on Mr. Arnold's part (eleven years having elapsed since the publication of his last poetical venture, the tragedy of "Merope"), and the intimation that it is from advance sheets, leads us to hope that we may look for a new volume of poems from Mr. Arnold. Admirable in prose, as his volume of essays shows, and, more notably, his recent trenchant paper, "My Countrymen," we prefer him in his earlier and higher walk of poetry, a walk in which he moves alone, in advance of all the younger singers of the time, noble, thoughtful, and self-sustained.

—Whether an editor should collect what an author rejected from his works in his lifetime, is so delicate a matter that we suppose it will never be settled. It involves the question whether authors are, in all cases, the best judges of what they should accept and reject, and it involves—what is no question to us who admire and reverence them—our right to possess all that they have written. That the now general habit of preserving every scrap that ever fell from famous pens results in volumes of indifferent reading, bushels of chaff with but a few grains of wheat therein, is certain; but it is equally certain that once in a while it brings to light valuable additions to literature. The thought that his note-books would ever have been printed would have sent a shiver to the sensitive soul of Nathaniel Hawthorne, and would, perhaps, have driven him to destroy them; yet we cannot blame his friends for printing them, or portions of them, so excellent are they in themselves, and so much light do they shed on his genius and the

methods by which it worked. So with Thackeray's studies for "Denis Duval." They were the merest trifles, but valuable, nevertheless, in that they enabled us to see to what use a master could put them, letting us, as it were, behind the scenes while the stage was being "set." Well or ill, however, as the practice of preserving such *disjecta membra* may be, it prevails, and will prevail, and we who are squeamish must make up our minds to bear it. A case in point will soon be brought before us, in a couple of posthumous volumes by the late Washington Irving, edited by his nephew, Mr. Pierre Irving, and now in course of preparation by Messrs. Hurd & Houghton. Their title is to be "Spanish Papers," and their contents, we hear, a number of articles written by Irving when in Spain, and, later, when engaged upon what may be called his Spanish studies, "The Alhambra" and "The Conquest of Grenada." Some have appeared in magazines and periodicals in this country and in England, while others, if we understand rightly, will be printed from his manuscripts. A portion of the volumes will be made up of letters not included in Mr. Pierre Irving's biography, but written while Irving was in Spain, and bearing upon the character of his work, enough so, at least, to be included among his "Spanish Papers."

—The fact noticed by some old writer, Pliny, we believe, that literature flourishes immediately after great civil convulsions, is repeating itself here since the suppression of the rebellion—a brief period which has witnessed the commencement and projection of more newspapers and periodicals than the ten preceding years. As regards the latter, it seems to be a common opinion that a new magazine is demanded by the reading public, large numbers of whom are not content with the "Atlantic" or "Harper's Monthly." Something which should occupy the ground between the two would, it is argued, be certain to succeed. At any rate two of our New York publishing houses believe so; Messrs. Bunce & Huntington, or rather Mr. Bunce—for we understand he has retired from the firm just named—being hard at work perfecting arrangements for a "Town and Country" magazine, while Messrs. Church, of the *Army and Navy Journal*, are busy with a similar undertaking, the name of which has not been definitely settled. It s not likely that either of these periodicals will be published before next summer, or possibly next fall, for the chief difficulty in these cases, after raising the requisite capital, is to find a corps of good writers, which is no easy task, and to get good "copy" from them, which is not much easier. Both, indeed, are difficult achievements, as, we imagine, the gentlemen in question have by this time discovered, good American writers being as busy as they are scarce. If we may judge by the English magazines, a first-rate serial novel is necessary for success, and this is just what cannot be had here at any price, the prose-writers of America not being novelists, or at best but indifferent ones. If Hawthorne were living, and could be induced to write a romance, we should be willing to ensure the success of the magazine in which it appeared for a very moderate sum. So with Dr. Holmes. But Dr. Holmes is not writing, and cannot be persuaded to, except, perhaps, an occasional poem. In view of this fact, the "Atlantic Monthly" is fain to take up with Mr. Charles Reade, as "Harper's" is with Mr. Dickens, Mr. Wilkie Collins, or Mr. Anybodyelse who happens to be popular in England. Lacking the serial novel, there remain the tale and the essay, in which our writers, though certainly meritorious, are not up to the English standard of excellence. There are scores and scores of clever men and women in London who live by the pen, writing stories, and essays, and miscellaneous papers for the periodicals and literary journals, which are but little thought of there, the talent they show being so common, but which would be warmly welcomed here. There is an ease, a spirit, a finish about English periodical literature, which ours has not attained, and does not promise to attain speedily. These are some of the drawbacks to be considered by the projectors of the embryo magazines. They are serious, but not disheartening, for if our writers are not brilliant, they are not expected to be so by their readers. When the latter demand more, the former will have to give it to them, or give place to those who will. In the meantime, let us have the promised magazines, which may do something towards perfecting our literary education.

—That there is a tide in the affairs of men in authorship as well as most other mundane affairs, the writer of "A Night in the Workhouse" has every reason to acknowledge. A few months ago he was unknown, except, perhaps, among his circle of immediate friends, yet he had written for years, as a judicious reader of his famous article might have perceived from its excellence and finish, and on just such subjects as he handled therein. The golden opportunity came, or rather he went to it, one rainy night in a brougham, and, like the young Dickens who discovered Mr. Pickwick for us, or my Lord Byron before him, who created that *ennuyed* debauchee, Childe Harold, he "woke up one morning and found himself famous." Who can it be? asked his wondering countrymen, who have the good sense to relish the exposure of abuses, even at their own expense, and A answered, Mr. Tom Hughes, and B, Mr. Charles Dickens, and C, whatever writer happened to be uppermost in his mind. There being no reason why the "Casual" should wear his anonymous mask, it was dropped, and Mr. James Greenwood came forward and made his bow to the public for acknowledging his talents, and a mental vow to trespass again on their indulgence. This he has since done in a series of "Starlight Readings," in the *Evening Star*, and still further in a serial story, entitled "The True History of a Little Ragamuffin," to be completed in twelve monthly parts at one shilling each, the first of which was issued on the 1st of March, with a wrapper by Hablot K. Browne (*Phiz*) and a frontispiece and vignette by J. Gordon Thomson. The ragged little hero whose fortunes Mr. Greenwood relates has a brutal father and a drunken stepmother, from whom he escapes to wander through the streets of London by day and to sleep under the Adelphi arches by night, consorting the while with outcasts and thieves, mudlarks and ruffians, experiencing the tender mercies of a London workhouse through a fever, from which he recovers to continue, in other scenes and among more dangerous characters, his ragamuffinly career to the end. If we may judge of Mr. Greenwood by what is written of his serial, he sees with "equal eye" the tragic and comic aspects of the lowest stratum of London life, relieving the general sternness and gloom of his subject with flashes of bright and merry humor, and showing throughout a deal of artistic cleverness. "Since Defoe told the story of Colonel Jack's early experiences," says one of Mr. Greenwood's critics, "there has appeared no such minutely graphic and terribly truthful picture of a London beggar-boy; and though the work of the older novelist is to be preferred for the realism of its most pathetic touches, we are inclined to think that Mr. Greenwood's tale is no less essentially truthful, and no less calculated to maintain a place amongst the literary illustrations of London poverty." The obscurity which hangs over Mr. Greenwood's previous literary career has not been lifted for us, further than that his last work, the one we mean which immediately preceded "A Night in the Workhouse," was "The Hatchet-Throwers," a volume of grotesque humor, published last fall, with illustrations by Ernest Griset, and not very well spoken of at the time.

—The reputation of Byron, which has declined in England as that of Wordsworth has advanced, is still an eminent one in France, where the theatrical element of his genius is strongly sympathized with, and where one of his earliest admirers and latest followers, Lamartine, has been for sometime engaged on the not easy task of writing his life. The last of the many reports in relation to the work was, that the Marchioness de Boissy, better or worse known as the Countess Guiccioli, had placed Byron's letters to herself in the hands of Lamartine, to be used at discretion, a quality, by the way, which he never possessed. It is a canard, which Lamartine is said to have set afloat himself, with what truth we know not, and by which he has certainly profited, if only by the advertisement which it has given to his forthcoming volume. So, at least, the Marchioness de Boissy has asserted, and declared that she held Byron's correspondence sacred, and intended to keep it secret—a laudable intention, which she is now violating for a number of imaginable reasons, one of which may be to anticipate Lamartine, whose facts are frequently drawn from his fancy. At any rate, she is preparing a memoir, a biographical essay, or something of the kind, from which great things are expected. How the Marquis de Boissy, a whimsical and irate French senator, who, in wedding Byron's *chère amie*, more than wedded his dislike of England, views the biographical project, we are left to conjecture. An American or Englishman would hardly care to see his spouse writing the life of his predecessor, but in France, we suppose, they have changed all that.

—John Thompson, a notable man among the wood-engravers of England, of whom he stood at the head for over half a century, died lately at the good old age of eighty-one. The pupil of Branston, he was an associate of the late William Harvey, whose death preceded his own by a few weeks, many of whose drawings he engraved, as likewise those of Stothard, the most graceful and gentle of all England's designers. He also engraved all the cuts in Mulready's "Vicar of Wakefield" and the illustrations in Yarrell's works on natural history, besides Maclise's Britannia on the Bank of England notes, and the postage-stamp designed by Mulready—cutting the last in relief in brass. Unlike too many of his profession, he never subsided into a mere manufacturer of blocks, but, from first to last, was an artist. He directed for some years the class of female students of wood-engraving of the Art School of South Kensington, and presented to the South Kensington Museum a very valuable collection of illustrations of the art of wood-engraving.

—The complete edition of the "Works of Lord Macaulay," edited by his sister, Lady Trevelyan, and recently published by the Longmans, contains a number of papers rejected by Lord Macaulay himself in his lifetime, the most noticeable of which are three articles on Mr. James Mill, the historian of British India, for writing which he afterwards made an apology; an "Introductory Report on the Indian Penal Code," and "Notes on the Indian Penal Code," the results of his short residence in India; and two short poems of no especial merit. The edition, which is the first uniform one, is in eight handsome octavo volumes.

TOWLE'S HENRY V.*

Mr. Towle starts with an error on his very title-page. Henry the Fifth was *not* "heir of France," as Mr. Towle himself is at particular pains to show. He points out the total want of title to the French crown in Edward the Third, who began the English quarrel for that crown; and then he makes it equally clear that if Edward the Third had possessed a title to that crown it would have descended not to Henry the Fifth, but to the Earl of March, in right of his descent from Lionel, Duke of Clarence, who was third son of Edward the Third, while Henry the Fifth was descended from John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster, a younger brother of Lionel of Clarence. Henry the Fifth reigned over England in virtue of his father's successful usurpation of the English crown. That success which made a Henry the Fourth King of England out of a Duke of Lancaster who professed to seek only the possession of estates unjustly taken from him by Richard the Second, may have been good reason why all Englishmen, as lovers of order, should support the house of Lancaster; but it could not convey to Henry the Fifth a title to the crown of France. Had Henry the Fifth lived and completed the conquest of France, with Paris as the capital of his empire, he might have been called the "Conqueror," as William the First is so called because of his success in obtaining the throne of England. "What we call purchase, *perquisitio*," says Blackstone, "the feudists called conquest, *conquisitio*, both denoting any means of acquiring an estate out of the common course of inheritance. And this is still the proper phrase in the law of Scotland, as it was among the Norman jurists, who styled the first purchaser (that is, him who brought the estate into the family which at present owns it) the conqueror, or *conquereur*, which seems to be all that was meant by the appellation which was given to William the Norman." Henry the Fifth had as good claim to the French throne as William of Normandy had to that of England—that is, no claim at all; but if he had perfected the work which he began so well, he would have based his right to rule the French not on conquest, according to the common meaning of the word, but on his having entered into possession of his inheritance. All conquerors are fond of legitimacy, and usurping conquerors are particularly fond of it. Even Napoleon the First once astounded some of his counsellors by speaking of his "unfortunate relative, Louis the Sixteenth;" and he justified his use of the words by reference to his marriage to Marie Louise of Austria, who was a connection of Louis. The only reasons for calling Henry the Fifth "Heir of France" are to be found in the arrangement that was made that he should succeed Charles the Sixth as king of that country, which came to nothing, and depended for its worth upon the event of war; and in his having been styled *Heir and Regent of France* in the records of the "Acts of the Privy Council," which is of no more moment than the style of "King of France," which English sovereigns bore down almost to our day, or that of "King of Cyprus and Jerusalem," which Sardinian monarchs bore down to 1859.

Mr. Towle makes some other slips. He speaks of John of Gaunt sometimes as the second son of Edward the Third and at others as his third son. He was the fourth son of Edward the Third. The first four sons of Edward and Philippa were, Edward (the Black Prince), William (who died young), Lionel, and John of Gaunt, Duke of Lancaster. This point is not so trivial a matter as at the first blush it appears to be, for out of this order of births grew that long and extraordinary civil conflict known as the Wars of the Roses—a conflict that never would have taken place had John of Gaunt been the second, or even the third, son of Edward the Third. Had he been the third son of that monarch he would have been heir presumptive of Richard the Second, and his son, Henry of Bolingbroke, would have succeeded to his place, and would have been entitled to the crown, failing heirs of Richard the Second. The Wars of the Roses would have been impossible had the Lancastrian branch of the royal house been founded by the third son of Edward the Third. And we need not tell any one who is acquainted with English history that those wars produced consequences which have closely affected all subsequent time, and that to an extent which it would be difficult to exaggerate. Seldom has it happened that the mere order in which princes were born has been attended with consequences so important as came from the circumstance that John of Gaunt was the junior of three of his brothers.

Another mistake made by our author is in saying that "the only ground which Henry [the Fifth] could with the least reason take [that the French crown was his] was that his father was the heir of an older [elder?] brother of Edward the *Second*, by which claim, as we have seen, Bolingbroke sought to justify his usurpation." We have seen nothing of the kind. Henry the Fourth was incapable of the absurdity of setting up a claim to the throne on the ground of descent from an elder brother of Edward the Second. What he did was this: He claimed the realm and crown of England because of his descent by right line of blood from Henry the Third, thus countenancing the story, known to be utterly unfounded, that Edmund, Earl of Lancaster, son of Henry the Third, was the elder brother of Edward the *First*, but had been set aside in order to advance the latter. It was on his mother's side that Henry the Fourth was descended from Edmund of Lancaster, and his claim to the crown would have been good could he have made it clear that Edmund of Lancaster was the eldest son of Henry the Third. It is strange that he never thought of this claim until after he had obtained the crown through successful fraud, backed by powerful force, and that he did not earlier put it forward is enough to show its worthlessness when he uttered it on the occasion of taking the kingly office, after Richard's deposition. The whole thing reminds us of an attempt that was made by Louis Philippe to show that he was legitimate King not of the French, but of France, because he belonged to the old line! But if Henry the Fourth had clearly made out that he reigned in right of his descent from Edmund of Lancaster, he would thereby have given up all right to the French throne; for the claim of Edward the Third to that throne was based on his mother's power to convey it to her son, and she was not born until the latter part of the reign of Edward the First. She was the wife of Edward the Second; and if Henry the Fourth had been descended from a brother of her husband, such descent could have given to Henry the Fifth, his son, no pretence to reign over the French, even if every member of the French royal family had been dead, and if the Salique law had not prevailed in France.

It is impossible to go back further than Edward the Third to find any ground for the Plantagenet claim to the French succession, unless we assume that a claim could have been set up in behalf of one of the descendants of Marguerite of France, second wife of Edward the First, and such claim would have been fatal to that of Edward the Third and of all other members of the English reigning family. Edward the Second, it may be added, had two elder brothers, but both died in childhood. In one place (p. 161) Mr. Towle states that Henry the Fifth's mother died in 1404; a few pages further on (169) he says she died in 1394, which is the correct date. If she had been alive in 1404 her husband must be considered "a moral bigamist," for he sought the hand of Marie de Berri in 1398-9. Mr. Towle says that Henry the Fourth "married Joan of Navarre, daughter of the King of Aragon," in 1405. How a princess of Navarre could be a daughter of the King of Aragon he does not explain. The lady, who was widow of John, Duke of Brittany, was daughter of Charles le Mauvais, one of the most notoriously infamous characters of the fourteenth century, and she was a French, not a Spanish, princess. She married Henry the Fourth in 1402. Our author says that Henry the Fifth's "grandmother, the Duchess of Lancaster, died in the same year" that his mother died, 1394. A Duchess of Lancaster died in 1394, but she was not Henry the Fifth's grandmother. She was the Princess Constance of Castile, and no more grandmother of Henry the Fifth than was Catherine Swynford, John of Gaunt's mistress, whom he married after Constance's death. In telling a rather poor jest made by Henry the Fifth when he restored the Archbishop of Sens to his diocese, Mr. Towle so writes as to convey the droll impression that it was the practice of French prelates to marry in the fifteenth century, for he says that the archbishop "had been ousted of his diocese because of his Burgundian opinions, and had *left his wife behind*." All that Henry meant by his words to the prelate was that he was wedded to his diocese. We have not a Gradgrindian devotion to facts, but we hold that when facts are supposed to be worth mentioning, they are worth mentioning correctly.

In spite of these slips Mr. Towle's volume has much merit. It is the best history of Henry the Fifth that we have, and the reign of that sovereign was a brilliant time because of Henry's success in war. Henry was a great soldier; and had it been his fortune to live even as long as his father lived—and he died not much beyond middle life—he would have wrought greater changes in the course of Christendom than ever were accomplished by any sovereign; but they would, we are convinced, have been injurious to man-

* "The History of Henry the Fifth, King of England, Lord of Ireland, and Heir of France. By George Makepeace Towle, Author of 'Glimpses of History.'" New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1866.

kind; for they would have involved the disappearance of the English nation through England's absorption into a great French empire, and England is the very country whose degradation to a provincial position the world could have least afforded, her career as a nation having been more beneficial to humanity than that of any other country. But Henry died at about the same age that saw the end of the Macedonian Alexander, and his death was followed by great funeral games in which all that he had nominally gained was profitably lost. Mr. Towle has written his history with spirit, and the general effect of his work is good. It is rather too much in the manner of a eulogy to suit the strict requirements of historical criticism, and some of his endeavors to excuse Henry's proceedings on certain occasions are far-fetched. He cannot, for instance, expect his readers to believe that Henry was animated by a desire to bestow on the French the blessings of order when he invaded their country and cut so many of their throats. This is to apply the ideas of the nineteenth century to the fifteenth century, which is what Mr. Towle fairly protests against when speaking of Henry's treatment of the Lollards. It is to make a Napoleon the Third of the Fifth Henry, whereas the English King looked upon France in a very different light from that in which the French Emperor looks upon Mexico. The two monarchs resemble one another in nothing but selfishness. Ten years hence our author will smile over some portions of his work, and probably he will recast it. The faults it has, it is easy to see, are such as proceed from inexperience. It seldom happens that a young man can write history as it should be written, because he lacks that knowledge of life which is the key to human motives. The more an historian has had to do with affairs, the better will he write of those affairs in which others were actors; and experience in affairs can come only with years. Mr. Towle cannot be classed with great historians, but we fairly can say that this work affords ample evidence that there is in him the material of which historians are made, with the assistance of study, experience, and reflection.

THE LIFE AND TIMES OF JAMES MADISON.*

Mr. Rives's work, of which the second volume has just been issued after an interval of several years from the publication of the first, would be more satisfactory were it either a history or a biography, rather than a mixture of both. We want larger sketches of the nation, its leaders, its classes, and its interests, to be entirely satisfied with the work as a historical one, while to be fully biographical, it ought to enter into a great variety of details, personal and local, without which we can form no familiar acquaintance with any man. We fear that the form in which Mr. Rives has cast his labors will interfere with their merited effect.

At the same time, we may remember that the first volume contains a good deal that is personal to Mr. Madison, while the second treats of a period in his life during which he was almost exclusively a public man. From the beginning of 1785, when this volume opens, to the end of 1788, where it closes, Mr. Madison was not only absorbed in, but we may say identified with, the formation of the Constitution. To this great transaction he devoted himself with an earnestness certainly not surpassed and perhaps not equalled in any of his contemporaries. He toiled or rested, rejoiced or lamented, hoped or feared, according to the movements of the nation in desiring or avoiding, accepting or rejecting, a new frame of government. It was his one predominant object, and to write his biography during these four years is necessarily to write the history of the Constitution.

Jefferson spoke of him as "the main pillar" of the Constitution in the convention then about to decide upon its ratification by Virginia. He had been its main pillar not only from the moment it began to rise, but from the time in which its uncertain foundations were laid. Thirty-four years old in 1785, Madison,

> "Starting in his fervent prime,
> Did first lead forth that enterprise sublime."

Not that it owed its original design to him, but that, cherished in the patriotic purposes of all far-sighted Americans, it entered upon its earliest practical movements under the guidance of Madison. As we read Mr. Rives's volume, and follow the efforts there related, it comes home to us once more that, if it can be said of any man, it can be said of James Madison, that he was the Father of the Constitution.

A summary of his claims to so august a title will be the most effectual analysis of the volume before us:

1. It was on Madison's motion in the Virginia House of Delegates, early in 1785, that commissioners from that State were appointed to confer with others from Maryland on the jurisdiction of the two States over the waters of the Potomac and Chesapeake Bay. He was one of the commissioners. They met at Alexandria and the neighboring Mt. Vernon in the month of March, and at Madison's suggestion, as he afterwards affirmed, they decided to recommend to their respective States a commercial compact by which the disturbances hitherto affecting their trade might be removed. Maryland adopted the recommendation on condition that Pennsylvania and Delaware should be invited to join in the projected compact. The assent of Virginia, though given unconditionally, was delayed by the introduction of another scheme into her Assembly.

2. This was a resolution instructing the Virginia delegates in Congress to propose "a general regulation of the commerce of the United States." Madison was the advocate of this resolution, and when it fell into danger of being rendered ineffectual by certain qualifications, he prepared a substitute, which he induced one of his colleagues to offer, lest his own proposal of it should excite unnecessary opposition, to the effect that commissioners should be appointed from all the States "to consider how far a uniform system in their commercial regulations may be necessary to their common interest and permanent harmony." This was finally adopted by the Legislature in January, 1786, and Madison was appointed one of the Virginia commissioners.

3. At their instance the convention was summoned to meet at Annapolis in the following September. Five States only being represented, the convention broke up, as Madison wrote beforehand, "with the recommendation of another time and place and an intimation of the expediency of extending the plan to other defects of the confederation." To carry this larger purpose into effect, an address was prepared by Hamilton, of New York, which, after being modified by the influence of the Virginia delegates, and, therefore, of Madison, recommended a convention to be held at Philadelphia in the ensuing month of May, "to take into consideration the situation of the United States" and "to devise such further provisions as shall appear necessary to render the Constitution of the Federal Government adequate to the exigencies of the Union."

4. The report from Annapolis being presented to the Legislature of Virginia, Madison introduced the act of Nov. 9, 1786, under which Virginia took the lead in appointing delegates to the Philadelphia convention. If his labors had ended with securing the passage of that noble act, they would have placed him among the very foremost of those who prepared the way of the Constitution.

5. The next great service he performed was in uniting with others to persuade Washington to accept the appointment of a delegate to the convention. The correspondence between the two shows the importance which Washington attached to Madison's opinion in regard to his accepting the appointment. Madison himself was one of the delegates from Virginia.

6. He made all possible preparations for the duty before him. He drew up several papers, one on the great confederations of ancient and modern times, another on the constitutional history of England and other European states, and another still on "The Vices of the Political System of the United States." He wrote elaborate letters to Jefferson, then in Paris; to Randolph, governor of Virginia; and to Washington, upon the work before the approaching convention, setting forth what he afterwards termed "the earliest sketch on paper of a constitutional government for the Union." Thus prepared to bear his part in the national council, he brought with him a wise and discriminating zeal, which rendered him one of the most useful as well as influential members of the convention. In addition to all his regular duties, he took upon himself the charge of recording with his own hand the proceedings of the assembly, concerning which our knowledge would now be sadly insufficient but for his laborious report. Mr. Curtis, in his "History of the Constitution," while regarding Madison's labors as far more arduous than those of any other delegate, is disposed to consider his greatest service as having consisted in meeting the objections to a want of power in the convention to form a wholly new frame of government. But Mr. Rives brings out in full relief the variety of Madison's services and the inestimable value of his suggestions concerning almost every portion of the Constitution. Few if any of his colleagues could have filled his place had he left it. Nor can we recall the difficulties of the convention, or the frequent hazards of its separating without having done its work, without a thrill of pain at the thought of what might have happened but for the calm, unwearied endeavors of Madison to bring those momentous deliberations to a peaceful issue.

7. As soon as the sessions of the convention were over he took his seat in Congress, and bent his efforts to induce that body to fulfil its office in bringing the Constitution before the people. His correspondence, long ago published in the appendix to the ninth volume of Mr. Sparks's edition of

* "History of the Life and Times of James Madison. By William C. Rives. Vol. II." Boston: Little, Brown & Co. 1866.

Washington's writings, shows the magnitude of Madison's Congressional services to the Constitution.

8. He was at the same time the champion of the Constitution before the nation. Hamilton and Jay had been writing in its behalf under the signature of "A Citizen of New York," when they invited Madison to join them, and on his doing so the articles that followed were signed "Publius," and addressed to the people of the United States. Madison's part in the *Federalist* is of singular value, and, as it has been underestimated at times, Mr. Rives has done well in stating and proving its importance.

9. The best part of the volume under review is that which describes Madison's support of the Constitution in the Convention of Virginia. To the decision of this body, for reasons generally known, the country looked with an unusual solicitude. "It is worthy of remark," wrote Madison to Jefferson at the close of 1787, "that in Virginia, where the mass of the people have been so much accustomed to be guided by their rulers on all new and intricate questions, they should on the present, which certainly surpasses the judgment of the greater part of them, not only go before, but contrary to their most popular leaders; and the phenomenon is the more wonderful, as a popular ground is taken by all the adversaries of the new Constitution." At the head of these adversaries, and the most popular among them all, was Patrick Henry, the fervent leader, the commanding orator, and, we must add, the unprincipled public man. He rested his op position to the Constitution as much upon its preamble, which declared it to be ordained by the people, as upon any single point, but he was constantly declaiming against all its principal provisions. Madison, and Madison alone, met him at every turn in the debate—now upon a general question, now upon a question of detail, always ready, always thorough, always the master of the situation. An eye-witness, writing as late as 1857, says:

"The impressions made by the powerful arguments of Madison and the overwhelming eloquence of Henry can never fade from my mind. I thought hem almost supernatural. They seemed raised up by Providence, each in his way, to produce great results: the one by his grave, dignified, and irresistible arguments to convince and enlighten mankind; the other by his brilliant and enrapturing eloquence to lead whithersoever he would. . . . They were both, at all times, great and interesting; but the convention yielded gradually to the convincing and irresistible arguments of Madison, and adopted the Constitution."

It was Chief-Justice Marshall who, on being asked which of all the public speakers he had ever heard was the most eloquent, replied thus: "If eloquence includes persuasion by convincing, Mr. Madison was the most eloquent of all."

Such is a mere outline of the exertions which Mr. Rives has described with an accuracy and a reverence which leave little to be desired from any other writer. He does not neglect the collateral questions in which Madison interested himself, some of which, like the navigation of the Mississippi, had an immediate bearing upon the adoption of the Constitution. Nor does he pass by, though we wish he had dwelt upon them more, the personal occupations and tastes of Madison, his legal studies and writings, his enquiries into population, his interest in natural history and the observation of the world around him. Mr. Rives writes with clearness and dignity, though his expressions are sometimes overstrained, and we miss the charms of a simpler style. He implies that the volume was written before the outbreak of civil war, and takes occasion to express, in language highly honorable to him, "the sincere and sanguine hope that, with the re-establishment of peace, the system founded by our wise and virtuous ancestors will quietly revert to its original principles and beneficent operation, and continue to vindicate to future ages and the enlightened judgment of the world the comprehensive statesmanship and enlarged and noble patriotism in which it was conceived."

ANATOMY AND PHYSIOLOGY FOR SCHOOLS.*

WHILE no branch of study can lay claim to a more absorbing interest or a greater practical importance, we are yet without a work upon human anatomy and physiology at once popular and scientific, sufficiently untechnical to be understood by an intelligent schoolboy, and sufficiently full to answer the questions every such boy will ask. This lack is chargeable to the public indifference; and we have only to be awake to this necessity to give physiology a place in our schools as firmly established as that won but recently by chemistry or physics.

The urgency of the need was a measure of the interest with which we hailed an effort to meet it, such as the work below named seemed to indicate. To the eye the book is attractive. Type, paper, and binding are of the best; the illustrations are profuse, and mostly accurate and well executed—most of those, at least, which we recognize as borrowed from the "Physiology" of Professor J. W. Draper (*père*). Closer examination compels a suspicion that the title-page hardly reveals the author's full scope and purpose; that, under the modest guise of an instructor of youth, he is seeking to undermine the old towers of orthodox medicine, and spring strange heresies upon an unwary public. To this idea the arrangement of the work gives some color; for while many topics of grave moment are lightly touched upon, we find several lectures devoted to the reproduction, *in extenso*, of the author's inaugural thesis upon the origin of urea, and certain papers upon the lungs and skin. Again, in lecture twenty-eight, the liver is disposed of in half a page, and six pages are given to Professor Henry Draper's inaugural thesis upon the spleen. Now, although we would be far from questioning the value of the experiments here embodied, we might doubt the fairness of promulgating them through a channel so foreign to the profession. We are thus forced to believe (and a remark in the preface confirms us) that it is for medical "schools" the work is intended; and as the latest contribution to science, we invite our readers to a taste of its quality.

Upon the various moot points of physiology the author's views are clearly pronounced. Many questions which have been lately agitated are at last definitely settled, commonly, indeed, with no intimation that they had ever been in dispute; others that we had deemed long since at rest are revived, with such change of form and feature as, doubtless, befits a resurrection. To the latter class we shall confine our extracts. Even the worn-out field of descriptive anatomy, which has been tilled for so many years that one would think it might now lie fallow, is made to yield rich harvests of unimagined fruits. It is the more to be regretted that our experimenter should consign to waste whole tracts as here: "The muscles of the fore-arm are all small, and do not give any special marks or contours; . . . we must, therefore, leave the description of them to more extended works." It is a satisfaction, however, that if selection must be made, it should be guided by so just a criterion. It is manifest, from a careful study of these new developments, that our old notions are all at fault. For instance, when told that "all animals are provided with a more or less perfect skeleton" (p. 9), we are at a loss whether to assign the jelly-fishes to the vegetable or the mineral kingdom. The proposition that "the ribs are curved upon themselves so as to form an arc of a circle" (p. 19), seems to imply that a new system of geometry awaits us, and our classification is set all awry by the discovery that the bones of the foot "all belong to the order of long bones" (p. 22). We would refer enquirin ganatomists to Figure 42 and the accompanying descriptions as particularly rich in the new discoveries. Some others of the *original* figures are sadly puzzling, especially where the text fails to enlighten us upon their peculiarities. On the other hand, where the figures seem clear, the novel names perplex us, as, for instance, when an artery familiar as the posterior temporal is termed "the maxillary" (p. 86).

Upon the blood and its circulation much light is thrown. That the clot "*floats* in the serum" (p. 71) is a fact which, in these days of rare blood-letting, we might have waited long to discover. It is interesting to know, too, that "the ventricles, *and especially the left*, force the blood into the arteries," etc. (p. 78). But why dally with such trifles when the following is before us: "The sounds of the heart are caused by the passage of the blood through the valves and their sudden closure. . . . The auricles at the base contract at the same moment; . . . the sound produced is represented by the syllable *lubb*. This is followed by the contraction of the ventricles, which also move together, and produce a sound represented by the syllable *tupp*, shorter, quicker, and sharper than that produced by the auricles?" (p. 81). Physical diagnosis must, henceforward, abate its pretensions to certainty; for it is founded upon the notion—thus made obsolete—that neither "the passage of the blood through the valves," nor yet the action of the auricles, is accompanied, in health, by any appreciable sound. The author adopts what we may call the chemical theory of the circulation, making the capillaries the chief agency concerned, as opposed to the mechanical theory, where the heart is considered the great motive power. Suggested by the earlier physiologists, that theory has been elaborated by Prof. J. W. Draper, who has supported it by many strong arguments. But it was reserved for his disciple to assert that "direct experiment has shown that the force exerted by that organ [the heart] is not sufficient to propel the blood through the capillaries" (p. 91).

The lectures upon the nervous system and the special senses give a faint outline of Professor J. W. Draper's remarkably ingenious, though fanciful, theories. We have also such new facts as that the sense of taste "is situated in the tongue *and not in the palate*" (p. 182). We must entreat an ex-

* "A Text-Book on Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene, for the Use of Schools and Families. By John C. Draper, M.D., Professor of Natural History and Physiology in the New York Free Academy, and Professor of Analytical Chemistry in the University of New York. With 170 Illustrations." New York: Harper & Brothers. 1866. 8vo, pp. xviii.—300.

position of the system of logic by which, from the established premises that the blood gains cholesterine in passing through the brain and loses it in passing through the liver, the conclusion is deduced that this element of the bile is produced by the liver for the supply of the brain.

Part third embraces hygiene. Gastronomy is discussed philosophically, mythologically, historically, and etymologically. We learn that "breakfast should, *as its name signifies*, be small in quantity;" and that Jupiter was amorous because he was fed on goat's milk. We are taught that fish makes a people prolific (Malthusians, ponder!) and are initiated into the mysteries of *caviare* and crammed capons. Epicures take comfort in the reflection that the flesh of the latter "has a higher nutritious power, since it is said that one ounce of fat meat will furnish an amount of nutriment equal to that obtained from four ounces of lean meat." But while complacently meditating upon the good dinners we shall hereafter enjoy, in pursuance of this novel doctrine, we are brought up against another of the new style syllogisms: *Major premise*, above; *minor*, on p. 25, wherein it is shown that the white flesh of birds owes its color to fatty degeneration; *conclusion* (p. 239): "The flesh of birds whose meat is dark is much more nutritious than that of the white-fleshed birds." The pages glow with the fires of pent-up knowledge, but we have space only for the closing injunction, which for clearness, conciseness, and cogency must stand unequalled: "Habit is the most powerful of all agents in its effect not only on the digestive, but also on the other systems of the body. It should, therefore, be cultivated to as great an extent as possible, for the body quickly accommodates itself to any given duty, and accomplishes a definite amount of work with far greater ease when it is accustomed to it" (p. 247).

The Origin and Antiquity of Physical Man Scientifically Considered. Proving man to have been contemporary with the mastodon; detailing the history of his development from the domain of the brute, and dispersion by great waves of emigration from Central Asia. By Hudson Tuttle, author of "Arcana of Nature," etc. (Boston: William White & Co. 1866. 12mo, pp. 258.)—There has never been a time when our knowledge of the ancient history of man was increasing with anything like the same rapidity as at present. Several independent branches of enquiry are successfully exploring the darkness of the past. Language is yielding results to ethnology the possibility of which was unsuspected but a few years since. Archæology is finding, even in the well-explored soil of Europe, abundant remains of a period and a mode of life unapproached by the oldest human traditions. The geologists discover bones of men and rude implements, which can have been fashioned only by men's hands, in such situations and with such neighbors that we are threatened with a total overthrow of the hitherto prevailing views respecting the age of our race as a member of creation. The zoölogists are making the development theory, which has been the laughing-stock of more than one generation, a matter no longer to be dismissed with a shrug and a word of contempt. All these are most promising lines of investigation, whose development is to be watched with the highest interest, and from which we shall derive, by-and-bye, results both definite and satisfactory. But they are at present in such an inchoate state as makes them hard to deal with by one not thoroughly and specially versed in them, and particularly hard to treat conjointly and comprehensively. At the same time, with a not unnatural impatience, men are hastening to sum up their results; to close the case and pronounce judgment before the evidence is half in, or the advocates have made their final pleas. Knowing something of one department, or, at second hand, a little of them all, they try to combine their various results, or to construct already a natural history of man. Thus Max Müller, in his last lectures on language, in a "note on words for fir, oak, and beech," attempts to fit together the linguistic and archæological chronologies, and makes an egregious failure. Thus an English clergyman, named Heath, in a paper (reported in full, as "highly interesting," in the London "Reader" of last December) presented to that sapient body, the Anthropological Society, endeavors to explain Grimm's law respecting the mutation of consonants in German by the aid of anthropoid apes and "kitchen-middens," and produces one of the most exquisitely absurd and ludicrous theories, perhaps, that was ever seriously brought before a learned body. The work before us belongs in the same class. Mr. Tuttle attempts to grasp a subject greatly beyond his powers, and meets with such success as might be expected. Weak and pretentious, is the general impression left by it upon the reader. It is well meant, liberal in tone, and shows extensive reading; but is superficial and uncritical, mixing valuable facts with unwarranted assumptions and unfounded theories, and truths well established with unsafe deductions from insufficient data; and it shows misapprehensions of every kind, from those of most fundamental consequence down to such trifles as the writing of *generæ* as would-be plural of *genera!* It is no credit to American scholarship, and can only add to the obscurity which it would fain relieve.

Miss Oona McQuarrie. A sequel to "Alfred Hagart's Household." By Alexander Smith. (Ticknor & Fields, Boston.)—The most serious charge that we have against "Miss Oona McQuarrie" is that, being the sequel to another book, it would seem as if we ought to read that other book before passing judgment upon its supplement. But we plead to have taken all of "Miss Oona" with much fidelity, and every one knows that floating island cannot be eaten for ever. Mr. Smith seems to belong to a class of persons who very correctly believe that a "plain unvarnished tale" of every-day unadventurous life may possess greater charms than a sensation novel with the most elaborate plot, but who also very incorrectly hold that it is an easy thing for any one with a soul above weak desires for accidents, mysteries, and catastrophes to allow his pen to "tell a simple story simply"—and of course entertainingly. But a successful "simple story" requires something more to produce it than a mere contempt of plot. It is not, as Mr. Smith by example would have us believe, a bald relation of commonplaces. It is not a mass of worthless details like these. But it is a work of the highest art, requiring, except perhaps from the few whom genius inspires, hard labor and most courageous immolation of pages of manuscript that are almost good enough. It is very easy to despise Mrs. Southworth, but very difficult to approach Mrs. Gaskell. Among the countless dilettante writers of little, prettyish, namby-pamby stories, who fancy that a love of fine scenery, or a superior taste for poetry, or a flow of language, or a devotion to certain unusual or difficult authors, has qualified them so to do; who of these, we ask, can place his or her own lucubrations beside "Cranford" and not be struck by the difference between a simplicity pregnant with thought and a simplicity pregnant with vapor?

Mr. Smith has a nice eye for the *mise en scène*, and if his characters only fulfilled his good intentions, they would make a charming group against his well-painted Hebridesian background. But it is one thing to *mean* to have a "strong cast," and another thing to have one. There is something almost painful in being able to distinguish so plainly an author's plan for the development of character through the flimsy screen of bad work. To see the poor puppets ticketed off, as it were, and struggling to accomplish their originality, piquancy, pathos, humor, or whatever else was set down for them, and never succeeding, gives the reader an uncomfortable sense of connection with a huge scheme of affectation; or as if he had got into a world where the people had been born not quite finished, and were trying to finish themselves.

The Shadow of Christianity; or, The Genesis of the Christian State. A Treatise for the Times, by the Author of the "Apocatastasis." (Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.)—The true state, according to our author, or a genuine democracy, is possible only as an incident of Christianity, and will be in vain sought after by or among any people acknowledging a different faith. From this formula, for which the argument is strong enough, though lacking, it is evident, the support of a complete illustration in the government of any country, the author proceeds to lay down principles with which the American republic must yet square itself before it can resemble the church, whose legitimate offspring it is. He sees a great many equal laws which are very unequal in their operation and effects, especially those which relate to property; and he would have the state limit the accumulation of wealth. In the same view he advocates legalizing the eight-hour system, though the inequalities of a statute of this sort are too palpable to need pointing out. He would have society protect the individual farmer or mechanic against capital by reserving his homestead or house from liability to debt, and the former against himself by restricting him from selling any less than the whole of the homestead thus reserved. In short, our author is a very vigorous protectionist, and challenges political economy to mortal combat for the heresy of competition. Of course, we cannot join him in this absurd tilt at a science which is nothing if not democratic, and which has taught the world that the riches and power of nations are contained in the well-being, intelligence, and industry of the masses. Nor can we, while agreeing with many of his propositions, help believing that, in reasoning out the remainder *à priori*, Adam Smith would have been a much safer starting-point than the Golden Rule.

The Alhambra. Wolfert's Roost, and Other Papers. By Washington Irving. (G. P. Putnam, Hurd & Houghton, New York.)—These are two dainty volumes of the Riverside edition of Irving's works. They are not only adapted to adorn the shelves of any library, but are of a most commodious size and shape for the hand of the reader. The second contains, besides the leading sketch, a variety of others, short and appertaining to many lands. Those made in Paris in 1825 are particularly pleasant reading for their observations on national characteristics.

Venus of Milo. Drawn by T. Hovenden. Photographed by Gellatly & Lecky. (Edward Dechaux, Jr., 653 Broadway, New York.)—Few persons, on first glancing at this photograph, would detect that it was not taken from a plaster cast of the great original. In fact, it copies a very skilful production of the crayon, correct in the general proportions, and conscientious in details, even to the slightest dint that mars the beautiful figure. The face alone does not quite satisfy us, but it does not spoil the *tout ensemble*. The mounting is in the best of taste.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

An Account of the Operations of the Fifth Army Corps at the Battle of Five Forks, etc. By G. K. Warren, late Major-General Volunteers. William M. Franklin, New York.

The Story of the Embarkation of Cromwell and his Friends for New England. [Reprinted from the "New England Historical and Genealogical Register.] D. Clapp & Son, Boston.

Mackenzie's Ten Thousand Receipts in all the Useful and Domestic Arts. Second Edition. T. Ellwood Zell, Philadelphia.

Driftings from the Stream of Life. A Collection of Fugitive Poems. By Elizabeth Bogart. Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.

The Temporal Mission of the Holy Ghost; or, Reason and Revelation. By Henry Edward, Archbishop of Westminster.—An Eirenicon, in a Letter to the Author of "The Christian Year." By E. B. Pusey, D.D.—Stonewall Jackson. A Military Biography. With Portrait and Maps. By John Esten Cooke, formerly of Gen. Stuart's Staff. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

Eccentric Personages. By W. Russell, LL.D. American News Company, New York.

Lucy Arlyn. By J. T. Trowbridge. Ticknor & Fields, Boston.

The Fortune Seeker. By Mrs. Emma D. E. N. Southworth. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

Diary: 1863, '64, '65. By Adam Gurowski. W. H. & O. H. Morrison, Washington

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

It has always been hard to get homogeneous glass for optical purposes, especially for the object-glasses of large telescopes. A glass suitable for the use of the optician must be entirely unaffected by exposure to the air and to moisture, and it must be free from bubbles and veins, even the minutest. The optician selects his glass with the greatest care, yet it not unfrequently happens that a costly instrument, when completed, proves unfit for use. It has therefore been a problem of great practical importance to discover some method of preliminary examination, which should reveal the slightest irregularities of refracting power in the glass before attempting to employ it in the construction of a first-class optical instrument.

The investigation of this problem has led Dr. Toepler, of Poppelsdorf, Germany, to the invention of an instrument which not only meets the wants of the optician, but promises also to be of high scientific value as a means of research, since it enables us to detect the slightest variations from perfect homogeneity in any transparent medium. The principle is easily explained. If the rays of light radiating from a brilliant point are brought to a focus by a perfect convex lens, the image formed will be itself a point; but any imperfection in the lens or any lack of homogeneity in the medium through which the rays are transmitted from their source to the image, will cause some of these rays to vary from their normal course and to fall outside of the image. If the eye be placed just beyond the focus, looking towards the lens, we shall see the lens itself as an intensely luminous disc, too bright to admit of any perception of slight irregularities. If now a small, opaque screen be placed at the focus, in such a way as just to cut off the image without covering the pupil of the eye, it is evident that the rays which fall just outside the image will strike upon the pupil, and thus become visible. The illuminated disc will disappear, but every imperfection in it will remain visible in its true form and extent. If the deviation of the rays has been caused not by imperfections in the lens itself but by irregular refractions in the air, we shall see the irregularities of structure which have caused such refractions, be they waves of condensation or of rarefaction.

Constructed on the above principle, but naturally somewhat more complicated in form to make it convenient and accurate in use, Dr. Toepler's instrument has led to some very interesting experiments. The phenomena of the diffusion of gases into one another, which have been so much studied without ever having been seen, are now made visible. Hydrogen and carbonic acid gases, evolved in the cold, instantly diffuse themselves into the surrounding air, as the bubbles of liquid containing them burst. In Dr. Toepler's apparatus each bursting bubble seems a flash of lightning. Ordinary illuminating gas diffuses itself more slowly and looks like a solid brilliant rod of glass. A most extraordinary effect is seen when warm bodies are introduced between the lens and the eye, owing to the waves of air rarefied by heat which they produce. The bodies appear to be covered with lambent flames. The head of a man appears enveloped in sheets of flame, streaming upwards to the height of several feet. The spontaneous evaporation of liquids may also be seen. Ether vapors are denser than air, and hence are seen to flow over the sides of the vessel like molten lava. Alcohol is seen to evaporate rapidly even at 32° F.; but to make the evaporation of water visible a temperature of from 80° to 85° F. is required.

Perhaps the most curious and interesting of all the results as yet obtained by this instrument is that by it sound is made visible. Theoretically, the waves of sound, being waves of rarefaction and of condensation, ought to be rendered visible by the instrument, but the overcoming of the practical difficulties of the experiment, owing to great velocity of the waves, required no little ingenuity. By the employment of the instantaneous light of the electric spark, Dr. Toepler was enabled to see the spheroidal wave of sound, and to observe its reflection. This is literally making sound visible.

The instrument has also been employed in the investigation of the phenomena accompanying the passage of the electric spark through the air, but the interesting results obtained do not admit of intelligible description without the aid of engraved illustrations.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, March 17, 1866.

No further decline in gold has taken place since we last wrote. The price has fluctuated between 129½ and 131½, closing this evening at 129½. Foreign exchange has fallen to 107⅞ and 108 for bankers' sterling, owing in some degree to the advance in U. S. securities abroad, and in some degree to reshipments of foreign produce for which there is no market here. Government has sold no more gold, and the resolution introduced into the Senate on 13th inst. by Senator Sherman, together with the defeat of the loan bill on the 16th, has encouraged the bulls to buy for a reaction. It is not too much to say that Mr. Sherman's resolution is the most extraordinary of the many extraordinary performances in Congress during the present session. John Sherman is one of the leading men in Congress. He was chairman of the House Committee of Ways and Means for two years. On Mr. Lincoln's election, his name was pressed before the President for the Treasury Department, and he narrowly escaped being selected. In the Senate, he is second only to Mr. Fessenden. It was this senator who, on the 13th, introduced into the Senate a joint resolution declaring that "the aggregate outstanding United States notes, not bearing interest and including fractional currency, shall not be diminished below four hundred and twenty millions; that all surplus in the Treasury exceeding forty millions in coin and forty millions of currency shall be promptly applied to the payment of accruing indebtedness and to the purchase or payment of the interest-bearing debt of the United States; but the amount of interest-bearing legal tender notes shall not be diminished by payment or conversion at a rate exceeding five millions per month."

It is but plain truth to say that this resolution contemplates the permanent inauguration of the paper money system in this country, and the indefinite postponement of a resumption of specie payments. It would take thirty-six years, at this rate, to redeem the interest-bearing legal tender alone. The resolution ought to have been entitled "a plan to degrade permanently the United States currency." There are those in Wall Street who, having watched Congressional matters pretty closely for the past few years, charge that this resolution was merely introduced for effect, and that it was designed to assist some of the cliques in stocks which are managed by friends of Mr. Sherman. Such scandalous insinuations deserve no consideration. But it cannot be denied that the resolution has greatly pained those who are friends equally of Senator Sherman and of a sound currency. Unless we begin to contract now, we never can. The revenue is now largely in excess of the expenditure, taxes are being honestly paid, and there is every reason to believe that, by a re-adjustment and diminution of the present revenue charges, a still larger income may be secured during the year 1866–7. The single disability under which we labor is that our money is worth 25 to 33 per cent. less than the money of other nations; that it is fluctuating and uncertain in value, and that it has the practical effect of converting every kind of business into gambling. Now honest differences may exist among loyal men with regard to the means to be used for the resumption of specie payments. One man may recommend a speedier method than another. One man may urge periodical funding loans; another, such loans as the condition of the money market may justify. Mr. Hooper wants the interest-bearing legal tender first eliminated from the volume of the currency; Secretary McCulloch would reduce the plain legal tender as soon. But no man in all the country, except a few speculators in produce, real estate, stocks, and gold, wants to perpetuate the present system of a fluctuating, depreciated currency—save only John Sherman, of Ohio. It is not very likely that his views will command adherents enough to secure their adoption by Congress. But we shall be much mistaken if this unfortunate resolution do not hereafter prove a grave stumbling-block in the career of the gifted senator from Ohio.

The defeat of the Loan bill in Congress by a majority of two does not discourage the friends of a sound currency. Whether the vote on the bill in its present shape be reconsidered or no, it is considered quite feasible so to amend it as to satisfy the objections of many members who voted against it, not from any unwillingness to contract the currency, but because they disliked some of its minor features. A majority of business men disapprove of the inordinate power conferred by the bill upon the Secretary of the Treasury; were this feature modified, it would, doubtless, command many votes which were registered against it on the 13th. There are many men in Congress, and among them probably must be ranked Mr. Stevens, of Pennsylvania, who are opposed to contraction *in toto*, on the ground that the transition period preceding resumption would necessarily involve commercial and industrial distress. But it is not likely that this class of persons constitutes a majority of the body. The views of the West will probably in the main be found to concur with those of Mr. Wentworth, of Chicago, while Mr. Hooper, Mr. Morrill, and Mr. Raymond may fairly be presumed to speak for the East and the commercial interests. A few days, however, now will settle the question.

Stagnation continues to be the leading feature of all the merchandise markets. Even those articles of foreign growth which are exclusively sold for gold—such as hides, tea, sugar, coffee, spices, etc.—are as dull and as hard of sale at the decline as they were before it occurred. Dry goods, produce, and breadstuffs are quite inanimate. No one buys except "from hand to mouth." No one can tell for a certainty what the policy of Congress may be. Should it favor contraction, a further heavy fall in gold, goods, produce, breadstuffs, and stocks will be inevitable. Should it stop short of contraction, gold and all other articles will quickly rebound from the recent depression. Holders generally quote Mr. Sherman's resolution, and argue that expansion is still the order of the day. Buyers are confident that, notwithstanding all the talk about no contraction, Congress will at last adopt substantially Mr. McCulloch's views. Pending the debate between the two hostile parties, business stagnates and money accumulates in Wall street. Though first-class business paper can be bought at 8 to 9 per cent. per annum, call loans are 5 to 6 per cent. No man dares to embark his means in enterprises requiring time for their development. Thus no new factories are being erected, no new mines opened, no new railroads in progress, no increase of manufactures contemplated, no development of the national resources attempted; but money is flowing into Wall Street to be lent on call to the idle speculators of the Stock Exchange, for the purpose of cornering stocks and assisting the shrewd schemers of that meridian to saddle unsuspecting outsiders with unproductive railway shares at a high price. This state of things will naturally continue until Congress shall have fixed definitely upon a policy for the future.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets for the week:

	March 10.	March 17.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅛	104⅝	⅜	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103	103¼	¼	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103	103¼	¼	....
10-40 Bonds	90⅝	90⅞	¼	....
7.30 Notes, second series	99⅛	99⅜	⅜	....
New York Central	91¾	92¾	1	....
Erie Railway	82⅛	82¼	....	¼
Hudson River	104	106	2	....
Reading Railroad	97¼	100¼	2¾	....
Michigan Southern	74	78½	4½	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	75¼	78¼	3	....

	March 10.	March 17.	Advance.	Decline.
Chicago and North-western	25⅛	27⅛	2	....
" " " Preferred	52⅛	54¼	1⅛	....
Chicago and Rock Island	107¼	108⅛	¾	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	89¾	92¾	3	....
Canton	43¼	47⅛	4⅛	....
Cumberland	42¼	44½	2¼	....
Mariposa	11	12	1	....
American Gold	131⅛	129⅛	....	2⅛
Bankers' Bills on London	108⅛	108	....	⅛
Call Loans	7	6	....	1

Prices are uniformly higher than they were a week ago. The advance is mainly due to the resolution introduced into the Senate by Mr. Sherman, which has been regarded in many quarters as foreshadowing a continued policy of expansion, and a defeat of the Secretary's schemes for restoring specie payments. Encouraged by this extraneous aid, as well as by the defeat of the Loan bill last evening, the cliques in the active railway stocks have renewed their efforts, and have succeeded in inflicting severe loss upon the bears. Michigan Southern was done, on Thursday, as high as 79½, as against 66 three weeks ago. An ingenious fiction on the subject of this railroad and its business was published a day or two since in one of the morning papers. It was therein asserted that the road was run for 10 to 15 per cent. less than the New York roads, though every railroad man knows that, with two competing lines to run, the expenses of the Michigan Southern are always in excess of those of ordinary lines. Appalled by their losses, the bears in this stock have generally closed up their interest, and the clique hold 60,000 to 70,000 shares, which they will be happy to sell to any venturesome buyer at a concession from the cash price. New York Central was run up to 93½ this morning, in consequence of the introduction of the bill in the Legislature removing the restriction on fares. Whether the governor will sign the bill or no, remains an open question. Many assert that it would never have been introduced had he not pledged himself to sign it. Others, on the other hand, looking to Mr. Fenton's aspirations to the senatorship, doubt whether he would venture upon a step which would make enemies of nine-tenths of the people along the line of the Central. Erie has become dull and inanimate. The clique have been selling stock freely, and when the "puts" expire it will probably decline. Rock Island is firm but lifeless at the advance. Fort Wayne advanced this morning to 93½ on the declaration of the usual 2½ quarterly dividend, which it seems many people had not expected. Reading has risen on the closing of a long line of shorts by a prominent bear. A speculative advance has been developed in Hudson River and in Canton. The Canton Company are said to have sold, or to be about to sell, a valuable tract of land to Government. Government securities continue firm and tending upwards. There seems fair reason to expect that before very long the five-twenties in London will sell in the neighborhood of 75, if not still higher.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.
CHARTERED 1850.
Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.
P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

STATEMENT
OF THE
UNITED STATES LIFE INSURANCE CO.,
IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK,
40 WALL STREET,
FOR THE YEAR 1865.

Assets, 1st January, 1865 - - - - $1,304,828 55

RECEIPTS.

Premiums and Charge for Policies - - -	$421,872 42	
Interest, Premium on Gold, etc - - - - -	118,706 41	
		540,578 83
		$1,845,407 38

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid Claims by Death - - - -	$84,100 00	
Endowments and other Policies Purchased - - -	13,619 86	
Dividends and Profits Paid with Claims - -	54,011 00	
Re-insurance, Taxes, Commissions, Physicians' Fees, Annuities	57,654 22	
Office Expenses, Advertising, Printing, and Stationery -	35,882 85	
		245,267 98

ASSETS.

Cash in Bank and on call - - - - -	$75,609 82	
Bonds and Mortgages - - - - - -	397,000 00	
United States Securities ($744,350, par), cost - - -	740,491 00	
New York City Bonds, par - - - - -	30,000 00	
Brooklyn City Bonds, par - - - - -	24,000 00	
New York State Bonds ($18,000, par), cost - - -	17,940 00	
Due by Agents - - - - - - -	38,182 35	
Loans on Policies - - - - - -	185,306 01	
Deferred Premiums - - - - - -	58,623 70	
Interest Accrued or Due - - - - -	32,986 57	
Assets, 1st January, 1866 - - -		1,600,139 45
		$1,845,407 38

There are no losses due and unpaid; no claims in dispute.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

JOSEPH B. COLLINS,	W. R. VERMILYE,	JOHN C. BALDWIN,
JAMES SUYDAM,	WILLIAM TUCKER,	EDWARD MINTURN,
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B. F. WHEELWRIGHT,	CLINTON GILBERT,	HENRY W. FORD,
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☞ *New and important plans of Life Insurance have been adopted by this Company. See the new Prospectus.*

THE
MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,
COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.
JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.
CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE
Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.
ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,
BROOKLYN, N. Y.
OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - - - - - - - $1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - - - 1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

IMPORTANT CHANGE IN THE DIVIDEND PERIODS

OF THE

EQUITABLE

LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY

OF THE

UNITED STATES,

92 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

ACCUMULATED FUND.....$2,000,000.

ANNUAL INCOME.....$1,000,000.

PURELY MUTUAL.

ANNUAL CASH DIVIDENDS.

At the request of their numerous policy-holders, this Society have determined to declare their dividends ANNUALLY IN CASH: the first Dividend will be declared February 1, 1867. The last Dividend declared on the quinquennial plan reduced the premiums in some cases more than 50 per cent., or doubled the policy during the next dividend period. It is believed, for the future, that no Company in this country will be able to present greater advantages in its dividends to persons assuring than this Society, as its total expenditure to cash premium received was, by the last New York Insurance Report, less than that of any of the older American Life Insurance Companies.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

The new business of this Society for the past year ($13,623,900) exceeds the new business of any New York Company in any previous year.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

Hereafter Dividends on the first annual premium may be used as Cash in the payment of the Second Annual premium, and so on thereafter the dividend on each premium may be applied to the payment of the next succeeding premium. Policy-holders in most other Companies MUST WAIT FOUR OR FIVE YEARS before any advantage can be derived from Dividends.

The success of this Society has not been equalled by any Company either in this country or Europe, the Society's cash accumulation being over

ONE MILLION OF DOLLARS

greater than the most successful Company at the same period in its history, and its annual cash revenue from premiums, at the end of its sixth year, was greater than that of the largest company in the country at the end of its fifteenth.

Non-Forfeiture of Premiums.

In the case of whole life and endowment policies at ordinary ages in force for at least three years, the Society will, on due surrender, issue a Paid-up Policy for the full amount of premiums paid.

The Company will issue Policies on a single life to the extent of $25,000, but only in cases where the physical condition and family history of the applicant are entirely unexceptionable.

Permission is given at all times to visit Europe free of charge.

Extra Permits granted at moderate rates.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

WILLIAM C. ALEXANDER,	THOMAS U. SMITH,
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E. W. LAMBERT, M.D., MEDICAL EXAMINER.

WILLARD PARKER, M.D., CONSULTING PHYSICIAN.

NEW YORK, February 3, 1866.

1866,

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71		
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52		
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87		
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40		
Paid Annuities	10,242 55		
Paid Taxes	38,076 52		
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94		
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63	
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82		
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30		
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25		
Real Estate	782,307 34		
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85	
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00		
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73		
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03	
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR,			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

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WILLIAM BETTS,	WILLIAM K. STRONG,
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LUCIUS ROBINSON,	JOHN E. DEVELIN,
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JOHN M. STUART,	HENRY E. DAVIES,
SAMUEL E. SPROULLS,	RICHARD A. McCURDY,
RICHARD PATRICK,	FRANCIS SKIDDY.

RICHARD A. McCURDY, VICE-PRESIDENT.

ISAAC ABBATT, THEO. W. MORRIS, } SECRETARIES. SHEPPARD HOMANS. ACTUARY.

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MINTURN POST, M.D., ISAAC L. KIP, M.D., } MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

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HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.
JNO. G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.
JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.
STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.
JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.
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L. SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.
H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

Income for 1865, ...	$715,899 15
Paid Losses by 35 Deaths, ...	99,900 00
Paid Dividends—return premiums, ...	69,160 67

Assets, Jan. 1, 1866, $1,530,877 17.

The comparative growth of this Company is shown by its increased receipts during the past four years, ending 1st November. From

	For premiums.	*For interest.*
November, '61, to November '62	$150,927 18	$35,319 52
November, '62, to November, '63	198,202 68	38,628 50
November, '63, to November, '64	300,196 85	51,768 75
November, '64, to November, '65	551,571 47	67,854 87

A printed list of LOSSES PAID BY THIS COMPANY, of ten pages, will be forwarded on application, and is given chiefly for the purpose of fairly showing the diversity of interests, occupations, and professions represented by its patrons and beneficiaries, as also the widely extended field of its business and its bestowments—to the amount of $944,000; and in addition thereto there has been PAID IN DIVIDENDS $419,000, making a total of more than one and one-third millions of dollars; thus, at the same time, returning to the surviving policy-holders a large percentage of their past investments in premiums, and beneficently providing for the support of the widows and orphans of the deceased.

☞ Active and efficient AGENTS wanted in the Cities and large Towns in the healthy portions of the United States and British Provinces.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS,

151 Broadway, New York.

JAY COOKE, WM. G. MOORHEAD, H. D. COOKE, H. C. FAHNESTOCK, EDWARD DODGE, PITT COOKE.

JAY COOKE & CO.,

BANKERS.

In connection with our houses in Philadelphia and Washington, we have this day opened an office at No. 1 Nassau Street, corner of Wall Street, in this city.

Mr. EDWARD DODGE, late of Clark, Dodge & Co., New York, Mr. H. C. FAHNESTOCK, of our Washington House, and Mr. PITT COOKE, of Sandusky, Ohio, will be resident partners.

We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, and EXCHANGE of GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues: to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, and GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

The Nation:

A Weekly Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, of body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

A special correspondent, who has been selected for his work with care, is pursuing a journey through the South. His letters appear every week, and he is charged with the duty of simply reporting what he sees and hears, leaving the public as far as possible to draw its own inferences.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

JOSEPH H. RICHARDS,

PUBLISHER,

130 Nassau Street, N. Y.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

GRAND, Celebrated Gold Medal SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

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BOSTON, February 29, 1848.

Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D
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110 Broadway,
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The sale will take place on Thursday and Friday evenings, 22d and 23d of March, at half-past seven o'clock, at the Somerville Art Gallery, 845 Broadway, and the Paintings will be on view, with catalogues, admission free, day and evening, on and after Wednesday, the 14th inst., until time of sale.

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.,

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS,

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1865.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.

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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 39. THURSDAY, MARCH 29, 1866. { Six Dollars per Annum / Single Copies, 15 Cents

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JOSEPH H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER, 130 NASSAU STREET, N. Y.

The Week.

THE Manhattan Club of this city have elected Mr. Johnson an honorary member, and asked him to let himself be painted for them by "one of our first artists," the reason being that they want to adorn their walls with the "form and lineaments of the statesman and patriot, etc." Mr. Johnson has accepted the compliment, and expressed his willingness to sit "for one of our first artists," as soon as that gentleman can be got ready. We believe the public has no right to object to this little interchange of civilities between a club and any public man. But we have a right to mention that the name of every signer of the address, except those of Mr. John Van Buren and Mr. James T. Brady, is that of a man notorious during the whole period of the war as what was then called a "malignant Copperhead." One or two of them are strongly suspected of having been of the party who called on Lord Lyons to solicit the aid of Great Britain in breaking up the Union, and three of them are the reputed owners, and one the well-known editor, of the "organ" which a year ago pronounced Mr. Johnson "an insolent and drunken brute, an insolent and clownish drunkard," with much other stuff of the same sort. The sudden admiration of these "individuals," as the reporters call them, for Mr. Johnson's "form and lineaments" may be fairly set down amongst the "odd instances of strange coincidence."

WE allude in another place to the change of views experienced by the President and his mouthpiece, the Secretary of State, since the latter telegraphed Govs. Sharkey and Marvin that the restoration of the civil authority in the South depended upon the pleasure of Congress. A similar change has been brought to light among the other official documents on reconstruction submitted to Congress. In North Carolina Mr. Seward decided that the members elect of the convention could not take their seats before obtaining pardon. In South Carolina a score of leading members sat through the entire session without being pardoned, and yet their application, though postponed to the day before adjournment, received the distinguished, favorable, and prompt consideration of Mr. Johnson.

THE Executive clemency was again remarkably exercised last week in the pardon of one Thomas Martin, "a notorious blockade-runner." This involves, we are told, the restoration of cotton exceeding two hundred thousand dollars in value, which had been attached by the Treasury Department under the confiscation act. We do not hear of any further pardoning of counterfeiters of the national currency, but the House bill of the 21st inst., for the more effectual punishment of these knaves, must be judged a superfluous bit of legislation so long as the President's weakness for criminals under sentence continues.

THE Republicans of Rhode Island met last week and nominated General Burnside for governor, with no resolutions. It was left for the opposition to show irresolution, which they did by endorsing the policy of the President and then avoiding a nomination. The presumption of success, so far as we remember, has always been in favor of a candidate without a platform as against a platform without a candidate; and as defeat was inevitable on these terms, it seems a pity that it should have been associated in advance with the so-called head of the nation.

A LOAN bill which had grown with various amendments out of that desired by the Secretary of the Treasury has passed the House. The new school of political economists, who believe that the issue of promises-to-pay is a real addition to the wealth of the country, made some singular speeches, which will figure in the notes to some future history of rationalism as "specimens of by-gone delusions." The question remains to be dealt with by the Senate. One thing is certain with regard to our financial policy, and that is, that there is not an enemy of the United States the world over who will hear of our rapid return to specie payments without chagrin hardly less acute than that with which he received the news of Lee's surrender.

THE House, on Wednesday week, by a vote of 79 to 46, passed a bill to facilitate intercourse between all parts of the Union by putting an end to railroad monopolies. It is substantially the same measure as that passed December 19th by the same body, but which was afterwards recalled for revision. It then received 93 against 51 votes. What we took occasion to say at that time in its favor we need not now repeat. More fortunate than certain political ventures, it can count upon becoming law as soon as the Senate shall have added its approval, which we should like to be as swift as it is certain.

THE New York *Times* publishes a more complete account of the fiendish massacres and tortures to which those suspected of fidelity to their country were subjected in Texas during the war than has hitherto appeared. The statements are too shocking to be readily believed, but we have seen refugees who report atrocities committed under their own observation which are not referred to by the correspondent of the *Times*, and which are, if possible, more disgusting. Not only were hundreds of worthy men and innocent women and children murdered in cold blood without form of trial or shadow of provocation, but the manner of their butchery was in many cases as disgraceful to human nature as the worst deeds of the Spaniards in the Netherlands or the Sepoys in the Indian rebellion. The guilty men are now not only living in peace as good citizens of the United States, with the benefit of the Executive clemency, but some of them are taking active part in the work of reconstruction, and in cheering the President by assurances of their sympathy with his indignation at the Yankee radicals and traitors.

THE name of no man attaining equal rank came less before the public during the war than that of Major-General Seth Williams, but

the memory of none who have yet to die will be held more sacred by soldiers than his. Painfully diffident of his own merits, shrinking from note, modest as a girl, in all duty he was great, comprehensive, resolute, and untiring. There is a poetic consistency in the circumstances of his death, and it is none the less to be recorded because so few are aware of it, and because he himself was unconscious of it, that he gave his life for liberty and his country.

We commented last week upon the singularly low estimate placed by the Orthodox Congregationalists of Connecticut upon the value of the services of their ministers. The new Board of Health of this city, in fixing the compensation to be allowed its medical inspectors, proclaims its judgment to be either that the office will have a value to its occupants on account of the opportunities it offers for making money in covert ways, or that a man who has spent the best years of his life in striving to qualify himself by a suitable course of study to be a medical practitioner, and who has established a character for himself which justifies him in assuming public responsibilities of the most difficult and trying character, is worth no more than a lively printer or a clever drayman. The Board includes some of the most distinguished physicians in America, who might have been expected to remember that there is no form of quackery more mischievous than the demagogism which refuses to pay the market wages for services in public offices requiring superior talent and more than usually resolute manliness and integrity. A mistake of the Legislature in this respect is not an example which the Board of Health is called upon to follow.

An "ex-member of the defunct Confederate congress," as the *World* styles Mr. H. S. Foote, is writing letters to that paper in support of Mr. Stewart's policy of universal suffrage and universal amnesty. Mr. Foote was reputed the father, or at least the father-in-law, of that policy, but he disclaims any interest in it except as a Southern man desiring earnestly a reconciliation of the two sections, and believing that Mr. Stewart has hit upon the only way. The *World* is amusingly careful to avoid adopting his views, and smells coercion under the purely voluntary terms of re-admission to the Union. The sight is not uninstructive. The prudent counsel which arises out of the very bosom of the South is opposed by Northern sycophants, who are for ever flattering her false pride and encouraging her blind hostility to her would-be benefactors and saviours.

One cannot sufficiently admire the delicacy of Postmaster Cleveland, of Hartford, in offering to resign his office because, in so far as he owed it to the Union party of the State, he had evidently violated the condition on which it was given him. But when he submits his case to the President, as if the course he has taken might possibly displease that functionary, we fear he is guilty of political trickery. Whether the *quasi* endorsement which he obtained will turn the scales in the approaching Connecticut election, we are not concerned to predict; but we feel sure that the whole procedure will lead to serious reflection on the present system of Government patronage, which it will be the highest effort of patriotism to overthrow. Nothing is more needed than this to resist the corruption of parties, as nothing will tend so strongly to change the test of office from political orthodoxy to simple honesty and ability. In that day of better things a postmaster's share in caucuses and ward meetings, and his vote at the polls, will excite no greater attention than those of any other citizen.

The cholera is likely to be to us what M. Hausmann is to Paris. In view of its approach, those quarters of our great cities which have been heedlessly tolerated till now, will be erased from the map, pierced with new streets, graced with new and ornamental structures, and laid out, it may be, with squares and fountains. Our Health Commissioners have turned their grim gaze upon the Washington Market; and the filthy shambles, which are worthy a new Hercules able to turn the North River through them, we hope will never recover from the attention which will be paid to them. Boston has just bestirred itself to abate a dangerous nuisance caused by the different levels at which some portions of it are built. The remedy involves the filling up a considerable valley, and giving an entirely new character to the lifted area. A public-spirited citizen, we observe, is about to erect a monument in one of the city parks to commemorate the discovery of the anæsthetic properties of ether. Shall we overlook the sanitary properties of the cholera, or do not they also merit a memorial?

Bridging our great rivers is a very gratifying token of national recuperation. The Ohio will presently follow suit to the Hudson, and the Mississippi to the Ohio. A bridge to connect St. Louis with the opposite shore was authorized by the Senate last week, and is really a part of the conception of the Pacific Railroad. It cannot be built too soon.

The Texas Convention has got so far along as to declare the secession ordinance of Feb. 1, 1861, null and void, and to renounce distinctly the right heretofore claimed by the State to secede from the Union. Forty-three members voted yea, and thirty-seven nay, on the question; and one of the majority moved to reconsider, but in vain.

There ought, we think, to be little surprise that leading journals abroad which were unmistakably friendly in our late struggle with revolt should be deceived by the plausible reasoning of the veto message, and conclude that the loyal people of the North are suddenly all wrong, as they were before all right. The fictitious spectacle of a renunciation of power, the assumed reverence for law, and superior devotion to the Union, the specious magnanimity towards a prostrate adversary, were calculated at first blush to captivate the supporters of constitutional freedom everywhere, and to elicit from them expressions in temporary accord with those who, while secretly or even openly hating our republican institutions, were always loudly complaining of our despotic departure from them. But the delusion will scarcely last longer than the first blush; the speech of the 22d of February has partly removed it, and it cannot survive a correct understanding of the real state of public opinion here.

We find in a foreign paper some statistics which may be profitably studied with those presented by us in a late number of The Nation, when comparing the literary fecundity of England and America. In Germany there were published, in 1865, 1,411 works of theology, 83 of philosophy, 935 of belle-lettres, 770 of jurisprudence, 696 of education, 651 of history, 517 of natural sciences, 491 of medicine, 402 of ancient classics, 385 of fine arts, 359 of commercial science. Of writings for youth, for the people, of geography, of agriculture, two hundred in each department; of compilations in mathematics, military art, and technical science, one hundred each. These figures do not include the insignificant publications.

The Italian Chamber of Deputies has ratified the treaty of commerce with the Zollverein, and, by way of emphasizing that provision of it which makes its acceptance equivalent to a recognition of the new kingdom, has voted to send Italy's compliments to Germany with her best wishes for the future relations of the two countries.

The international conference at Constantinople has adjourned after recommending the Porte to prohibit all communication between Egypt and the Arabian ports, if the cholera manifests itself anew at Jidda. We had been led to look for greater results than this, especially since the diplomatic character of the conference was at last recognized by the Turkish Government.

The response of the Emperor Francis Joseph to the address of the Hungarian Diet has chilled the enthusiasm of that body, if it has not dissipated their hopes. Whereas they demanded a responsible ministry and municipal autonomy, as preliminary to a common understanding with Austria, the monarch insists that this understanding must precede every concession on his part, and that the kingdom must be subordinate to the empire. He will not restore the legislation of 1848 unmodified, at least in respect to its establishing a separate Hungarian ministry. But, as the Diet signified their readiness to revise that legis-

lation only through the initiative of such a ministry, it is evident affairs have come to a dead-lock between Pesth and Vienna. Meanwhile Berlin and Vienna want little of coming to sword's points over the Duchies.

BEFORE Mazzini can take his place in the parliament of his native land, it is a question whether his election is legal, seeing that he is an exile; and then, whether he will take the oath of allegiance. The Government is said to be resolved to contest his admission on the ground first mentioned, though if France had not to be consulted a different policy would seem more prudent. It is safe to predict, however, that Mazzini will not compromise his republican principles for the sake of forcing the issue.

IT appears, from measurements made in 1863-4 for enlistments in the Italian army, that of a hundred young men there will be twenty under 1.56 metres, sixty-eight between 1.56 and 1.70 metres, and the remaining twelve will exceed the height last indicated. The average Italian stature is reckoned at 1.626 metres, against 1.653 for the French and 1.644 for the Belgians—or 5 ft. 4, 5, and 4½ in. respectively. The giants of the peninsula are found in Lucca. Leghorn, Ferrara, and Arezzo stand next upon the list.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, March 24, 1866.

CONGRESS is at length making much progress with the solid business of the session. More than half the appropriation bills are already through the House, and yesterday witnessed the final passage of the loan bill, which now goes to the Senate for concurrence, which it will probably receive. The measure was emasculated, by way of compromise, in order to ensure its passage, by limiting the Secretary of the Treasury as to the amount of legal tender currency to be retired or funded in each month. There is now opportunity for the Committee of Ways and Means to bring forward the revised tariff and internal revenue laws, which, it is understood, are only very partially matured as yet.

Although the loan bill passed by the unexpectedly large majority of thirty votes, it was apparent that this was only in consequence of its being amended so as to put far off the evil day of a thorough contraction of the currency. About half the members of the House still adhere to the heresy, much strengthened by the recent steady fall in gold, that we are now going fast enough on the road toward a resumption of specie payments, and that the present volume of currency is little or no greater than the legitimate wants of the country require. This theory, fully and logically acted upon, would go far to ruin the whole country. Nothing could be more disastrous than to build our legislation upon it. Yet Mr. Thaddeus Stevens is so infatuated by it as to declare against any policy of contraction on the ground that it will produce widespread distress and complaint and jeopard the political ascendency of the Republican party.

An interesting discussion arose in the House on Thursday upon a matter apparently trivial on its face, namely, the engraving of portraits of living persons upon United States fractional currency. Mr. Thayer, of Pennsylvania, instanced the fact that Gen. Washington, when the first silver dollar of the United States was struck with his own profile imaged upon it, ordered the die to be destroyed. But now we see upon our current paper money not only the heads of the illustrious men of our country long since gathered to their fathers, but of living secretaries of the Treasury, and even of such subordinate officers as the superintendent of the Currency Printing Bureau, Mr. S. M. Clark. Mr. Thayer illustrated the absurdity and bad taste of this practice by the following

NEW TABLE OF FEDERAL CURRENCY.

2 Clarks make	1 Washington.
2 Washingtons and 1 Clark make	1 Fessenden.
2 Fessendens make	1 Spinner.
2 Spinners make	1 Chase.
2 Chases make	1 Hamilton.
5 Chases make	1 Madison.

When it is recollected that the new five cent issue of fractional currency has the portrait of Superintendent Clark engraved on it, while the ten cent retains that of Washington, the twenty-five cents that of W. P. Fessenden, the fifty cents that of Treasurer Spinner, the one dollar "greenbacks" that of S. P. Chase, while the two and five dollar notes bear the likenesses of Hamilton and Madison, respectively, the propriety of amending our common school arithmetics as above will be appreciated.

The House has passed the customary "buncombe" resolution for adjourning the session of Congress on some indefinite Thursday in May. The new members mostly voted for it, while the old political stagers refused to sanction a resolution which long experience shows cannot be carried into effect earlier than July or even August.

I have to communicate the remarkable fact that "reconstruction" has absolutely slept the entire week, in all its phases, save for the speeches made in the House to-day for home consumption. It is predicted, however, that this is but the calm that precedes the storm, for Monday is the last day, under the provisions of the Constitution, which the President has in which to decide the fate of the Civil Rights bill. A veto is universally anticipated, and such a result would make the wide breach between the views of the President and those of Congress still wider.

DIARY.

Monday, March 19, 1866.—Mr. Sumner presented petitions from citizens of Virginia, Massachusetts, New York, Alabama, etc., for an international copyright. Several petitions against hasty reconstruction were referred. Also, several petitions for increased duties on imports. Mr. Wilson offered a bill to equalize soldiers' bounties. Referred. The bill to provide for an annual inspection into Indian Affairs was passed—yeas, 19; nays, 16. The joint resolution protesting against pardons by foreign governments of criminals on condition of emigrating to the U. S. was passed.

In the House, Mr. Baker offered a constitutional amendment disqualifying all persons engaged in rebellion from ever holding office under the U. S. Government. Mr. Cullom offered a constitutional amendment to the same effect. Mr. Hooper offered a substitute for the loan bill of the Ways and Means Committee. Mr. Kelley offered a bill providing for the issue of legal tender notes, bearing no interest, to liquidate fully the compound-interest notes now in circulation, and prohibiting the reduction of legal tender below $900,000,000. Referred. Mr. Ancona offered a concurrent resolution that Congress adjourn on the —— day of May next. Passed—yeas, 80; nays, 63. Mr. Rogers offered resolutions against the assumption by Congress of the rebel debt or repudiation of the Federal debt. The House refused to admit them—yeas, 48; nays, 50. The loan bill of the Ways and Means Committee came up, on a motion to reconsider the vote by which it was defeated March 16. The motion to reconsider prevailed—yeas, 81; nays, 67. After speeches by Messrs. Broomall, Boutwell, Conkling, and Garfield the bill was recommitted. The civil appropriation bill for the ensuing fiscal year was considered and amended.

March 20.—In the Senate, the Military Academy appropriation bill was reported from the Finance Committee. A resolution was offered appropriating $25,000 for the relief of the destitute colored population of the District of Columbia. Passed—yeas, 33; nays, 5—after striking out the word "colored." The naval appropriation bill was amended and passed. The bill granting to the International Ocean Telegraph Co. the sole right, for fourteen years, to establish telegraphic communication with the West Indies was taken up. Mr. Fessenden and Mr. Sherman moved to strike out the word "sole." Lost—yeas, 14; nays, 16. The bill was laid over.

In the House, the civil appropriation bill for the ensuing year was passed, after striking out a provision to increase the salaries of the officers of the United States Mint at Philadelphia. The bill to relieve United States army officers from prosecution for acts done by them under military authority was opposed by Messrs. Rogers and Ross, and defended by Messrs. Cook, McKee and Smith, the two last of Kentucky. It was then passed—yeas, 112; nays, 31. Mr. Conkling, from the Ways and Means Committee, reported a bill providing that no exemption of United States notes from taxation shall extend to money on hand. It was advocated by Messrs. Conkling, Garfield, and Spalding, and opposed by Mr. Stevens, after which it was recommitted. The Post-office appropriation bill for the fiscal year ensuing was amended and passed. The consular and diplomatic appropriation bill for the same period was considered and amended.

March 21.—In the Senate, several petitions were presented, asking Congress to guarantee republican governments in the States. A bill granting lands to aid in constructing the Northern Kansas Railroad was passed. A bill to punish counterfeiting or altering the securities of the United States was passed. The bill conferring on the International Ocean Telegraph Co. the sole privilege for 14 years of establishing and operating telegraph lines between Florida and the West Indies was passed. The bill placing U. S. vessels at the disposal of officers of quarantine was passed. The bill to carry into effect the treaty of Washington of 9th of August, 1842, by paying Maine and Massachusetts $1 25 per acre for the public lands of those States in possession of settlers under said treaty, was passed. The bill to incorporate the National Mutual Protection Homestead Co. with $3,000,000 capital, for the settlement of certain States, was discussed and laid over.

In the House, the bill authorizing all railroads to carry freight and passengers between the States on equal terms, and receive compensation, provided no railroad be released from the condition of performing such services for the Government free, was passed—yeas, 69; nays, 46. The consular and diplomatic appropriation bill was passed. The bill to reimburse Pennsylvania for war expenses during the invasion of 1863 was debated and laid over.

March 22.—In the Senate, the bill authorizing the construction of a bridge across the Mississippi River at St. Louis was passed. Also a bill to consolidate two district

courts of the United States in Louisiana and California into one judicial district. The case of the validity of the election of John P. Stockton as a senator from New Jersey was taken up, discussed, and laid over.

In the House, a message was received from the President transmitting information respecting the condition of Mexico. The deficiency appropriation bill, with the Senate amendments thereto, was considered, most of the amendments now concurred in, and a committee of conference appointed.

March 23.—In the Senate, bills were offered, to grant land to Arkansas and Missouri for a railway through those States to the Texas boundary; to aid in the construction of a southern branch of the Union Pacific Railway; to donate public lands to the American Forest Tree Propagation and Land Co.; and further to prevent smuggling; all of which were referred. The Senate resumed the consideration of the right of John P. Stockton to a seat as senator from New Jersey, he having been elected by a minority of the Legislature of that State, in joint session, and a protest against the validity of his election being presented to the Senate by the majority of the present Legislature. The Committee on the Judiciary reported in favor of Mr. Stockton's right to the seat. After long debate, in which the report was opposed by Messrs. Clark, Fessenden, Howe, Yates, and Sumner, and advocated by Messrs. Hendricks, Cowan, McDougall, Trumbull, and Stockton, the vote was taken on the resolution of the Judiciary Committee, that Mr. Stockton is entitled to his seat, and carried—yeas, 22; nays, 21. Adjourned to March 26.

In the House, the bill to reimburse to the State of Pennsylvania about $700,000, expended for the United States for war purposes in 1863, was passed—yeas, 85; nays, 35. The loan bill was reported back from the Ways and Means Committee with amendments providing that the Secretary of the Treasury shall not retire more than $10,000,000 of legal tender currency in the first six months after the passage of the act, and not more than $4,000,000 each month thereafter. Mr. Hooper offered a substitute, authorizing the Secretary to retire and cancel Treasury notes and interest-bearing notes, and to issue bonds for the same at par, without, however, increasing the public debt; lost—yeas, 60; nays, 74. The bill of the Ways and Means Committee was then passed—yeas, 83; nays, 53.

March 24.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Lynch, Myers, Buckland, and Hart. Adjourned to March 26.

THE FREEDMEN.

The draft upon the labor of the District continues. Fifty freedmen were lately sent to Helena, Arkansas, at the request of the assistant commissioner for that State. Numerous applications are made by Northerners who have gone to settle in the South.

The laborers on the Government farms in Maryland, now that these establishments are to be given up, are seeking transportation to Virginia, being driven to this removal by the outrages which still disgrace the State where they are at present.

The American Missionary Association have now eleven colored schools in the Shenandoah Valley, with 1,800 pupils. In Lexington the collegians and populace together made strenuous opposition to establishing one there. In Richmond there are 1,100 blacks attending school.

The assistant commissioner for North Carolina reports a gradual melioration of the condition of the freedmen in that State. Violent outrages are rare, but petty annoyances are numerous, such as stealing or killing their live stock, tearing down their fences, etc. It is difficult to catch the perpetrators, or, if caught, to bring them to justice.

Edgefield district, South Carolina, is one of the largest and most rebellious in the State, and is controlled by two organized gangs of outlaws led by an ex-Confederate major. They have been waging a sort of guerilla warfare upon the peaceful inhabitants, Union and colored, murdering some, despoiling and expelling others. All efforts made by the infantry to surprise these well-mounted desperadoes have proved futile. An efficient cavalry force is needed to hunt them down. The planters of the State are just discovering that there are not enough negroes by half to cultivate the land, and that their labor only is available in the rice-fields. This is a strong security for better treatment. The circular of the Bureau concerning "marriage rules" has been received with satisfaction by the freed people.

There were counted in Georgia, on the 1st of March, 65 freedmen's schools, 98 teachers, 6,767 pupils—an increase over January of 3 schools, 9 teachers, and 198 pupils, notwithstanding the small-pox so interfered with the schools in Macon as to decrease the attendance from 1,222 in January to 818 in February. The last quarter (ending March 1st) has witnessed an increase of 13 schools, 36 teachers, and 2,875 pupils. Last month the freedmen in five localities contributed $341 toward the support of their schools, and during the quarter seven localities contributed $4,662. All this in addition to charitable donations to their suffering poor.

—A law has been passed by the Virginia Legislature "admitting the evidence of negroes in all criminal cases and proceedings at law or in equity in which colored persons are parties, or which arise out of injuries done or attempted or threatened to the person, property, or rights of colored persons, and providing further that all laws in respect to crimes and punishments, and in respect to criminal proceedings, applicable to white persons, shall apply in like manner to colored persons, unless otherwise specially provided." This has been so much approved by the assistant commissioner and Gen. Terry, that all jurisdiction over colored persons in criminal cases has been recommitted to the civil authorities. The agents of the Bureau, however, are instructed to attend in person the trials and preliminary hearing of such cases, not for the purpose of interfering, but to make the necessary suggestions to the party concerned. Any evasion of the law is to be reported at once.

—The assistant commissioner for North Carolina has imitated his associate in Virginia for a like reason. The vagrant act is said to make no distinction on account of color. An act was passed establishing a college for the education of teachers and ministers of the Gospel of the colored race. By another, blacks and whites are required to work on the public roads or be subjected to a fine. Another protects "agricultural laborers" in the share of the crops which belongs to them by contract from sale under execution against their employers or the owners of the land cultivated. The lunatic asylum is reserved exclusively for the whites. The "act concerning negroes, and persons of color, or of mixed blood," makes such persons equal to the whites before the courts in the various processes and suits in law and equity, and qualifies them as witnesses, when not otherwise incompetent, in "all controversies at law and in equity where the rights of person or property of persons of color shall be put in issue, and would be concluded by the judgment or decree of court; and also in pleas of the State, where the violence, fraud, or injury alleged shall be charged to have been done by or to persons of color. In all other civil and criminal cases their evidence shall be deemed inadmissible, unless by the consent of the parties of record; provided, that this section shall not go into effect until jurisdiction in matters relating to freedmen shall be fully committed to the courts of this State; provided further, that no person shall be deemed incompetent to bear testimony in such cases because of being a party to the record or in interest." The criminal laws are extended to all classes, with the same penalty for blacks and whites, except in the case of rape.

—There are in North Carolina 100 schools for the blacks, 132 teachers, and, in the month of January, 10,459 scholars, or 2,000 more than in December. They are located in all the principal towns and are generally regarded with favor. The teachers experience, however, the popular aversion. They and the employees of the Bureau, civil and military, amount to less than two hundred persons—a slender army of regeneration.

—The bill to relieve the destitute people in the District of Columbia passed the Senate on Monday week. It appropriates $25,000 for that purpose. The vote was 33 to 5.

Minor Topics.

There is probably no art which possesses so much interest for the mass of mankind as the art of making a little money go a great way. Even amongst us, where money is, on the whole, got with comparative ease, and, consequently, spent with comparative carelessness, there is no more popular person than the author of any process which promises to enable people to procure all the comforts and most of the luxuries of life with a very small income. But in Europe, where the struggle for life is so much more fierce and bitter than amongst us, the excitement created by anything which looks like a new discovery in the science of living cheaply, is proportionably great. All kinds of books professing to show how to get two shillings' worth for a shilling, how to make a pony do the work of a horse, how to get the milk of a cow out of a goat, how to keep a brougham and give dinners with "a page" as both butler and groom; how to raise vegetables, keep rabbits

and hens, and feed a cow off the quantity of land usually considered only sufficient for the grass of the cow, have, consequently, a tremendous run. Five editions for a work of this kind displaying a fair amount of ingenuity may be fairly calculated on. But then this is not half so interesting, after all, as plans for enabling a large family to present a "genteel" appearance on a small income, or even for enabling a large family to live decently on a small income. A Mrs. Warren, the wife of a hard-worked doctor, has just made a most lucky hit in this way. She first showed "How She Managed Her House on Two Hundred Pounds a Year." This went off like wildfire, and created considerable stir in the newspapers. She has now come out with "Comfort for Small Incomes," and this is making an equally great stir. But the comfort she supplies appears to be very cold comfort after all. Her grand recipe for the evils of poverty seems to be simply not to be disturbed by its inconveniences, and, by way of encouraging people, she shows that she was not. That large class in all countries who desire to bring up large families at a small cost, we are afraid will not find their way made much clearer by hints of this kind. There are, probably, after all, very few poor people, that is, people whose minds have to be constantly occupied with the problem of how to make both ends meet, to the exclusion of most of the nobler subjects of contemplation, who have not by this time become familiar enough with the absolute impossibility of making two children live on the food of one, or of making a coat do duty as a pair of pantaloons, to have little difficulty in feeling tolerably cheerful under the restraints of narrow means. To poor men, the advice to be economical with their coal, to look sharply after their cinders, to live on plain food, to pay for everything in cash, and not to be annoyed when a cheap cook spoils a fondly anticipated dinner, can hardly be said to have an appreciable value. Anybody who writhes under poverty is not likely to be reconciled to his situation by perusing a small volume, or a magazine article, which tells him not to writhe under it. People who are cheerful in spite of their poverty, and for whom bad food, shabby clothes, and an overworked wife, and pinched and repressed children, have no terrors, will not find their cheerfulness increased by hearing the dismal tale of some other cheerful poor man's sufferings. For people who dread poverty and privation, who sigh for splendor, or even "genteel society," and plenty of small change, there is only one way of avoiding discomfort, and that is, to have as few persons dependent on one person's income as possible. No turning or twisting or contriving can materially reduce the amount of food required by a growing boy, or the superficial area per caput which has in all well regulated families to be covered by clothes; and in this fact lies the great and, as we believe, the insurmountable difficulty of making poverty pleasant.

Some ten years ago public attention was for a time a good deal roused to the character of the lodgings of the poor in this city, and there was some discussion of plans looking to an improvement of their condition. Since then Broadway has been lined with marble, a great pleasure ground has been formed, a good many churches have been built, the rowdy fire department has been abolished, and we have gained a carefully instructed, well disciplined, neat, honest, and humane police. Best of all, crimes have not multiplied as population has increased.

Strange to say, however, the number of those who live here in the vilest condition under which, so far as we know, human life can be sustained, has increased and is increasing. The distinguished traveller to whom our readers are indebted for the reports on the subject which we recently published, says that in no barbarian tribe is anything to be seen so filthy, shameless, and utterly and hopelessly degraded. The men and women alike seem to be deaf not only to preaching, but to all ordinary motives to exertion. They habitually look for nothing in life or in eternity better than to allay the immediate gripings of hunger and thirst, room to lie at full length for sleep, and protection against the sting of cold. They care not by what means they secure this, and if chance put means of getting anything more in their way it will be used only in the lowest forms of sensuality. Dead to foul smells, they are equally dead to moral distinctions.

It is needless to say that there are degrees of degradation; that the lowest stage which we have described is reached gradually. The important question is—What are the steps, what especially leads to this moral stupor? Why is the degradation greater here in New York, and why do more sink to the lowest depth here than anywhere else?

We can see but one circumstance peculiar to New York which seems likely to have a marked influence, and that is the extraordinary demand which exists here for shelter. Nowhere else in the world is there nearly so large a proportion of the earnings of all classes required to be paid for mere house-room. There are no houses fit for human beings to lodge in that are not snatched up by those of a happier class than the poorest.

We heard to-day of the family of an invalid soldier whose wife maintained six children mainly on her occasional earnings as a laundress. They are far from being in the demoralized condition of the desperately poor class we have described, yet were glad to be allowed sleeping-room in a stifling cellar at a charge of three dollars a month. Let this woman lose the opportunity of earning what she now has, what will she care for when she has secured necessary food and raiment, except the rent? and where will her struggle for a bare cover and sleeping-room carry her at the last? and into what company, and what must the family come to there? The answer is plain enough. Is it more difficult for Christian men to find a remedy for this great evil? Perhaps it is, but there are two matters of experience which, it seems to us, should throw some light upon it.

One is the effect which has been produced by the establishment of sailors' homes. There was much about the sailors' homes as they were originally managed which was anything but attractive to most seamen. Yet when good food, beds, air, and honest treatment were to be had in them at the same price that was asked for hard and filthy beds, poor food, crowded and noisome quarters, and a general system of swindling at the ordinary lodging-houses, the keepers of the latter soon saw they could not retain their customers. The consequence is, in every large port of the world, there are now sailors' boarding-houses, established and managed from purely mercenary motives, which, in most respects, are as clean and comfortable and honestly conducted as the sailors' homes established for philanthropic reasons alone. The other is the experience of London in dealing with the same evil which we have in the Sixth and Fourth Wards, and in lesser degree in some parts of every large town in the country. A few years ago there were places in London almost if not quite as horrible as those described by our correspondent. To-day, in London, with a population more than three times as large as that of New York, and of which population a far larger proportion is desperately poor, there is not a single lodging-house as miserable as hundreds which are crowded in New York. The process of cure began with the establishment of what were called model lodging-houses. They were on a large scale, and involved a considerable outlay of capital. They furnished as good accommodations in all respects as the lowest lodging-houses, but perhaps no better except in respect to the requirements of decency and cleanliness, at the same charge to lodgers as that made at houses in which the poor boy or girl out of work, sick, feeble, or foolish, yet honestly and virtuously disposed, was obliged to rest on the floor side by side with the most degraded strumpets and thieves. The effect soon was that the keepers of these houses found it necessary, in order to retain their customers, to improve their accommodations; soon after many of them were willing to have the aid of the police in acquiring a reputation of keeping houses to which honest working-men and women, however little they were able to pay, could resort without fear of being robbed or outraged; and the final result is as we have already stated.

It is well, perhaps, to add, though it makes little difference as to the duty involved, that the model lodging-houses themselves are more than self-supporting. They now pay a fair interest on the capital originally invested.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE POWER OF CONGRESS OVER RECONSTRUCTION.

The controversy between the President and Congress, as we have repeatedly said, is not upon the question of the suffrage, nor upon the existence or non-existence of the revolted States, nor upon the propriety of confiscation, nor upon any similar points, though these are important. The issues now in dispute, and which must be determined before any others, are simply two—one a question of power and the other a question of discretion. Who has the power to settle the terms upon which civil government shall be restored at the South? And shall those terms be such as will give absolute sway to unrepentant rebels? These are the vital issues of the day, although, when they are determined, others equally important may possibly arise. The first essential of human life is breath, although food and drink are equally indispensable in the long run. So in public affairs there is always some one problem that must be solved to-day, though twenty others may remain as imperatively demanding attention to-morrow.

Our views upon the question of discretion have been sufficiently stated. But while this branch of the subject appeals most strongly to the popular mind, yet to all far-seeing and thoughtful men the question of *power* must seem of overshadowing importance. This has been the view taken by Congress, which, accordingly, before attempting to shape a policy, passed by an overwhelming majority the concurrent resolution asserting its control *as Congress*, and not merely as two independent assemblies acting separately, over the rehabilitation of the South.

The President has assumed that the disorganized condition of the South demanded the interposition of the Federal Government, and justified the latter in imposing the terms upon which local self-government might be resumed, and in prescribing the mode in which it should be restored. The country has, with substantial unanimity, endorsed the President's theory to this extent, and it cannot now be called in question. Certainly we are not inclined to dispute it, but, on the contrary, think it irrefragably sound.

But is this power lodged in the executive or in the legislative branch of the Federal Government? We pause, as we write the question, to think with what amazement some future Hallam or Macaulay will record the fact that this question was gravely argued in our day—with what difficulty the candid historian will endeavor to show that it was really considered doubtful—what labor it will cost him to present an argument in favor of the Executive's claim which shall not excite the mirth or the contempt of his readers. But we must deal with the present, and must argue the question soberly, albeit with something of the feeling with which we sometimes labor to convince an ignorant boor of the simplest proposition of science. "Well persuaded as I am," says a wise and genial philosopher, "that two and two make four, yet if any learned, sober, and godly man should desire to argue with me thereon, I would patiently listen unto him." Learned, sober, and godly men assert the supreme power of the Executive over the whole subject of reconstruction; with them let us reason.

The arguments in favor of the executive power, so far as we are aware, are only two: First, that under the war power the President has the exclusive right to re-organize civil government, as essential to the restoration of a lasting peace. Second, that the President has, by virtue of his oath to preserve and defend the Constitution, a general power and duty to do whatever is necessary to this end. These are all the *arguments* which we have ever seen upon that side of the question, although it has been *asserted*, without argument, that the President is required by the Constitution to guarantee republican governments to every State.

The claim founded upon the war power has the most plausibility, owing to the inclination of loyal men during the war to submit quietly to the assumption of doubtful powers, under the plea of necessity. But a time has come in which more vigilance must be exercised, and in which the encroachments of the Executive, no matter what may be their motive or their excuse, must be exposed and resisted. The war power lasts only with the war. That which it destroys may remain destroyed after the power itself has ceased, but that which it creates cannot outlive its creator. So strongly has this been felt, that grave doubts were entertained as to the permanency of emancipation by military action, although it was a purely negative act, since freedom is not a quality or privilege, but merely the absence of shackles and restriction. If then, as every Democratic politician insisted, and as many candid Union statesmen feared, the *destruction* of slavery by war did not outlast the war, how much less should the *construction* of a State under the same power be more permanent?

The advocates of this theory profess an extreme aversion to the idea that the rebellious States have in any way lost their *status* in the Union. Yet their doctrine implies that the President may impose any terms upon these States in his absolute discretion. For the ordinary restrictions of the Constitution do not extend to the war power, and if, by virtue of that power, the President can reconstruct civil government in a State at all, he can do so in any form whatsoever that may seem to him good. He may create a despotism just as legitimately as a republic. But the whole idea is a contradiction in terms. The use of the war power to regulate the process of ordinary civil administration is absurd, unless you are dealing with a conquered territory, and are founding a new government by right of conquest; and this the advocates of re-organization, by the war power, are most anxious to disclaim.

The second argument, founded upon the President's official oath, is yet more shallow. Every justice of the peace, every petty constable in the land, is required to swear that he will support the Constitution. According to this argument, it would be the right and the duty of every Dogberry in our police courts to do all things which might, in his judgment, be necessary to preserve the Constitution from injury. When was it ever before suggested that an officer's powers were enlarged by his oath of office beyond the scope of the laws prescribing his duties?

It is admitted on all sides that the vitality of the rebellious States, and their relations with the national Government, were "impaired and suspended" (to use the language of Mr. Johnson himself), and that, as a matter of fact, those States were without any recognizable civil government. The Constitution provides that "the United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government," and it is under this clause that Mr. Johnson is supposed to act. The whole controversy depends upon the meaning of these words. If the President is clothed by the Constitution with this power, then his course is justifiable; but if this power belongs to Congress, then all his labors in reconstruction are so many acts of usurpation, however well meant they may be.

Now where, we would ask, is there any clause in the Constitution giving to the President a general power to carry out provisions like this, involving the exercise of the highest degree of legislative discretion? It is declared that he shall have the *executive* power, but is the discrimination required to decide between conflicting forms of government any more executive in its nature than a decision between various modes of taxation? Can anything be conceived of more peculiarly within the province of legislation? If it is within the power of the executive department to determine uncontrolled such momentous questions as this, we should conceive that a legislature would be soon treated as an empty superfluity. The very existence of the States, including all the machinery by which the election of a Congress is possible, would be absolutely dependent upon the will of one man. So long as he permitted them to exist, they might continue to attend to minor matters; but with a single mandate he could sweep them all out of existence and substitute such governments as he chose to call more truly republican. Neither Congress nor the judiciary could restrain him, for the Supreme Court has repeatedly held that when one department of the government is clothed with a power like this, no other department can dispute its action.

On the other hand, the Constitution expressly gives to Congress authority to make laws for carrying into effect all powers vested by it "in the government of the United States," thus clearly including

within the powers of Congress the guarantee of republican State governments. This construction had the unanimous sanction of the Supreme Court in the famous case of Luther *vs.* Borden (7 Howard) where the doctrine is clearly stated that the legal government of a State is that which Congress recognizes, and where all the power of the President over the subject is treated as derivable from express statutes, and not from any direct delegation of power to him by the Constitution.

To this authority we may add the express declarations of the President himself, through the Secretary of State. On July 24, 1865, Mr. Seward telegraphed to the "provisional governor" of Mississippi: "The government of the State will be *provisional only*, until the civil authorities shall be restored *with the approval of Congress*." So on September 12, 1865, he wrote to Governor Marvin, of Florida: "It must, however, be *distinctly understood* that the restoration to which your proclamation refers *will be subject to the decision of Congress*."

A new light has come to the peculiar friends of the President since these telegrams were written, and, as seems likely, to the President himself. It is now asserted that his action was final, and subject to no decision of Congress. It is boldly asserted that *Congress*, as such, has no rights in the premises. Each house, acting separately, may reject individual members on personal grounds, but may not even exercise the poor right of enquiring whether the conditions which Mr. Johnson himself imposed have been complied with—much less enquire whether those conditions were sufficient. Only *one* of the revolted States has declared its ordinance of secession to have been null and void *from the beginning*. None of those which have been re-organized since April last have squarely treated their legislation while in rebellion as void. None of them have ratified the action of their late conventions by a majority of the votes cast at a popular election. Only one has pretended to make such a ratification at all, and there only 18,000 voted for reunion, though 55,000 voted on the same day for governor and Congress. Yet into all this Congress may not enquire! The Constitution requires that the representatives of every State shall be chosen at a time and in a manner to be prescribed by its legislature. Not one-third of these claimants even pretend to have been chosen at elections thus held; yet it is said Congress cannot reject them! Though Congress may be satisfied that the governments under which they claim, and the States which they represent, have no lawful existence, it cannot reject them! According to this doctrine, if a French army should occupy Texas, and under the pretence of a State organization should elect members of Congress from its own ranks, Congress could do nothing more than to enquire whether the ballots were deposited in an orderly manner, and whether the persons elected were loyal men. God forbid that an American Congress should ever accept this servile doctrine!

THE CRUSADE AGAINST CANADA.

We Americans, or the Northern portion of us at least, seem to submit to the sorrows of the Canadians as well as to the vexations of England with that resignation which men are apt to display in view of the distresses of other people. Indeed, there is not wanting a keen enjoyment of the perplexities of our neighbors and cousins on both sides the water, remembering how much satisfaction they took in the contemplation of our own, especially as the element of ridicule enters so largely into the matter. No intelligent American, we conceive, imagines that either Ireland or Canada is in any serious danger from the Fenian conspiracy, and this gives double relish to the enjoyment of the sight of men frightened at nothing, or next to nothing, who thought it a good joke when we had half the continent on our hands. We will trust that we should not be willing to return evil for evil to the extent that the carnal heart might desire, if we could, nor even to solace ourselves with Lord Byron's witty sophism:

> "Revenge in people 's certainly no virtue;
> But then it's not *my* fault if *others* hurt you!"

—for we don't believe they are going to be hurt. But it can do the English nation and their provincial dependencies no harm to feel, by experience, that insurrection is not an excellent jest when it raises its head against themselves. And they may come to see that the armed secession of half the United States was a circumstance worth fighting against when the mere threat of the separation of Ireland from England causes such an uproar. They held that the South was entirely in the right, and marvelled that we did not let them have their own way in such a trifling particular as the dismemberment of an empire. We might now turn the tables upon them; but we will not. We will observe our own laws, if they did not observe theirs, and will permit no hostile attacks to be made from our frontiers or our ports. And this in the belief that it is quite as much in the interest of the Irish themselves, on both sides the Atlantic, as of the English. But, whether or not, we shall return good for evil, and enforce our own laws even though England did wink at the evasion of hers.

There is a wide difference, however, between our rebellion and that organized by the Irish against England. Our rebels had not the faintest shadow of excuse for their attempt against the United States Government, excepting that they had been spoiled by excessive indulgence; whereas Ireland has had abundant grounds for rising in arms against England any time for the last seven hundred years—less now than in old times, it must be allowed, but yet abundantly sufficient for deep-seated discontent and every rational effort to be rid of them. Until very recent times, it was the avowed aim of England to make the conquered island her bond-maid rather than her adopted daughter. Were it not written down in the statutes at large, it would be hard to believe that such oppressions could be inflicted or be endured. The crops, the cattle, the manufactures, every industry of the Irish, were controlled with a single eye to English profits. Entails and absenteeism brooded like nightmares on the fair breast of the island, and the soil, which only needed common humanity and common sense on the part of its rulers to be made the most fertile of its acreage in Europe, was deformed with the most hideous poverty, and laid waste by the most horrible of famines. The cruelty of the laws against Catholicism, intended to compel obedience to the Established Church, helped to paralyze the hand of industry, and to turn what should be the garden of God into a wilderness. Ireland is a proof, notwithstanding all its disorders and lawless violence, of how much a people will endure before they will rise in resistance to oppression. Still, much of this oppression is now matter of history only, and the actual condition of Ireland is much improved from what it was fifty or even five-and-twenty years ago. Much of the discontent, which seems to have become a chronic disease, proceeds rather from traditional hatreds than from existing wrongs, though there are enough to repair yet.

Redundancy of population and the locking up of the land by entails, mortgages, settlements, jointures, and a multitude of other incumbrances, which made conveyances almost impossible, were two of the great evils under which Ireland suffered. The cruel kindness of the famine, and the emigration which has increased to such proportions as to make agricultural labor hard to get, remedied in some measure the first of these, while the latter was met by the Encumbered Estates Court, by means of which estates long eaten out by debt, and yet held together by the external force of law, were released literally from their bonds, and the land set free from the chains that bound it to poverty and despair. A perfect title could be thus given by the decree of a court, superseding the voluminous title-deeds of the former days by a slip of paper no bigger than a man's hand. This legislation opened the market to large and small English capitalists; land at once and the condition of the laboring classes were improved by this infusion of intelligence and capital. Still, two great mischiefs remain untouched, which must be fruitful of discontent and misery as long as they endure. The one is the enforced maintenance of the Established Church by the millions for the use of a few thousands and the emolument of pastors without flocks. The other, and the more material, is the tenure of land at will by the peasantry, especially in the south of Ireland, whereby they are liable to be turned out of their cabins and small holdings at a short notice, without allowance for any substantial improvements they may have made. This is a just ground of dissatisfaction, and no permanent tranquillity can be hoped for until a remedy has been found for it. It is possible that this very Fenian trouble may have the incidental advantage of teaching legislators that it is easier to prevent disorders by justice than to repress them by force. And if the inevitable failure of the move-

ment shall teach the Irish that it is by moral force, such as O'Connell preached, and not by armed force against impossible odds, that the revolutions they wish to accomplish are to be brought about, the lesson may be worth what it will cost.

AN AMERICAN CEMETERY IN MEXICO.

THERE is a case of a certain grave-yard in Mexico, not far from Maximilian's palace, which we should like to refer to some appropriate official person, corporation, or committee—say, perhaps, to the Congressional Committee on Reconstruction. The last-named general receptacle or sewer of incongruous matters surely contains vastly many less needing "rehabilitation" and "restoration" than this present one, as we shall now proceed to show. In the year 1853, our Government finished a cemetery, situate about two and a half miles from the City of Mexico, alongside the English burial-ground, which was built ten or fifteen years before. Its design was, first, to receive the bones of such unsepultured soldiers of ours as still lay, after six or seven years, on the battle-fields marking our twofold advance, under Taylor and Scott, upon the Mexican stronghold; secondly, to furnish a future burying-place for Americans dying in the country. A Mr. C. C. Goss (whose name, by the way, with the prefix of "*Rev.*," we have lately seen figuring among the rolls of army chaplains on the Union side in the late war) proceeded, by authority, to Mexico, to superintend the opening of the cemetery. He soon began to dredge the chief battle-fields of our national glory, and had the mournful pleasure of amassing a formidable heap of bones. Many of these, however, were apprehended to be the frames of mules and other beasts of burden who had perished on the fields—the more especially as Mr. Goss's accredited terms of contract with the teamsters who raked together and garnered the bones were "so much a load." Careful scrapings and savings, under such circumstances, of anything possibly osseous would naturally take place even among wagoners most profoundly stricken with the sacredness of the cause wherein the heroes fell and with the glory of our republic. And we regret to add that, in memory of their assiduous labors *en chiffoniers*, a vulgar nickname still attaches to the American cemetery in Mexico—witty enough, but too wicked, to record in print.

At length the perishable remains of at least 750 American soldiers (with possible equine interpolations, as we have said) were *supposed* to be collected; and, accordingly, a deposit of them was made in a prominent quarter of the sacred ground, and above them was set a decent monument, a few feet high, hewn from a stone somewhat resembling our Northern granite. One face of this obelisk still bears an inscription which (if we remember aright) runs nearly as follows: *To the memory of the officers and soldiers of the American army who fell by disease and battle in the valleys of Mexico during the years* 1846 *and* 1847. The device on the other side is, however, the more striking one, and is in words and numbers to wit:

The Remains of
750
Are Here Interred
Under an Act
of Congress.

Accordingly, when a new edition of "Greenleaf on Evidence" comes out, under the learned jurist's head of "What may be *Monumenta* or Monuments," the annotator can enrich the list with the hint given by this funeral lithograph: namely, that an act of Congress may sometimes be a "monument," and if not sufficiently so to "live and die under," enough at least to be buried under. Of course, it is hardly necessary to point out the ingenuity wherewith the disputed nature of a portion of the remains is avoided by the use of the simple numerals. "The remains of 750"—well, 750 what? That is as you wish, dear sir. Should you adopt the theory set forth on the obverse face of the memorial stone, reply "750 soldiers." Should a sceptical habit lead you to the *other* theory, which, if more profane, is more popular, there again you are suited.

Everything being in readiness, the cemetery was thrown open and proposals invited for interments. Now, the terms whereon this cemetery has been kept available from that day to this are, that Americans shall pay $40 for each tomb there, while persons of any other nation pay $52. A very good and heavy wall distinctly marks the span of the mortuary premises. Within the enclosure is the modest house of the keeper. He has this domiciliary perquisite, and, besides, the meagre pay of $6 for each grave he may dig—$6 equally for American and foreigner, on the ground that there is no nationality in the grave, whatever there may be in the grave-yard. In this cemetery there have been, beside the initial inhuming of the "750" since the year 1853, a total of about 110 interments, reckoning up to the present time. Now, so far as the grave-digger's earnings go, that interval represents but $660 for the gross receipts of thirteen years. It will be seen, of course, that he must long ago have quietly sacrificed himself to make the necrologic figure 111 instead of 110 had he possessed no other means of support. This would have been obviously rough usage of Schneider, for such is, in fact, the name of the worthy grave-digger. But it so happens that he enjoys another privilege, *virtute officii*, which quite puts him above the mercy of the sanitary condition of the City of Mexico. This privilege is a right of retaining all the ground within the burial-place not actually used and occupied for the purposes of interment as a garden for vegetables. The honest Schneider had always, therefore, a good and prolific soil at his command, and he works it well. He set it out chiefly with cabbages, and, though this circumstance procured the sacred enclosure the well-known epithet of the "American cabbage-ground" from irreverential citizens, yet nothing can be more striking than its omnipresent contrast of growth and decay, life and death, life *out of* death. The moral is very fine; nor can any observer, however satirical, level a word in disparagement of the extraordinary profusion and the first-class quality of our thrifty keeper's vegetable productions.

Now the ossuary over which, as has been said, is fixed the commemorative tablet, is in that part of the enclosure most distant from the entrance. There, also, are the vaults. In consequence, every funeral has to pass through a long double row of cabbages, for a bed of the esculent flourishes on each side of the road leading from the gate to the place of sepulture. There are, indeed, by-paths which flank these vegetable gardens; but of course they do not avoid the agricultural view, and the main road, we repeat, bisects a vigorous cabbage-field, at whose terminus are the few graves. These latter occupy a sorry bit of territory, compared with the stretch of domain assigned to the gross-leaved living tenants of the necropolis. With his cabbages, good man Schneider, impelled perhaps by some family fatalism, which springs from ancestral relish of that delicacy, makes famous sauer-kraut. It is the only sauer-kraut, we believe, in the empire (or republic) of Mexico. At all events, it is the most celebrated, and everybody is loud in praise of Schneider's sauer-kraut. Whether this partiality comes from some popular absurd theory with regard to its origin (for this point, of course, furnishes the standard joke between friends over the pleasant dish) cannot be affirmed. At all events, such is the fact; and we may be sure, therefore, that it is not only in our martial but in our horticultural character that we Americans get toasted at little domestic convivialities in Mexico.

However, perhaps it might now be well to forego the practice of husbandry, for awhile at least, in our national cemetery and burial-place of heroes, and devote the sacred enclosure entirely to the dead. In most respects the grave-yard is in good condition. The substantial wall which surrounds it (and fine walls are an American institution, as foreigners, staring at magnificent stone fences in our country, enclosing very ordinary ground, will testify) is in good preservation, while that of its English neighbor has constantly to be put in repair. The English yard, however, is not used for cultivating cabbages. And ours, too, need not be, provided we give the keeper proper wages for keeping it in order. He need not wholly abandon the agricultural pursuits which have earned him fame and fortune far above his funeral labors. But he can conduct them perhaps in a little different locality; though it must be owned, we fear, his customers would begin to say sadly, "Ah, it's no longer Schneider's sauer-kraut!" Nevertheless, though at this individual sacrifice, the national reputation might not suffer by giving something less of a bucolic and more of a burial character to our Mexican cemetery. The busy gardener now depends, in the more solemn, but less exacting and less lucrative, half of his profession, on receipts which are not only very fluctuating,

but eminently depressing to a man of any ambition, as our statistics have shown. Mexico is, of all cities, most hostile, as everybody knows, to the calling of the coffin-maker and grave-digger. Now poor Schneider ought not to be made to suffer for a sanitary excellence which is not his fault, and which he doubtless laments as heartily as anybody. He should have a regular and sufficient stipend from our Government. And, if it be true that his office is merely a sinecure, that unhappy fact ought not to influence our action in his case; it surely does not in some other cases of sinecures we know of. And, besides, something else might be added to the round of his duties in order to make them equal to the measure of his wages.

This cemetery, at all events, may profitably fall under the view of some "reconstruction" committee. At present our zealous gardener grave-digger has had actually to drum up custom for the yard. Since foreigners may be buried in our grounds, he has sometimes successfully pleaded with our consular representatives in the capital for a reduction of the high rates, in individual cases, that an entombing might take place which would otherwise be refused in favor of less expensive sepulture. The infrequency with which his fee falls to him naturally renders it an object of greater value and exertion.

ACTION AND REACTION.

Whenever an orator or a writer wishes to be at once brilliant and profound, and to impress his hearers or his readers with an overwhelming sense of his erudition and his sagacity, he strikes an attitude and exclaims: "History always repeats herself!" We believe that it is a quotation from somebody or other, we forget whom, if we ever knew; but it is of the less consequence where it comes from, inasmuch as it is untrue. History does nothing of the kind. She does not repeat herself, and never did. She has always too much new matter ready to her hand to make it at all worth her while. There are no two facts of history that exactly resemble each other any more than any two noses or two blades of grass. Human nature, indeed, is the same in all ages, and the effects of its passions on human affairs have certain generic resemblances, but always with distinctive specific differences. As the circumstances, attendant and antecedent, of historical events are never alike, so no repetition of a particular result can be safely prophesied from an imagined or real resemblance in a new set of facts to those which brought it about. Republics have always proceeded from freedom to licentiousness, from licentiousness to anarchy, and from anarchy to despotism. Therefore the American experiment must end as all that have gone before it. The old Federalists, than whom no more honest men or truer patriots ever existed, had fearful misgivings in this direction, and trembled as they read the doom of their own country in that of the Grecian and Roman commonwealths. When the slaveholders' rebellion broke out, every half-fledged politician in Parliament ran cackling about in ecstasy at the certainty, now made doubly sure, that "the republican bubble had burst!" And even old and experienced statesmen gravely prophesied the inevitable downfall of our democratic institutions. Thus far, however, history has not repeated herself. The republic has shown herself strong enough to put down the most formidable rebellion that history records, and yet General Grant is neither dictator nor emperor. Congress still sits. There is no tyranny or violence in the loyal States, and if there be any such in the rebel region, it certainly is not on the side of the victorious government. History certainly does not repeat herself when the dangers men dread are looked for from the vanquished and not the conquerors—when the appalling watchword is said to be not *Væ victis!* but *Væ victoribus!*

Then history teaches us that reaction always follows action, and the last end of a nation is often worse than the first, after a struggle for freedom. Did not the Restoration replace the Commonwealth and Charles II. succeed to Cromwell? Did not Bonaparte inherit the fruits of the French Revolution? And how soon did 1849 devour up the promise of 1848! The American nation rose up against their slave-driving lords and conquered them; but now comes the reaction, and the treason of the vile and the supineness of the good are to deliver it up again into the hands of its old masters. The blood and tears poured out during the four years of the war were all shed in vain. They cry unto heaven from the ground, but man regardeth them not.

> ——"In vain years
> Of death, depopulation, bondage, fears
> Have all been borne and broken by the accord
> Of roused up millions!"

History repeats herself. As it hath been, so shall it ever be. With all respect for the sagacity of those adepts who would cast the horoscope of the future by the lights of the past, we deny both propositions. There is no analogy between any passages in the history of the Old World and that we are now going through of our own. And if there were any, there would be nothing discouraging about it, for England was much better off under Charles II. than under either his father or his grandfather, as was France under Bonaparte than under Louis XV. or any of his predecessors. And though the upheaving of 1848 did not shake the continent of Europe altogether to rights, it left it in better condition than it had ever before been in, and one which makes more possible than ever before yet more beneficent political and social changes. But there is no analogy between the conditions under which the revolutions of the Old World or of antiquity took place and those of the one we have just passed through, or rather which we have yet to complete and consolidate.

We think that less than justice is done to the American people by those who think that they can be cajoled or cheated out of the fruits of their victory over their rebels. They have never been accused of being indifferent to their own interests, we believe, though they sometimes misunderstood them. Had they been truly wise in their generation they would not have suffered the slave power to gain the ascendency in their affairs that it so long exercised. But it is a fact in human nature that men will endure political injuries with amazing patience, in the hope of their curing themselves in some unimaginable way, and in the fear of flying to worser evils that they know not of. Five years ago at this time how black the prospect looked! The noise and outcry of the sympathizers with the rebels made it look as if we were all ready to surrender everything at discretion. But as soon as the echo of the cannonade at Sumter reached the North, the whole scene changed as by enchantment. The Copperheads slunk to their dens. The Northern rebels hid their heads in astonishment. They had not comprehended, any more than their Southern masters, the meaning of the mighty silence which they had disturbed with the barbarous noise

> "Of owls and cuckoos, asses, apes, and dogs."

In an instant, in the twinkling of an eye, all was changed. The people made their majestic purpose known and never wavered nor flinched until they had accomplished it, and put their enemies under their feet. And now, because they have relapsed into grand repose, and the same obscene birds and unclean beasts and venomous reptiles have ventured into the light of day again, making it hideous, is it to be believed that the people which trampled out the rebellion are to be hoodwinked and made again the serfs of the slave power under another name? They deserve better of their friends than that belief. No conspiracy of Southern rebels and Northern traitors, no coalition of pro-slavery Democrats and renegade Republicans, even if it were led by an apostate President, could give the control of this nation again to the States lately in insurrection. The people would crush any such attempt as sternly and effectually as they did the rebellion, though with other weapons. But we have no such conspiracy and no such leading to fear. Wide as differences of opinion may be among public men, there is no just ground to accuse tried Republicans of treason, or the head of the nation of apostacy. Dissidences and disorders are inseparable from the transition state we are now passing through, and they cannot be quieted and reconciled in a moment. But the *teterrima causa belli* being at an end, all moral, political, and economical forces will irresistibly, though gradually, compel a true peace, followed by its natural blessings.

And, indeed, the reaction which is so much feared as always following action has already taken place, and we are living in the midst of it. It was the reaction against slavery which inspired, sometimes without their knowing it, the men of all parties who carried the war against the rebellion through to a successful issue. Under its compulsion slavery was abolished and the organic institutions of the rebel

States forcibly revolutionized. The loyal people know their own meaning, and they will keep the control of their Government in their own hands. The sublime clemency and god-like magnanimity with which they have treated their fallen foes is beyond the capacity of those unhappy men to conceive of. They can attribute such conduct only to weakness or fear. They cannot see in this the very expression of conscious strength and deliberate courage. But let them and their creatures at the North attempt to defeat by indirection the great purpose of the people, and they will learn that the reaction against slavery has not reacted in favor of rebels. They will never rivet the broken links of their shattered chain upon their free limbs again.

"——Quæ bellua ruptis,
Cum semel effugit, reddet se prava catenis?"

What a beast that lacks discourse of reason would refuse to do, the American people are in no danger of doing. And it is small wisdom and mistaken patriotism to assume or to argue that they are.

THE DEBATES IN THE FRENCH PARLIAMENT.—M. DE GIRARDIN.

The annual tournament of eloquence in the French parliament has begun. The only occasion which is offered under the present system to the members of the opposition is the discussion of the address. Once a year only they can bring forward all their grievances; they are then obliged to condense all they have been accumulating; they cannot choose their time nor their opportunity, and must needs serve the French public with a *menu* which is necessarily too full. Who can digest, all at once, a long and magnificent speech of M. Thiers on liberty, a speech of M. Lanjuinais on Algeria, another by M. Jules Favre on the Roman question, a philippic of Pelletan against electoral corruption, a satire of Picard against Imperial functionaries, etc.? It really seems as if the whole system had been so arranged as to disgust the French public with parliamentary debates. The deputies feel very keenly the difficulty of their position; they are obliged to bring in question after question, in quick succession, just as schoolboys recite their lessons one after the other. They jump from Rome to Mexico, from Mexico to Cochin-China, from Cochin-China to Paris, and, as the old proverb says, "a rolling stone gathers no moss."

On the Mexican affair the opposition has met with no success whatever, and we fear that its campaign has not been well conducted. M. Picard was beginning to speak on this point when he was interrupted by M. Rouher, who, in the name of the Government, begged the opposition to postpone the discussion, as negotiations had been entered into with the United States Government, the result of which was not yetknown. After this oracular declaration, M. Rouher sat down, and, after some hesitation, M. Picard declared, in the name of the opposition, that he was willing to wait and would not throw new difficulties in the way of the Government. This sort of coquetting between the ministry and the parliament is very well in its place where there is a real constitutional government, and where the house, sooner or later, is sure of exercising its control over the affairs of the country. But, considering the nature of the Imperial Government and its mode of managing foreign affairs, the course of M. Picard and his friends seems somewhat simple. The secretary of the Mexican legation in Paris said, the other day, "If we can only reach May, we are safe!"

The new president of the House, Walewski, is not equal to his predecessor, Morny. The only resemblance between them is that, like Morny, he owes his great favor to the fact that he is an illegitimate son of the first Bonaparte. His mother was the beautiful Polish Countess Walewska. When he was appointed president of the house, after the death of Morny, some French wit quoted a famous verse of Boileau:

"Chassez le *naturel*, il revient au galop."

M. Walewski finds it very tedious listening to all the debates, and he is very often absent. A few days ago the old veteran Glais-Bizoin, speaking incidentally of Mexico, referred to it as "that empire which is supported by thousands of bayonets." This sentence, pronounced with some emphasis, brought M. Walewski back to himself; and thinking that M. Glais-Bizoin was speaking of the French Empire, he violently interrupted him and called him to order, to the bewilderment of the whole house. M. Glais-Bizoin quietly remarked that he was speaking of Mexico. "Oh! I beg your pardon," said Walewski, with much confusion and amid much laughter.

The same M. Glais-Bizoin excited M. Rouher's wrath to such an extent, at the end of a speech, that the Minister of State got up and exclaimed: "This is no longer politics; this is a *pasquinade*" (which we may, perhaps, translate "buffoonery"). A great tumult followed this interruption, and almost every member in the House took the side of M. Glais-Bizoin. The disorder and the melee was such that M. Walewski, in his despair, closed the debate and left the presidential chair. Curiously enough, Glais-Bizoin was invited to dine the same evening at Rouher's; he did not go, however, and did not think it necessary to send an excuse.

The humor of the House is no longer what it was in former times, when "*les cinq*" composed the whole opposition, and when every word which fell from the ministerial lips was an oracle. The deputies are not indifferent to the progress and agitation of public opinion. One of them, a ministerialist and Bonapartist, said to the present writer some time ago: "I am rather puzzled in my department. I don't know whom I ought to *soigner* (to cajole) most, my prefect or my electors." A great many find it already necessary to pay some attention to the wishes of their electors, and not to put their whole trust in the protection of the once all-powerful *préfet*.

The greatest event of the session is the amendment proposed to the address by forty deputies who do not belong to the real opposition, but who nevertheless claim more liberties for the nation. The amendatory proposition, which at first obtained but forty signatures, has since received eighty, and it may have more when the day of its discussion arrives. This discussion will be very interesting; for the first time the opposition will be silent, and the rights of liberty will be defended by new champions. The formation of this *tiers-parti* may be (without punning) attributed partly to Thiers. The moderation and statesmanlike character of his opposition has made many converts in the majority. If the actual progress is maintained, we should not wonder if even the present Chamber should prove very troublesome to the Imperial despotism before the end of its session.

Outside of Parliament great agitation has been created by the recent articles of M. Emile de Girardin. Girardin may almost be called the most important journalist in France. In his hand the *Presse* became once an important political weapon. Girardin is a dangerous friend, but even a more dangerous enemy. He killed Armand Carrel in a duel; he killed the republicans of the National by his articles. Cavaignac put him in prison after the insurrection of June; once at liberty, he began an almost savage warfare against him. None contributed so much to hinder his election to the presidency, and to promote the election of Louis Bonaparte. After the *coup d'état*, he abandoned politics, and quietly increased in speculation his already large fortune. He has amused himself lately in writing sensational dramas, "Le Supplice d'une Femme" and "Les Deux Sœurs." His restlessness has again brought him back to the field of politics. Girardin is no sentimentalist; he is almost cynical in his utter contempt for political partizanship; he professes no preference for any man or any form of government. "Liberty" is his only motto, and the loyalty which he has shown to the cause of abstract liberty will certainly redeem many of his faults and of his errors. About a month ago, after a silence of many years, he began a series of articles in his paper, the *Presse*, in which he had always preserved great influence. These articles were entitled "Lettres d'un Mort." From his political grave he was looking on France, and he described her agonies with a wonderful and sarcastic eloquence. He warned the Emperor against the imbecility of his counsellors, and prophesied that nothing could save France from a new revolution but liberal reforms. His sharp, clear, thrilling voice was exciting too much attention. The *Presse* received in a week two *avertissements*; the proprietors of the paper were frightened, for after two *avertissements* a paper can be suppressed by the Government. The shareholders asked Girardin to lower his tone; he left them defiantly, and bought an unknown newspaper called the *Liberté*, which was on the point of dying for want of subscribers. He laid aside the sum of one million, and said to his

friends: "I am willing to sink this sum in my new paper before it can be made to pay." Under the present *régime*, and with the stamp duty, no paper can cover its expenses before the shareholders have sacrificed about that sum. So the *Liberté* was started by Girardin alone. It began with six hundred subscribers; after a week it had one thousand; Girardin expects to have twenty thousand before the end of the year. Will he not deserve them? If many men had his pluck and enterprise, France would not be reduced to the melancholy condition in which she finds herself.

SHAKESPEARE.

It needs no bow o'erstrained to wing the shaft
Of wit and wisdom. When true poets sing,
Into the night new constellations spring,
That lure us from our lamps—books rich with craft
Of rhetoric. So, when Shakespeare sang or laughed,
The world with long sweet Alpine echoes thrilled—
Voiceless to learned tongues no Muse had filled
With melody divine. Athirst we quaffed
His airy electric words like heavenly wine.
The mountain summits of that Orient land
Outsoar the level of our praises fine.
All others lie around like tracts of sand,
With here and there a green isle or a palm
That whispers pleasantly when days are calm.

C. P. Cranch.

THE ACTING OF MR. EDWIN BOOTH.

The return of Mr. Booth to the stage has been one of the pleasant features in New York life the past winter. It was pleasant to think that he had so far recovered from his gloom that he could appear in his natural guise before the public; it was pleasant to see the public as welcoming their old favorite again; it was pleasant to witness the delight of thousands who found their choicest entertainment in his acting; and pleasant it was also to know that the New York theatre was to have the benefit of his fine character and his great ability. Mr. Booth has laid out his strength on two characters, the impersonation of which has become almost identified with his person—*Hamlet* and *Richelieu*. The "Hamlet" was the drama that had the stupendous success a year ago. The "Richelieu" was the revival of a favorite *rôle* on a scale of magnificence which placed it as a spectacle side by side with the "Hamlet," the two being probably the most beautiful scenic representations ever given in this country. In the case of Sir Bulwer Lytton's play, this gorgeousness of scenery, furniture, costume, and general stage appointment is in perfect keeping with the play itself, which is brilliant and artificial, marked by no high qualities of genius, and characterized by no attempt to exhibit the working of strong passions or the development of strong characters. All there is in the play may be seen at a glance. It is essentially a spectacle; the more spectacular it is, therefore, the better it is. With "Hamlet" the case is different. Here everything is grand, profound, even tremendous, in its intellectual and moral aspect. The actor has to portray the action of a great soul in a great crisis of its destiny; and the painted pasteboard, the cheap tinsel, the banners, the drawing-room elegances, and the calcium lights are as much out of place in the stern grandeur of the piece, as they would have been in the actual life of the antique time in which the scene of the drama is laid. A severe taste cannot easily become reconciled to a spectacular "Hamlet." The eyes dazzled by the spectacle are in no condition to see the "Hamlet;" and the *Hamlet* himself looks wholly out of place "assisting" at a spectacle.

In "Richelieu," as we have said, there is no such incongruity. Little is required beyond the decorator's art, and a mastery of stage finesse on the part of the actor. In this Mr. Booth is a wonder of skill. His familiarity with stage effects, and his address in employing them, are something exquisite. He dresses his part faultlessly; his disguise is complete; his command of form and countenance is equal to every exigency; his by-play is quick, various, interesting; his postures are easy; his movement is graceful. It is difficult to see how art can do anything more. In personating *Richelieu*, the actor's responsibility is limited to the representation of the author's conception, and that is all given plainly in the text. No original study of character is allowed; there is no room for the display of genius, for there is no room for any great difference of interpretation. The work of creation is all done to hand. If the creation is a false one, that is not the player's fault. It is no affair of his if the *Richelieu* of the play is not precisely the Richelieu of history, if the sentiments are not his sentiments, nor the words such as he would have spoken, nor the passions such as he would have felt. The play exhibits a series of situations, nothing more; and if the actor gets up the situations well, it is enough. Mr. Booth does this eminently well; but, being in a critical mood, we must presume to say that, in our judgment, he does not do it perfectly. The piece was overacted. As the play went on, our thoughts wandered back to the France of the seventeenth century and to the court of Louis XIII., and we could not help asking ourselves if the great soldier, noble statesman, minister, priest, of that stately period conducted himself in this way towards the men and women about him; if he was thus unreserved and familiar, if he gave way in public to such violent bursts of passion, if he raised his voice so high, or allowed himself to be detected in such hysterical spasms of feeling. His schooling of years in self-command and diplomatic reticence was to little purpose if such scenes as Mr. Booth depicts in the fourth act could have taken place. The physical capacities of old age vary so greatly in different persons that it might be rash to decide against an old man's power to indulge in such tremendous explosions of feeling as are exhibited at the Winter Garden, but it must be quite safe to say that an old age like that of Armand Richelieu could not let such pent-up fires escape in physical demonstrations. Mr. Booth presents the character admirably, according to his conception of it; but the conception itself strikes us as faulty. There is more art than genius, more fancy than imagination, more taste than intellect. Art so fine, taste so delicate, fancy so rich and rare, are too good to be dispraised, too precious to be undervalued; the multitude is fascinated by them; they draw the crowds and win the homage So remunerative are they in pence and applause that the temptation to overwork them is no doubt irresistible. Still where the finish is so exquisite, one cannot help wishing the material were a little more solid.

The defect in imaginative power—the power to conceive and create—is most evident in the interpretation which Mr. Booth gives us of *Hamlet*. Far be it from us, modest critics as we are, to revive the old controversy respecting the character of the melancholy prince or the theme which Shakespeare meant to treat when he wrote the play. It is enough for our purpose that a great character is presented, and that a great theme is worked out. The elemental features of the character, too, are thrust forth prominently, and the stray points of the theme are pushed forward with unmistakable force. Whatever else Shakespeare's *Hamlet* may be, whatever we may think of his madness, he is a man of immense intellectual and moral power—no weakling, no morbid sentimentalist, no melancholy dreamer, no moon-struck misanthrope. He is a deep thinker on the mysteries of this life and of the life beyond—a philosopher, a student, a scholar, who is simply too great intellectually to yield to any passion however absorbing and sacred. He could not act as other men would, because he saw too many reasons why he should not. All sides of the case presented themselves to him: he must act from thought, rationally, and reason is for ever suggesting delays and reconsiderations. The intellect must have been immense that could resist such a flood of impulse as stormed through him, but it did resist—it held him bound. And yet, not his intellect more than his conscience: *Hamlet* was too good a man to commit a crime if there was any possibility of helping it. The inducements were terrific in force: the moral sentiment of the age he lived in, the duty of the son to avenge the father, the father's re-appearance from the dead in visible and unmistakable form, recounting in detail the story of his murder and bidding his son avenge it, whetting his purpose to avenge it by repeated visits, the shameful character of the man who had committed the crime—all conspired to drive him to consummate vengeance. What restrained him? Not his weakness, but his power not his lack of will, but the sanctity of his will. He must be sure that he is acting rationally and nobly, with free mind and uncorrupted heart; and of that he cannot be sure. He puts himself off with false pretexts, and squares the account with his conscience by finding fault with his opportunity. The reason he does not stab his uncle at his prayer is really that he has not made up his mind to kill him at all; he is waiting for more proof. The reason he gives to himself, namely, that his uncle would then go to heaven, is simply the fetch by which he comes off without discredit to the general drift of his persuasion. Had the deed to be done been anything else, though ten times huger, he could have done it easily; but *this* deed, no. This intellectual and moral sublimity marches grandly all through the play, teazed by outward irritations, weakened occasionally by nervous exhaustion, slightly distempered by the warfare that waged incessantly within him, but never completely unsettled or broken down. His melancholy was born of thought before it was nursed by sorrow or matured by supernatural visit-

ation; he is outside of everything from the first and superior to everything; he dwells apart with great problems, not merely unconscious of the people about him, but profoundly conscious of spiritual verities within him. Precisely this, we are compelled to say, we miss in the impersonation of Edwin Booth. His *Hamlet* is beautiful, elegant, graceful, exquisitely refined and delicate, but neither intellectually nor morally strong. It is a romantic and sentimental *Hamlet*, pensive but not deeply reflective; sad, with the low-spiritedness of a morbid temperament increased by a tragic experience, not with the settled sorrow of a great soul steeped in thought and agony. He is vacillating and weak; he drifts before circumstances, instead of taking his stand on reason and conscience with a purpose to control fate. His action is that of a man of impulse; his movements are wayward and passive; his gesticulation is feeble; his declamation smooth, easy, balanced, as if no profound emotion was in him. He is distinguished from those about him by the finish of his artistic elaboration, rather than by the grandeur of the traits which he impersonates. It is Mr. Booth that is distinguished from his fellow-actors rather than the *Hamlet* he represents from the other personages of the drama. Is it Shakespeare's *Hamlet* who glides so serenely over the abrupt and awful breaks in the famous meditation on suicide, passes through the fine shocks of experience as if unconscious of their occurrence, and reaches the conclusion so little torn and scarred that when, at the close of the black struggle, he suddenly perceives the white-souled *Ophelia* at her matin worship, he is insensible of the mighty moral chasm between her and himself, and softly murmurs the wish that she might remember *his* sins along with *her own*, as if she had any sins to remember! or as if her blackest sin would not look white as wool against the midnight guilt of the heart that had just been facing self-murder? Is it Shakespeare's *Hamlet* who is so unreserved with his companions, so violent with his mistress, so vehement with his mother? Is it Shakespeare's *Hamlet* who shows so little self-command during the mock play that he must certainly have betrayed himself before it began? Is it Shakespeare's *Hamlet* who rushes into such a paroxysm of rage at the grave? This *Hamlet* is interesting and pitiful, as helpless sorrow always is, especially when it is sentimental. He is not fascinating or impressive, as the grief of a great mind never fails to be.

We have tried to avoid any unnecessary criticism of Shakespeare's own conception. Our purpose has been to take none but the conceded traits of Shakespeare's *Hamlet*, and show that they received less than justice at the hands of Mr. Booth. An analysis of separate readings would, we believe, fortify our judgment considerably; but for this there is no space here. One word sums up our criticism. We regard it as Mr. Booth's misfortune that he is divided between two widely differing schools of acting—the romantic and the natural. The traditions of his youth, his early observation and training, committed him to the romantic or heroic school; his organization, taste, aptitude, perhaps his later study also, incline him to the school of nature. But he seems never to have made a deliberate choice between the two; his favorite plays are romantic; his pet characters are romantic; in his treatment he aims at naturalness; hence the incongruity. Shakespeare's tragedies cannot be acted naturally, for they are entirely out of *our* "nature;" and to play them after the old unnatural style of the last century would be simply intolerable. How then can they be played at all? Even *Richelieu* cannot be acted naturally; for such an episode in French society cannot be reproduced as real to our audiences. There will always remain something that cannot be conveyed by our every-day means of expression, and that must be caricatured by strained action, artificial gesture, and stilted declamation. Mr. Booth does all that man can do; but no man can bring *Hamlet* or *Richelieu* into modern life. We think that if he would abandon the endeavor, and devote his very remarkable talents to studies in the school of nature he would achieve triumphs worthy of the greatest artists of the age.

AN ALMOST LIVING LITERATURE.

Joel Barlow, the distinguished American poet, died in a small village of Poland, having spent the last days of his life, if we are not mistaken, in the house of a poor Jew. American writers of our days, however, who desire to *see* the eastern parts of Europe, need not be deterred from travelling through the lands of the Sarmatians by fears of being overtaken by death or sickness in a lonely, uncomfortable, gloomy tavern or cot. They can, if they so choose, traverse in one or two days, in mail-coaches, rail-cars, and hacks, one of the largest fragments of quartered Poland, by turns sleeping, yawning, and learning from some fellow-traveller all the information necessary for a description or a lecture. Should, however, the object of the traveller be not only to see and to describe, but also to become familiar with the remote regions above mentioned, to study the character, the manners, and social condition of the nations and races inhabiting them—should he venture far away from the locomotive and the *droshka*, we should consider it not only a natural but a common event if he were overtaken somewhere in the gorges of the Carpathian slopes or in the outskirts of the Lithuanian forests not by death, but by a snow-storm, stopped in his excursions for a number of days, and compelled to seek shelter, food, and amusement in the society of a half-civilized-looking Jewish family, whose corrupt German dialect would afford him an easier medium of conversation than the Slavic of the peasants.

Can that Jewish dwelling afford any nourishment for the inquisitive mind of a travelling American scholar? Let him not too soon despair. It shall not surprise us in the least if he discovers in one of the alcoves a private library of no mean dimensions. A Hebrew library belongs to the household of every respectable, or half-respectable, Jewish family in Poland. If our traveller has in his college years acquired, and not yet forgotten, the rudiments of that Semitic tongue, he can amply amuse himself, and no little enlarge his bibliographical knowledge, by deciphering the full titles of those crude folios, quartos, octavos, and duodecimos; else let him study the shorter non-original titles affixed in Latin, Portuguese, German, or Polish, and he will still find plenty of literary entertainment. If there be a timid, bashful, young man in the house, we have no doubt he will be able to give fuller information on the works and their authors, for he will be the student of the family. Our traveller, it is true, must compel him to speak. By all means let him do it.

The Jewish people is the greatest of ethnological phenomena. Its literature is no less a phenomenon. Both are almost coeval with the history of mankind. The people whose cradle was the country between the Euphrates and the river of Egypt, the Lebanon and the Arabian Desert, continues to exist when scattered throughout all climes, from Melbourne to St. Paul and from Archangel to Rio de Janeiro; the literature, whose earliest specimens are the blessings of a Hebrew sheikh dying in Egypt, the warnings of a leader of nomads in the vicinity of the Dead Sea, or the philosophy of a son of Uz, is continued in our days, and not without success, in the hyperborean regions watered by the affluents of the Baltic—the Niemen, the Wilia, and the Vistula. And what strange links are there between the dying words of Jacob and the last numbers of the *Maggid* or of the *Carmel!* Examine the titles of that comparatively so poor collection of books in one of the wilds of Sarmatia, and you will know what Hebrew literary history means. Skip over all that period of Jewish national existence which, in literature, begins with Moses and ends with Josephus, or, as his mediæval Hebrew compiler calls him, Josipon. There is, first, the Mishna, the product of the time of the Antonines, and brought to conclusion in Galilee; there is the Talmud of Jerusalem and the more voluminous one of Babylonia; there are the works—theological, philosophical, poetical, grammatical, or critical—of Isaac of Fez, Maimonides of Egypt, Kalir of Italy, Hallevi and Ebn-Ezra of Spain, Don Abarbanel of Portugal, Kimhi and Gersonides of Provence, Rashi of northern France, Ben-Israel of Holland, Asher and Eibenschütz of Germany, Eiger of Posen, and Elias of Lithuania, with numberless others, some printed in Venice, others in Fürth, others in Amsterdam, and again others, of more modern date, in Vienna, Prague, Warsaw, Lemberg, or Wilna. All these form one literature, and each will be more or less known by every Hebrew scholar of Tunis as well as of Altona, of Saloniki as well as of Cracow.

If your young expounder has had the good fortune to be instructed by a teacher of more general Hebrew culture than the mass of Polish pedagogues of his persuasion, he will introduce you to a department of Hebrew literature less universally accepted, excluded as almost heretical by some, and the more warmly cherished and cultivated by others. He may show you the Hebrew commentaries of the philosopher Mendelssohn ("the man of Dessau"); the epic and lyric poems of his friend Wessely, rivalling in fervor of sentiment and purity of diction the immortal songs of Hallevi; the dramatic masterpiece of the eldest Luzzato; the songs of the two younger; Troplowitz's tragedy, "Saul"; Bloch's descriptive geography; Rappoport's biographies; Reggio's letters; the translations of Letteris; the works of Eichbaum, Slonimski, Mappu. This collection covers little more than one century, but it again takes you over the vast extent of the European continent, from Amsterdam to Odessa.

The works of the last-named Hebrew writer your bashful friend will designate and define with some hesitation. They are romances, the first in the Hebrew language. We have one of them before us, published a few years ago (Wilna, *Anno Mundi* 5613), and entitled "Ahabath Tzion" (The Love of Zion). It is a historical novel, the scene of which is Jerusalem and its environs, in the reign of King Hezekiah, before and during the invasion of Sennacherib. The plot is rather too complicated at the beginning, and too much saturated with love, jealousy, and patriotism; but as a picture

of ancient Hebrew life, as developed in the brilliant biblical pages of the period of Isaiah and his contemporaries, and as a lyrico-dramatic narrative in a style as pure, fluent, rich, and fresh as any Hebrew poetical prose of modern times, it is no mean contribution to the prose fiction department of that literature, and regarded, with no less delight than pride, as one of its gems by the compatriots of the author, a resident of the Lithuanian town of Kowno.

Thus the glowing language in which Moses and Joshua addressed the tribes of Israel gathered around Sinai and Nebo; in which elegies were sung along the streams of Babylon; in which Haï vied with the philosophizing bards of the caliphs, Harizi and Immanuel imitated Hariri and Dante, and Bidrashi's diction eclipsed the most spirited songs of Provence; in which the disciples and followers of Maimonides, from Ben-Tibbon, the Aristotelian, to Maimun, the Kantian philosopher, expounded the various metaphysical systems of so many ages; in which the glowing cantos of Wessely rivalled those of Klopstock,—is now being adapted to new literary wants, and enters into competition with the rich tongues refined by the efforts of a Mickiewicz, a Pushkin, and a Gogol.

ENGLAND.—HOUSE OF COMMONS.—REFORM.—DR. WHEWELL.

London, March 10, 1866.

The day after to-morrow we shall know the great secret of reform. Never within my recollection has a political secret been kept so carefully. Up to the time at which I write, nobody out of the Cabinet knows positively whether the Government intend to propose a six-pound rental or rating franchise, to alter or leave unaltered the existing distribution of seats, or to recommend a lodger's franchise. But I am afraid the explanation of this secresy is a very simple one. There is only one infallible recipe for securing the non-discovery of a secret, and that is that the propounder of the problem should not be aware of its solution. Œdipus, after all, would never have guessed the Sphinx's riddle if the Sphinx had had no conception of what the answer was herself. Now this is the explanation of the Ministry having concealed their intentions so effectually. They have not revealed them to the world for the best of all reasons, namely, that they did not know them themselves. Meanwhile the public await the explanation of the ministerial proposal with the most provoking patience. Possibly, when the bill is actually brought out and the discussion has commenced, the country may grow excited about the matter; but for the present everybody seems to have come to the conclusion that either the Government will not propose any material change in our representative system, or that, if they do, it will not be carried into effect; and, somehow or other, this conviction appears to excite no great amount of public excitement. I may be wrong—I hope I am wrong—but in the face of what I see and hear on every side, I find it impossible to believe we are on the eve of a crisis in our political history. However, a few hours will show. On Thursday last there was a very numerous meeting of the Conservatives at the house of Lord Salisbury, at which it was agreed not to oppose the introduction or the first reading of the reform bill. The first fight, therefore, will take place on the second reading; that is, in all likelihood, not till after the Easter holidays, which commence on Friday week.

So far the new Parliament has not given much indication of any great improvement over its predecessor. It is apparently as turbulent and as much influenced by private considerations. The other night we had the greatest House we have seen this session. The subject under discussion was whether a bill permitting the city of London to remove the civic gas-works to a distance should be allowed to pass its second reading. What the real merits of the question were, I suppose not a score of members could have told in order to save their lives. But, on the one hand, the corporation of London was interested in the success of the measure; and, on the other, the London gas companies considered that their monopoly was endangered by its passage. So both bodies had put every influence into play to secure parliamentary support for their views; and the result was the assemblage of a House of unusual size prepared to vote, but not prepared to listen. The speakers on either side of the question could not obtain a hearing, and all discussion was drowned amidst cries of "divide." In the end, as the corporation of the city happens to be a more united and powerful body than the gas companies, the bill was carried. Mr. Roebuck, who has a sort of license for saying what nobody else would be allowed to utter, told the House frankly that the benches on both sides were packed, and was cheered for the declaration. But notwithstanding these cheers, the division list remained unaltered.

Very few, if any, of the new members have as yet produced much impression within the House. Mr. Mill, indeed, is the only one who has taken any active part in the debates, and his success is of a problematical character. His personal appearance is undoubtedly against him; he is not a man of commanding presence, and the House of Commons, like Queen Elizabeth, has a marvellous fondness for "proper men." Then, too, his voice is feeble, and his manner is too much like that of a schoolmaster addressing his pupils. However, he is a constant attendant at the debates, takes a great interest in the discussions, and will make a useful, though, I suspect, not a brilliant, addition to the legislature. Altogether, my own belief is that very little active work is to be expected from the present Parliament. It is nothing more than a reproduction of the old one, and represents the Palmerstonian régime under which it was elected. Its one hopeful characteristic is the increase amongst its component parts of the advanced liberal element. But though, for well-nigh the first time in our parliamentary history, we have a distinct and influential radical party, yet that party is still too small to produce any great effect in the actual work of legislation.

The chief social event of the week, whose attention, though in a feeble and unsatisfactory manner, has been well-nigh monopolized by the impending reform bill, is the death of Dr. Whewell, the Master of Trinity College, Cambridge. Neither science nor philosophy nor literature will sustain any great loss by the death of the great Cambridge celebrity; but yet, in his own way, he was a representative man. In Mr. Bristed's recollections of an English university, he describes, if I remember rightly, his astonishment that the authorities of Trinity College should have thought it worth while to write to the American Minister of the day, in order to inform him that his young countryman had obtained a scholarship at Trinity. Yet to an Englishman of the academic class this circumstance appears perfectly natural. The great universities of Oxford and Cambridge are part and parcel of our national life to an extent it is difficult for a foreigner to appreciate. And thus the Master of Trinity, the greatest of our colleges, is really a personage outside the bounds of the university. Moreover, Whewell was a man who would have made his mark anywhere in the world. Born the son of a blacksmith, and reared, so tradition said, at a north country forge, he early evinced considerable mathematical talent, and was sent up to Cambridge as a sizar—that is, a poor scholar supported by a college allowance. He rose to be first scholar, then fellow, then lecturer, then tutor, and finally Master of the college. A man of indomitable energy and immense power of application, he continued his self-education, unlike the majority of college celebrities, long after the academic stimulus for exertion had ceased to operate, and became in consequence one of the most wide-read of English men of letters. There were very few subjects of science or learning about which he did not know a good deal, more, perhaps, that he really had mastered thoroughly. At any rate, he has left no work which can be considered a standard authority on the subject-matter of which it treats; and scientific men are disposed to pay small heed to his pretensions to be listened to as an expert. But with all that he was by far the best informed and most thoughtful man in the university wherein his life was spent. A conservative in politics, a staunch upholder of commonplace orthodoxy in religious matters, he was still, in intellectual matters, eminently liberal. Indeed, he had such a love of contradiction, that he could hardly be other than liberal in a community whose whole interests are eminently conservative. Throughout the whole of the American war he was a staunch advocate of the North, chiefly, I think, because it was the fashion in the halls and common rooms of Cambridge to profess a sentimental sympathy for the South. I have been told that once, not very long ago, when one of the younger fellows of his college gave utterence in his presence to some views of this kind, the Master interrupted him, saying: "Sir, you are a very young man, and, what is worse, you are a very silly young man." And this sort of Johnsonian brutality of speech was one of his characteristics. He was bitterly unpopular with the members of his own college during the first years of his mastership; but gradually they learned that his bark was worse than his bite. Besides, whatever else his failings were, he was perfectly loyal in his affection for the grand college over which he presided; and all old Trinity men like myself must bear a kindly feeling towards him on this account. He was anxious—so gossip said—to be made a bishop; but no consideration of this kind could influence him in his assertion of what he held to be the rights of his college. Trinity is a royal foundation; the mastership is in the gift of the Crown; and the house where the master resides is, according to the common opinion, a royal possession. Against this view Dr. Whewell set himself most sturdily. He insisted on every possible occasion that the Lodge—as the master's house is called—belonged to the college, not to the Crown. When the Queen paid a visit to Cambridge in company with Prince Albert, some years ago, Whewell is reported to have given great

offence at court by saying that the college was proud to receive her Majesty in *their* lodge, laying an accent upon the *their*. In the same way, he waged perpetual warfare against the judges during the assize week. It has been the custom from time immemorial for the judges, while stopping at Cambridge, to take up their abode at the Lodge. The master had no objection to the time-honored custom; but he insisted that the judges must come as his invited guests, not as the representatives of the Crown; and as they refused to make this concession, he pursued them with an almost sublime tenacity of purpose. When they arrived he would leave the house, lock up the cupboards, remove the servants—do everything to make their sojourn impossible. He was threatened with injunctions in Chancery, with all sorts of mysterious law proceedings; he knew by his course of action he was throwing away all prospect of preferment; but still he persevered. He was Master of Trinity, and he could recognize no higher duty than that he owed to his college. When he wrote his well-known essay to prove that there was no ground for the popular belief in a plurality of worlds, it was said that he wanted to demonstrate mathematically that not only was he the master of the greatest college in the known world, but that there could not possibly be any world within the universe wherein there was a yet greater college than his own. He had an iron constitution, was a hale, vigorous man of seventy, and might probably have remained master for a score of years longer if he had not been thrown from his horse the other day while out riding. He never recovered from the shock, and died after a few days' illness.

In home matters we have had an incident eminently typical of English character. Lord Brownlow is lord of the manor of a common in Hertfordshire, and claims, whether rightly or not, that he has legal power to enclose it. So he surrounded it with handsome iron palings and turned it into an enclosure. The neighborhood was indignant, and their indignation found a champion in the person of Mr. Augustus Smith, who is proprietor of the Scilly Islands and was lately member for Truro. This gentleman engaged the services of three hundred navvies, chartered a special train from Euston Square, took his gang down at midnight without breathing a word to anybody, and set them to pull down all Lord Brownlow's railings, which they did accordingly. If anybody not a land-owner had committed this outrage on law, he would have been in an awkward scrape; as it is, public sympathy with Mr. Smith, as an aristocratic asserter of popular rights, is so strong that no Hertfordshire jury would find him guilty. We are always declaiming against lynch law, but we can overlook it when its action tallies with our popular sentiments.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, March 2, 1866.

WE are getting through Lent very merrily. For some years past the rigors of this period of traditional penitentialities have been progressively softened. With a few more modifications in the same direction, we may possibly find that we have softened them away altogether. Some of the numerous dinners that have "created a sensation" during the past week have undoubtedly ignored the prescriptions of the Roman ritual; others, according to the eulogium passed upon them by a noted gastronomer who piques himself upon the exactness of his deportment in matters ecclesiastical, "have happily conciliated the religious duties of the season with the requirements of the most fastidiously delicate palate." The theatres are crowded, "Héloïse Paranquet," the anonymous drama so confidently attributed to the younger Dumas, being still the grand success of the season. Private theatricals, so immensely in vogue during the two preceding winters, are quite out of favor this year, their place being taken by concerts, usually of amateurs, but occasionally given with the aid of the favorite progressional artistes of the hour. Among the amateur singers most in vogue just now are two American ladies, Mrs. Moulton and Mrs. Ronalds, both of whom, being equally clever as skaters and as singers, are in high favor at the Tuileries. Among the "professionals" Patti, Thérésa, Miolan Carvalho, and the new singer Mlle. Mella, are the leading favorites; the latter possessing a magnificent tenor voice, that ought, according to all precedent, to be found only in conjunction with a masculine chest, offering an enigma that is just now exciting the curiosity of the gay world of Paris to its highest pitch. Is the new tenor really a woman, or is she a man in disguise? Her face, hands, and feet are altogether feminine; but many youths of the other sex present, at the age of the new tenor, an appearance as feminine; and, moreover, the musical puzzle, as though designing to irritate still further the curiosity of an enquiring public, persists in making her appearance only in "high-necked" and long-sleeved dresses, that effectually defy the scrutiny to which she is subjected. Look at her, without hearing her, and you would vow she is a woman; hear her, without seeing her, and you would swear she is a man.

But busy as is the fashionable world with dinners, theatres, and concerts, it is assiduous in its church-going. Father Hyacinth's success as Advent-preacher at Notre Dame is being rivalled pretty closely by that of Father Felix, who is preaching the Lenten sermons in that fine old fane, to which the fashionable world is flocking, in elegant toilettes and with missals bound in the most *recherché* styles. The charming young couple, Prince and Princess Hohenzollern—the latter a sister of the King of Portugal—who have just terminated their long visit at the Tuileries, where they are greatly admired and beloved, have been very constant in their attendance at the chapel of the Tuileries, where the Abbé Duguerry is delivering a course of six sermons on the Lord's Prayer, which appear to be giving great satisfaction to his illustrious auditors. The prince is good-looking, amiable, accomplished, and highly educated; the princess, without being a beauty, has a sweet and pleasing face and a fine figure. She is, like all the children of the regretted Queen Maria de Gloria, full of learning and accomplishments. Her manners, graceful, easy, and dignified, are particularly admired; as a fashionable critic lately remarked of her, "The princess is a most accomplished specimen of a royal lady; her fine and dignified deportment seems to be a part of herself, so that it is always the same, and as thoroughly *comme il faut* at mass as in the ball-room." Who but a Frenchman could ever have reached the heights and depths of such an encomium?

The absorbing interests of the toilette are cared for in conjunction with the sackcloth and ashes of this very easy-going Lent with quite as much devotion as during the carnival. The fashionable dressmakers are at work night and day, and the two or three "tip-top" capillary artists are busy from nine in the morning till eleven at night, charging fabulous prices for the half hour they give to each client, and increasing their charges in proportion to the lateness of the hour, their less wealthy customers being obliged to submit to having their heads beautified in the morning, after which operation they are doomed to sit perfectly still for the rest of the day for fear of deranging the wonderful structure built upon them, and the most favored ones being the last to receive the visits of the autocratic artist, and thus being enabled to pass directly from under his hands to the scene of their triumphs, every hair, flower, or ribbon in perfect order.

A curious reaction has commenced here in the side of Paris life which has been so successfully working itself of late years into recognition by the other. While the ladies of the higher walks of society here have been copying the costumes and manners of the *lionnes* of the *demi-monde*, the latter have come to a sudden determination to adopt the severe proprieties of dress and demeanor which were formerly the characteristic of the sphere from which they were excluded; and thus, while a good deal of free and easy "fastness," in dress and in conversation, scandalized people of "the old school" at the last magnificent balls of the defunct carnival, the concluding entertainments given by the queens of the other world were marked by a sobriety of dress and deportment worthy of the most strait-laced circles of "the aristocratic faubourg!" Will the fine ladies of fashionable life follow the lead of their unrecognized sisters in this new phase of their rivalry?

The present extravagance of dress is so ruinous, so fatiguing, and so wanting in that essential of good taste, propriety, that a return to simpler fashions is much to be desired. The great manufacturers of feminine vanities are partly to blame for the system of cumbersome display now in vogue, for they pay heavy sums to the leading dressmakers in order to secure their influence in keeping it up. But these gentry have just received a check in a quarter from which they little expected such a rebuff; for a deputation of the principal silk-weavers of Lyons having obtained, a few days ago, an audience of the Empress, in order to solicit her patronage for some brocaded silks, imitations of those worn at court in the reigns of Louis XIV. and Louis XV.—wonderfully rich and horribly costly—her Majesty replied, with one of her pleasant smiles, "I am sorry that I cannot accede to your request; but many of the ladies who visit us would find it impossible to provide themselves with dresses so costly. There are many husbands who really could not afford to pay such a price for their wives' dresses—my own among the number." On hearing which expression of opinion the deputation opened its eyes rather widely and withdrew, equally charmed with the Empress's manner and disappointed at her decision.

The French people, with all their sharpness, seem to be fully as *victimizable* as their neighbors, and we have lately seen half-a-dozen marriages contracted, or nearly so, with girls of honorable families by clever swindlers, native and foreign. The first of these was a handsome and fashionable-looking personage, who called himself the Baron de Saucy, and contrived to marry a young lady of good family, on whom he had succeeded in passing himself off as the lineal descendant of an old house that boasts of royal

alliances in past days. The baron, however, had no sooner got possession of his wife's fortune than he began to squander it shamefully; the remonstrances of his bride were met by brutal retorts, and one unlucky day, when the unhappy young baroness ventured on a representation rather stronger than usual, the baron went off into a fury, poured out a torrent of the most vulgar oaths, and, bringing a horsewhip into play upon the shoulders of the baroness, displayed so peculiar a talent in the use of that instrument that the latter immediately perceived that her husband could be no other than a circus-groom, as, indeed, was abundantly proved in the course of the investigations which followed this terrible discovery, when it was ascertained that the fascinating baron was one of the grooms of the circus in the Champs Elysées.

The hero of the second of these adventures called himself Prince Kalimachi, and allowed himself to be supposed to have arrived in Marseilles from Turkey, on a diplomatic mission. Struck with the charms of a young lady of Marseilles, the daughter of a rich merchant, the prince pressed his suit, and was accepted. Preparations for the wedding were made on a magnificent scale, and the town was ransacked to furnish a splendid *corbeille* for the bride. A day or two before the one fixed for the wedding, the lady's brother bethought him of enquiring after his future brother-in-law at the Turkish embassy in Paris, and learned that no Prince Kalimachi was known there. The marriage was postponed, and a few further enquiries led to the discovery that the prince, who had procured "upon tick" all the splendid things he had presented to the bride-elect, was a convict who had escaped from the hulks at Constantinople.

A third of the adroit rogues who have been occupying the attention of the police and the public, is an English pickpocket, named Hulme, who has actually succeeded in passing himself off as Prince Etienne-Louis-Charles de Crony-Chanel, marrying, under this title, borrowed from one of the noblest old houses of France, a young lady of good standing, and finding credulous tradesmen to give him credit for several months. But payment being at last required for the debts thus contracted, the truth was discovered; the sharper is in prison, but the unfortunate girl, according to French law, is none the less his legal wife.

The art-loving public has been much excited by the exhibition of the pictures composing the magnificent gallery of the late Count d'Espagnac, and containing a number of *chef-d'œuvres* of all the great masters, and which are passing, as I write, under the auctioneer's hammer.

Two lady "mediums" are in great vogue just now among the members of the Jockey Club, who are staking large sums on the horses which, according to these ladies, are destined to win. STELLA.

Correspondence.

POLITICAL SITUATION FROM A COMMERCIAL STAND-POINT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

The importance of a fixed commercial policy for a young, enterprising community like ours cannot be overestimated; nor can it be denied that a good condition must be a natural one, as you have stated in your issue of this date. And it is not only true as you claim, "that prosperity which does not extend over long periods of time is not prosperity," but this prosperity, in order to be permanent, must not only result to one nation or community, but to all nations. Or, in other words, there can be no enduring peace and permanent well-being for one nation until the principle of justice is recognized by all.

It is not necessary that one form of government should be universal, or that all should profess the same religious belief. But it is necessary that the same principles of justice which dictate that we should do unto others as we would have that they should do unto us, shall be universally accepted as our rule of action not only in our social and political, but in our commercial relations.

It is in regard to our commercial arrangements that we have something to say, as it is in that field that we are most at home and can speak from experience.

We have first to insist that there can be no good excuse for continuing our suspension of specie payments, by which we render it quite impossible for any person to make reasonable calculations as to future results of commercial engagements.

It is clearly bad enough to take the consequences of the decline in the value or cost of gold, as determined by the labor required for its production. That, however, can be measured approximately, and goes on so slowly and regularly that not much harm will result, especially on short contracts. But the mischief which comes from the absence of a standard which has a recognized and somewhat uniform relation to labor, like other commodities is incalculable, and ought never to have been permitted by our Government. Nor would it have been, but for the mistaken notion, born in the days of Andrew Jackson, that the Government must carry on its business with a currency different from and better than that of the people at large, whose transactions are of infinitely more consequence.

Not being able to see that it was not money in any form (much less specie) which was wanted to carry on our war, but men and their labor, the Secretary of the Treasury insisted upon a measure which not only violated every commercial contract then existing, except in California (where they would not be thus imposed upon), but has made nothing but confusion and perplexity ever since. It has increased our public debt, both general and local, at least fifty per cent., and reduced legitimate trade to mere gambling.

Now, as we have already said, we insist upon a return to the standard of measurement as the very first step to be taken by Congress. Reconstruction, important as it may be, is nothing in comparison with the necessity that a young, growing nation like ours should keep good faith with its creditors now and for ever. Let us show the capitalist that we are really in earnest and intend to pay all our obligations by a standard which he can rely upon, and our bonds will not only go to par but beyond that, and thus practically diminish the amount of our debt, besides supplying us at once with the money which has been invested in the war, so that we can go on with our enterprises which now languish for want of means. Let us do as any prudent individual or corporation would do under similar circumstances and then we shall be able to avail ourselves of the wonderful resources of which few even like Sir Morton Peto can measure the full extent. The question of resumption is not formidable when it is considered that it does not by any means involve the payment of specie. Suppose that Mr. McCulloch has authority to make a long loan to meet all his liabilities, immediate and prospective, for one, two, or three years, payable at the option of the holder, in London or New York, in specie funds from time to time as wanted. We will not determine the rate of interest, whether five or six, though we incline to five. Nor would we dictate as to date of payment of the principal, though we should advise by instalments, so as not to require a sinking fund.

Now, it is plain enough to any business man or banker, we hope, that the payments from the United States Treasury in this case need not be made in *specie*. The business of the world at large, which somewhat exceeds Mr. McCulloch's, is not carried on in that way. He has simply to draw upon his banker for *specie funds*, and he can ask his debtors for duties and taxes to pay him in the same funds, *and this is resumption*. But there are too many persons whose interests are opposed to resumption upon any terms, and that is the reason why Congress cannot move a single step in that direction All who owe debts payable in currency are disinclined to accept the reduction in values which would inevitably follow resumption, for that reduction in many cases would be ruinous. We are, therefore, not to expect their consent, although it might involve not more than even ten per cent., unless we can make them some just equivalent. This can be done only by permitting them to pay their currency obligations in future with specie funds, at a premium precisely as if the payment were made now. Whether at 20, 30, or 40 per cent. is not so important as that some point shall be named, so that all old contracts due in currency shall be recognized as different from new ones in specie funds, and treated accordingly. To this the creditors will object, for they say that the debtors have contracted with their eyes open, and in view of the possibility of resumption, and consequent necessity for payment in specie funds instead of currency.

We reply, that the debtors are too numerous and influential to permit a resumption until their interests are regarded, and, therefore, while the creditors would rejoice to obtain 30 or 40 per cent. more than they could now, they will not be allowed to do it. The premium on gold may be less even than at present, so long as our bonds are in the market and sold abroad so as to supply exchange for sale here. But that cannot go on beyond a certain limit, and when that is reached we shall get the reaction, and gold will rise. Let us resume now, and then we can afford to have the bonds go abroad, as they will bring something like their true value. And we are to consider in this connection the consequences of the rapid and cheapened production of gold by newly discovered processes, which, unless we are greatly mistaken, will enable us to pay our debt when it falls due some years hence much easier than we can now. Whether this would be exactly in accordance with our theory that we should do as we would be done by, is a question we will not discuss, as our creditor has at least the benefit of our opinion that he will not be advantaged by the change which we predict, and can exercise his own judgment in the case.

But we should at least avoid the violation of contracts on the part of a great, wealthy nation like our own, and therefore we insist as at first upon resumption and the fulfilment of all our obligations in good faith. W.

Boston, March 15, 1866.

WEST POINTERS AND VOLUNTEERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

In The Nation for February 22d and March 8th have appeared two communications from a correspondent, under the signature of "West Pointer," in regard to the abuses and defects existing in the United States Military Academy. While the general fairness and truth of the articles cannot be successfully disputed, there is one position taken, essentially erroneous, but too widespread and too important to pass longer unquestioned. It occurs in reply to the charge that the exclusive spirit nurtured by West Point has gained control of the national military establishment.

The position is this. It was due to their own merit alone, and not at all to the force of circumstances, that all the higher offices of the army fell to the graduates of the Military Academy. Against them existed a bitter prejudice at the opening of the war. It was hoped and expected that the coming general, the great "military messiah," would spring from civil life, and in that hope and expectation commander after commander was tried. But such a one failing to show himself, the Government and nation were compelled to fall back upon the graduates of the Military Academy. West Point was a *pis aller*, reluctantly resorted to, and resorted to only because all other agencies failed.

This is honestly believed and frequently said by many intelligent men who have seen the list of generals appointed during the first year of the war and know the commands to which they were assigned. Yet the hastiest examination of such a list would show that the position is not only absolutely false in point of fact, but wants even that decent probability required in works of fiction.

True, in the minds of some influential political leaders there was an intense dislike of West Point; but it was never general enough or powerful enough to prevent the confirmation of a single appointment. And even this feeling was directly due to the words and acts of the graduates of the Military Academy themselves. They failed to comprehend the political situation. The mighty changes which had been going on in the nation had, from its isolation, been almost unfelt by the army. Almost everywhere in it were still current the same ideas about the sacredness of slavery, the same cant about the evils of agitation, the same classification of secessionists and anti-slavery men as alike disunionists. Unconscious of the terrific sweep of the humanitarian questions of the times, they thought to stop their progress. But a movement which had annihilated parties, and had beaten down the prejudices and passions of seventy years, was not likely to be held back long by a few officers of the army. The majority of these soon lent a willing support to the new order of things; those who stood out obstinately were displaced. But the contest, though short, was long enough to embitter against the Military Academy many of that class from which naturally would have come its strongest supporters. Men who had fought for years the cause of a despised race against social persecution and political proscription, who thought finally to realize what they had so long hoped for, prayed for, struggled for, who saw at last with eyes of sight the gates of that Celestial City which they had so long seen with eyes of faith, could hardly be expected to feel amiably disposed toward this new and unlooked-for Apollyon they found in their path. They could hardly be expected to rejoice when, in the East, the Hutchinsons were turned out of the camps for singing anti-slavery songs, and in the West Halleck issued General Order No. 3. It was not strange, though of course to be regretted, that they should speak of "damned West Pointers." Something must be pardoned to human nature.

Yet, in spite of this feeling, with the exception of a few men who gained positions through political influence, the highest offices of the army were originally filled by graduates of the Military Academy. Volunteer regiments clamored for commanders from West Point; volunteer officers preferred to be under them. It was a natural and a just feeling. As an educated military class, they knew the theory of war, if not its practice, and of both theory and practice the rest of the country was totally ignorant. But two or three years of war was sufficient to change all this. The school of active service gave to many of the volunteers a military education with which no professional school could compete. From raw beginners they became masters, comparatively speaking, of the particular branch to which they belonged. It was not pleasant for such men to have their claims ignored, as they often were ignored, in favor of others whose chief recommendation was graduation at West Point. No person who had opportunities for observation can deny that there was a systematic promotion without regard to ability or previous service of the regular officers over the volunteers whenever the two came into competition. It was perhaps honestly done in most cases. Those who recommended the promotion were, doubtless, often unconscious of being influenced by any prejudice; for where men are indisposed to recognize merit outside of certain boundaries it is hard for them to find it. Many of the regular officers did not believe that a general from civil life could be a capable one; some of them were determined that he should not be a successful one. As the educated military class they had, moreover, the ear of the nation, and filled it with their own unfaith. They thus placed a barrier of public opinion and professional prejudice around the higher offices of the army which a volunteer could rarely break through. True it is the great "military messiah" came not from civil life, nor, indeed, from military; hardly even his forerunner. But it is not impertinent to ask, Would he, unlike his divine prototype, have been suffered to be the messiah of the nation he came to save? Would not our modern military Pharisees have doubted him, would they not have rejected him, would they not have crucified him also? Would they have believed that any good could come out of their Nazareth?

"I had supposed, gentlemen," said a major-general of the Army of the James, addressing a group of volunteer officers, and intending to be complimentary,—"I had supposed that no man was fit to be an officer who had not been educated at West Point; but you have gone far to convince me of the contrary." This was a general feeling among the graduates of the Military Academy, though few were silly enough to state it so openly. And the influence of this feeling spread throughout the country so as to cause a systematic injustice in the treatment of volunteer officers, directly by the War Department and indirectly by the people. They were condemned not on the ground that they had proved themselves incompetent, nor that, being civilians, they must be incompetent. The few men who obtained commands in the early part of the war through political influence were in no fair sense representatives of the volunteer service; but they had constantly to encounter much of that spirit which did not wish them to succeed, which refused to co-operate zealously if it abstained from secret endeavors to defeat. This hidden hostility, which would have tried, if it would not have thwarted, the genius of Cæsar or Napoleon, naturally helped materially to break down men who were a long way from being Cæsars or Napoleons. Their failure, if it did not condemn entirely those who afterwards fought their way to positions, was the pretext for excluding them from the highest.

There was no such feeling in regard to the graduates of the Military Academy. If one proved incompetent, his place was immediately taken by another. The nation judged fairly on such matters, and ascribed the failure to the man, not to his education. No one laid the blame upon West Point because Halleck not only besieged Corinth in the most scientific manner after Beauregard had abandoned it, but also violated the plainest elements of military science in making that place, comparatively unimportant, the objective point of a campaign. When Weitzel, a West Pointer, said that Fort Fisher could not be taken, and Terry, a volunteer, went and took it, nobody asserted that the failure of the former was due to his military education, or the success of the latter to his lack of it. But had the position been reversed, how should we have been deluged by the inevitable twaddle about war being a science which must be learned like any other science! For men talked and wrote as if it were not in the power of the Almighty to create a general outside of the graduates of West Point. And while the slightest errors of judgment, the pettiest reverses in petty skirmishes, were treasured up against volunteer commanders, whole army corps were led to useless slaughter, without remonstrance and without reproof, by regular officers, whose brains, to use Randolph's comparison, were like the land about the headwaters of the Monongahela—poor by nature, and rendered still poorer by cultivation.

Among the volunteer officers there was not and is not any jealousy of the Military Academy. None care to deny its merits, or failed to regret in their own case the loss of the advantage furnished by its course of instruction. To its representatives will naturally, in any future war, the highest places be at first accorded. But education, though it can develop ability, can never supply the place of it; it may make a soldier, but it cannot make a general. The graduate of a military school has no right to boast or to claim promotion on that ground over the graduate of twenty battles. When the thunderous flails of war thresh out the pure grains of soldiership from the chaff, let us welcome the result fully and fairly; let the highest places of the army be open, without prejudice and without favor, to every man whom the verdict of the battle-field shows has ability to fill them, whether he be West Pointer or civilian, regular or

Volunteer.

THE DEAN'S ENGLISH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

I cannot think that the critic who, in your last number, reviewed Dean Alford's book on the English language can have read very carefully the work he was reviewing; and I am sure he cannot have seen the very racy critique of it entitled "The Dean's English," written by Mr. G. W. Moon, or he would not have spoken of it "in terms of the highest praise." The book is written, as Mr. Moon has shown, in a very careless and slipshod style, and is an excellent specimen, so far as the Dean's own writing is concerned, of how *not* to write the Queen's English. It is true that, in consequence of Mr. Moon's vigorous attack, the author, in his new edition, has either altered or suppressed no less than twenty-eight passages; but even this revision leaves his book very far from being a model of a good English style. In one of the Dean's sentences, as it originally stood, the pronoun *it* is separated from the noun to which it refers by no less than six-and-twenty other nouns. In another there is such a confusion between *these, they, their*, and *them* that his pitiless critic calculates, by the law of permutations, that the sentence can be read in 10,240 ways. Then the Dean is continually constructing sentences after the following fashion: "I remember when the French band of the Guides was in this country, reading in the *Illustrated News*"—as though the perusal of that entertaining paper had been the occupation of the band while in England. In short, Mr. Moon, who is himself the master of a very correct and idiomatic style, shows conclusively that instead of undertaking to mend his neighbors' English, it behooves our church dignitary first to go to school to learn to mend his own.

I am far from saying that the Dean's book is entirely destitute of good things, though—not to speak of the folly and bad taste of the allusion to America on which your reviewer so justly comments—some of his philological criticisms are very silly. If the book could only be circulated with the accompaniment of his unsparing critic's commentary, it would make a very excellent study; but I am sorry to see it endorsed by a good authority, and the more so as, in consequence, probably, of a declining sale in England, copies have lately been imported into this country in considerable numbers.

A.

Cambridge.

[We spoke of the book as "simply an attempt to correct the vulgarisms, provincialisms, solecisms, and inaccuracies of all sorts current in the speech of everyday life." It is as such that we pronounced it praiseworthy. To its style we made only one allusion, the irony of which we had hoped was perceptible. As a guide in English composition, we did not think it worth notice, and we accordingly confined ourselves to illustrating the condition of the Dean's mind by the aid of his mention of the connection between our morals and our language. It is always tolerably easy to do with a first effort of this kind what Mr. Moon has done with the "Dean's English." A good deal of fun might be made out of one other work on the English language, the value and ability and learning of which nobody will dispute, but which we will not name, by subjecting it to the Moon process. We certainly should not pity the Dean, however, if he had been even more severely handled than he has been; but we think he has done good service by throwing into a popular shape a great number of very valuable hints on slovenly speaking and writing. We trust better qualified men will follow up the work. We need some such book as he has written even more here than in England, as, for the reason, among others, assigned in our review, less attention is paid among us to correctness in speaking, even by educated people. We may add that we know of no one better qualified for the production of such a book than our correspondent "A." himself.—Ed. Nation.]

THE APOLOGY FOR LEONTES.

To the Editor of The Nation:

When a certain Templar saw a new play, entitled "Twelfth Night," he observed in his diary that the jest was a very good one about the steward *Malvolio* making love to his lady-*widow*. Collier in later times, sagaciously explained this, on the supposition that *Olivia's* mourning-dress for her brother had been mistaken for a widow's weeds. This wonderful guess was rejected by White, who suggested that the play, as we have it, might be a recast, and that originally both *Malvolio* and *Sir Andrew* might have hoped for success with a young widow with much less impeachment of their discretion. But neither commentator observed the one word which Shakespeare forgot to alter, and which clearly proves the case—namely, *Olivia's* remark that she would not have *Malvolio* miscarry for half her *dowry*. Shakespeare never mistakes in his real-estate law, and this circumstance of her having been *really* a young widow, possessing a great life estate, but a life estate only, makes the truth of *Maria's* assertion that she had a liking for *Malvolio* very probable. For her steward was evidently a gentleman of reputation and good breeding, and very probably to marry him was the wisest thing she could do, in case she doubted the permanency of the duke's affection Why Shakespeare made the alteration is very plain. For if she were represented as "expers tori," then her passion for the young and beautiful page would have a tint of degradation; but as it is, this frank and wilful first love of hers, as free from baseness as from consideration, is as innocent as a child's eagerness for a new doll, and we are simply glad of *Sebastian's* good luck.

Now, the bearing of this circumstance on the "Winter's Tale" is, that it proves Shakespeare to have occasionally altered his dramas, not merely in subordinate circumstances of plot or language, but in absolutely fundamental matters, and that, accordingly, we must sometimes look for the explanation of things in mere hints and allusions. Moreover, when a play was popular, he may have thought fit, in the player's interest, to add jest or pathos, and to make room therefor by striking out narration of important circumstances, confident that the audience, already familiar with the play, would recollect the facts, although untold; or may have left them for the prologue to state.

Coleridge very truly observes, that while *Othello* is not of a jealous disposition, on the other hand *Leontes* is—a propensity toward vindictive jealousy of those who should be most dear to him is the vice of his nature. But we all have weak points; the peculiarity is, that, except for a minute, neither does his reason nor conscience seem to make any resistance. For no reason appearing, except a few most petty familiarities of gesture in public, he sets about assassinating his dearest friend, and murdering his wife and child, and is unmoved by either reason or entreaty. Doubless he repents when he discovers himself in the wrong, and after many years his wife forgives him. But the point is, that as matters stand, he is not forgivable; he should either have been hung or put in a lunatic asylum. Under these circumstances, for either *Hermione* or *Polixenes* to have loved or trusted him again, he must have had some apology which does not appear on the surface of the story.

The belief in dreams has not altogether perished even yet, and in Shakespeare's times was of more force than now. Antiquarians may enlarge on the prevalence of the trust therein; but it is to us unnecessary, for Shakespeare has pictured so wise and grave a counsellor as *Antigonus* deliberately making up his mind that *Hermione* is guilty, simply on the evidence of a singular dream that happens to himself. But as the fact of *Leontes* having dreamed of his wife's unfaithfulness would simply depend on his own evidence, he, of course, could not mention it publicly, neither could *Hermione* dare to admit the fact, so that in such case all we could expect would be oblique allusion.

> "My life stands in the level of [is aimed at by] your dreams."
>
> "Your actions are my dreams:
> You *had* a bastard by Polixenes,
> And I but *dreamed* it;"

while the matter would naturally be utterly unknown at the time to *Polixenes* as well as to *Camillo*.

If we then accept as the clue of the difficulty the supposition that, long before, *Leontes* had dreamed that his wife was unfaithful with *Polixenes*, had for the jest's sake told her of it, and then had straightway forgotten the circumstance till recalled to his remembrance at an unfortunate time, we may find both an explanation and an excuse therein. For he by no means submits to his own vice of nature at first, but makes desperate struggle until the forgotten circumstance is recalled:

> "Affection! thine intention stabs the centre:
> [That is, emotion, thy aim exactly hits the mark]
> Thou dost make possible *things not so held*,
> Communicat'st with *dreams*;—how can this be?—
> With what 's *unreal* thou co-active art,
> And fellow'st *nothing*. Then, 't is very credent
> Thou may'st co-join with something; and thou dost,
> And that beyond commission [after the deed], and I find it."

If we suppose these words to refer to a dream, they are most intelligible; otherwise they are simply meaningless; and *Leontes* is a man of too clear and vivid intellect to use incoherent and meaningless language, even in that instant. Besides, after this utterance, there is in him no further doubt. So cool and considerate is he that, on *Camillo's* suggestion, he resolves to pretend ignorance for the sake of his son; but his belief not even the oracle shakes, and nothing checks him except his son's death. Even this circumstance would seem to be connected with some untold matter, unless indeed

we suppose him cool and clear-minded enough to connect it with the threat that he should live without an heir.

It may be remarked, on the other side, that he would have mentioned the circumstance of the dream to *Camillo*. To which it may be replied that obviously *Leontes* would not expect that circumstance alone to be admitted for sufficient proof, because he had not admitted it for such himself. When he was wavering between reason and affection on the one hand, and the vice of his nature on the other, the recollection had decided him; but he could not expect that it would decide another.

It is to be observed that in this play there are other marks of alteration. Thus *Paulina* avers her husband to be lost, when she had no apparent reason as yet for so supposing. I have often suspected that it was at first intended that the third scene in the third act should precede the second; in which case the audience at least would know *Antigonus's* fate, although *Paulina* did not. So *Autolycus* has all the marks of an afterthought. He contributes nothing to the action, for any bumpkin's clothes would do as well as his; and it was an obvious matter for *Florizel* (and *Camillo*) to save his mistress's father and brother from *Polixenes's* vengeance; so that he is merely a delightful accident. Indeed, it would seem as if two plays were originally intended; and they were afterward condensed into one, somewhat incoherently.

Waiving, however, these questions, the supposition is proposed, that originally Shakespeare had, perhaps in a dialogue of some length, expounded the circumstance of *Leontes's* dream; that afterward the play grew under his hand; and that, in order to have room to develop the delightful pastoral of the latter scenes, he afterward struck out the statement—perhaps relating it by the prologue, perhaps trusting to its being sufficiently intimated by the tone and bearing of the actors in delivering the quoted passages; perhaps (if the play had been performed in its first shape) considering that the audience would know the fact, although untold. S. T.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have in preparation two books which, if well done, will be valuable contributions to the ever-increasing library of Shakespeariana—"The Authorship of Shakespeare," by Nathaniel Holmes, one of the judges of the Supreme Court of Missouri, and "Shakespeare's Delineation of Insanity, Imbecility, and Suicide," by Dr. O. A. Kellogg, assistant physician of the Utica Insane Asylum. The writer of the first adopts what may be called the Baconian theory of the Shakespeare problem—a theory which derives its name not so much from the great lord chancellor of venal memory, which not even Mr. Hepworth Dixon can wash white, as from the poor lady in whose overwrought brain it was engendered, and who found a kind friend and a tender biographer in the late Nathaniel Hawthorne. Judge Holmes is a believer in Miss Delia Bacon, who was a believer in Lord Bacon, to the extent that it was *he* and not William Shakespeare who wrote Shakespeare's plays. The notion has not even the merit of ingenuity, since it cannot be maintained but by violating all the laws which have hitherto obtained in regard to the value of contemporary testimony. If Shakespeare was the dunce that such a notion would make him, or worse, such a convenient but dishonest man of straw, could it have escaped the penetration of Ben Jonson, who knew him well, and who had a habit of speaking his mind rather freely? Jonson's magnificent poem to his memory, in the first folio, ought to settle the question as to Shakespeare's ability to write the plays which bear his name, and does settle it, we venture to think, with all thoughtful readers of the great poet. Believing, as we do, that the Baconian theory has not a leg to stand upon, we are curious to see what arguments will be used towards its support in Judge Holmes's volume. Dr. Kellogg has a different object in view, as his title indicates, and one with which we can sympathize, since it can hardly fail to add to our knowledge of Shakespeare's knowledge. As Lord Campbell almost proved him a lawyer, on account of his familiarity with legal phrases and usages, Dr. Kellogg will, we suppose, almost prove him a physician, on account of his familiarity with the pathology of disease in general and insanity in particular.

—Dr. T. W. Parsons, of Boston, a Dante scholar of years' standing, has lately finished a translation of the "Inferno." Twenty years ago he published a version of the first seventeen cantos, to which he prefixed an ode, "To a Bust of Dante;" but the volume which contains it has long been out of print. He reprinted a limited edition of it last spring in time for the Dante festival at Florence, where a copy of it figured among the few English renderings there present. Dr. Parsons's version of the "Inferno" may be looked for some time during the present year.

—A small collection of not very rare autographs was sold last week by Messrs. Bangs, Merwin & Co., at the close of a three days' sale of miscellaneous books. Among them was a six-page manuscript of Garrick, the original draft of a letter to James Lacy, manager of Drury Lane Theatre, which realized $4 50, and a two-page letter by the same writer, which brought $6 50; a signature of Washington to a note dated "Headquarters, Middlebrook, Feb. 12th, 1779," went for $11; a signature of John Hancock, $5 50; a letter of General Gates, $3; an original sermon of Cotton Mather, $2 50; two autograph songs of L. E. L., $2 50 each; and a mysterious manuscript of Shelley, $10. The latter, apparently a letter of political abuse, bore the signature of "Philobanleus." Altogether, the prices were lower than the English market rates for such literary curiosities.

—A lot of theatrical portraits will be sold by Messrs. Leavitt, Strebeigh & Co. on the evening of March 30th—a recent importation from the stock of the late Mr. Evans, of London, a well-known print-seller; they are in fine condition, and will undoubtedly bring good prices, portraits of all kinds growing scarcer and dearer here every year. Few actors or actresses of note, from the days of Garrick downward, are omitted from the collection, which contains, among other desirable lots, an original drawing of John Kemble by H. W. Pickersgill, R.A.

—Mr. J. W. Bouton, of this city, has lately received from London a special importation of Gilchrist's "Life of William Blake," copies of which he offers at a moderate price. Glancing over the illustrations of this curious book, which are drawn in fac-simile, by W. J. Linton, from Blake's works, with a number printed from Blake's own plates, one is not at a loss to know why his contemporaries christened him "The Mad Painter," nor why he lived and died in poverty and neglect. He had the elements of a great artist in him, but his art was incomplete and partly irrational. He was at war with all the art of his time—with the polish and high breeding of Reynolds, which was effeminacy in his eyes; with the melodramatic power of Fuseli; even with the simplicity and sweetness of Stothard, who was his friend when they were both young, and for whom after they had parted company he still had a remnant of his old liking. The cause of the estrangement between Blake and Stothard was Chaucer's "Canterbury Pilgrims," which had suggested itself, or was suggested, as the subject of a design to each about the same time, and which both drew, each in his own fashion. Stothard's composition is well known, but Blake's, a reduced outline of which faces the title-page of Mr. Gilchrist's second volume, is very scarce, partly because it was published by Blake himself fifty-six years ago—or attempted to be published, for it never sold—and partly because there was no earthly chance of its holding its own against its more beautiful and very popular rival. It is an odd, not to say a mad, performance, with its long procession of figures setting forth on their pilgrimage from the gateway of the Tabard Inn, into a grim, hilly country, under a dreary, barren sky, into which rises the smoke of thatched cottages, and wherein dark birds are hovering; yet it impresses the imagination strangely, revealing an older world than we live in now, and suggesting "a day that is dead." Many of the portraits, as the Miller's, the Ploughman's, the Shipman's, and especially the Host's and the Wife of Bath's, are admirable interpretations of the text of the poet. Strange, however, as this rare print is, it is conventional compared to the majority of Blake's designs, notably so beside his illustrations of the "Songs of Innocence" and "Songs of Experience," the fruits of his thirty-second and thirty-seventh years, and his illustrations to "The Book of Job," published by him in his seventy-eighth year. The former, though odd in the extreme, possess an undefinable simplicity and tenderness, a feeling of flowers and vines and young children; the latter are full of power and terror. The most memorable of the series are perhaps the dreams and visions which affright Job in his sleep, and the figure of the Behemoth standing in massive greatness on the shore of the primitive world. Never was artist more informed with the ancient Hebraic element than Blake, concerning whose designs Flaxman and Fuseli declared that the time would come when they would be as much sought after and treasured up as those of Michael Angelo, and whose poetry, when intelligible, is almost unique in its simple beauty. "There is something in the madness of this man, Wordsworth said, on one occasion, "which interests me more than the sanity of Lord Byron and Walter Scott." Will not some of our publishers give us, if not a reprint of Blake's works, which, perhaps, is not practicable, least the best of his poems and the substance of Mr. Gilchrist's interesting but rather ill-written biography?

Besides this work, Mr. Bouton has a number of copies of "The History

of Block-Printing and the Early History of Engraving before Dürer," an important bibliographical work, recently published in England by Mr. T. O. Weigel, of Leipzig. It is in two folio volumes, which are illustrated with one hundred and forty-five fac-similes of block-prints and engravings, and various wood-cuts in the text. The edition, which consisted of only three hundred and twenty-five copies, is nearly exhausted.

—Mr. H. G. Bohn has just published "Seymour's Humorous Sketches." Who Seymour was, no reader of the late editions of "The Pickwick Papers" need be told, seeing that Mr. Dickens has given a history of that work and its artist in his preface. For the benefit, however, of any unenlightened person who has not read the latter, we will state that Seymour was the artist who illustrated the beginning of "The Pickwick Papers," which were commenced for the sake of engaging his talents on a serial, and for whose benefit Mr. Dickens created the character of *Winkle*, whose forte is sporting in a mild way, Seymour having a fancy for sporting scenes. The first number was launched, and it made a hit, as everybody knows, but before the second could be finished, Seymour died, by his own hand, leaving Mr. Dickens free to change his plan at will, and bringing forward another artist, Hablot K. Browne (*Phiz*), who has since illustrated most of Mr. Dickens's stories. So much for Seymour's connection with the author of "Pickwick." Of his previous career we know little, except that he was already a popular artist of the caricature school—one who seemed to have a mission to draw comic pictures, or what passed for such, and who was lucky enough to find a publisher who could make it pay both. That Seymour was popular may be gathered from the fact that his sketches, which, we believe, were published singly, were numerous enough to fill five volumes. They would not be considered remarkable now, after Leech and Doyle, and it is not easy to see why they were thirty years ago, for they deal with the most ephemeral oddities, and only in the most obvious manner. The persons whom Seymour held up to caricature were mostly Londoners in search of enjoyment in the country, *soi-disant* sportsmen who knew not how to use a gun, as their dogs often discovered to their cost, and would-be anglers, with lines and rods which they used fruitlessly, sitting all day without a nibble, "under the shade of melancholy boughs," or, worse still, in rickety boats under a drenching rain. We have looked through the whole five volumes, and found but little to smile at, although we have met our old friend Jem Baggs, of "The Wandering Minstrel," and heard again his refusal to move on under sixpence, because he knows "the wally of peace and quietness." The title-page of the second volume—the outside of a booth, at the curtain of which sits an old woman drinking tea—is worthy of remembrance, since it probably gave Mr. Dickens the idea of Mrs. Jarley and her wax figures. A selection from these "Sketches," which were originally drawn on stone, was etched in steel after Seymour's death, and published by Heath. It is from these plates, we presume, that Mr. Bohn has printed his edition, which contains eighty-six etchings, with descriptive letter-press by *Alfred Crowquill*, and a biographical notice of Seymour.

—The lack of full and accurate catalogues of the great libraries of England, particularly of their MSS., has long been a cause of complaint among scholars and those interested in special fields of investigation. The British Museum is sadly deficient in this respect, and likely to remain so for many a year to come. The libraries of the different colleges and societies have fared better, not being so large, yet every now and then somebody mouses out something in them which was not known to be there till then, or, known once, has since been forgotten. The same may be said of the libraries of private collectors, who, as a class, are not given to undue familiarities with their treasures. A case in point occurred a few years since in the library of Mr. John Tollemache, M P. for Cheshire, at one of his seats, Helmingham Hall, Suffolk, where the Rev. Mr. Groome, of Monk Soham, discovered among his MSS. an early English romance of about 1430-50, entitled "Sir Generides," of which not so much as the name had come down to us of the present day. This romance, which is in rhyming couplets, was edited last year by Mr. F. J. Furnival for Mr. Henry Hucks, as the latter's contribution to the Roxburghe Club, though it has not yet been issued, possibly because a dinner (an institution in which all true Englishmen are supposed to delight under all circumstances) is the necessary forerunner of a Roxburghe volume. Not long since, Mr. Henry Bradshaw, of King's College, Cambridge, discovered two torn leaves of an old black-letter copy of the same romance, although in a different measure, namely, the seven-line ballad stanza of Chaucer's time and later, in an old folio in Trinity Library. And about the last of February, Mr. W. Aldis Wright, librarian of Trinity, and an accomplished scholar, found among the papers of Sir John Fenn, the editor of the "Paston Letters," another leaf of the old black-letter romance, a treasure trove which he followed up until he found the whole poem, in a volume of Lydgate's poetry, in the library under his charge. It was bound with Lydgate's "Troy Book," as was also the MS. copy belonging to Mr. Tollemache, a circumstance which has led to the supposition that Lydgate himself was the writer of the romance, which can hardly have been the case, we think—at any rate not of both versions. As Mr. Wright, however, will undoubtedly publish "Sir Generides," we shall be able to express ourselves fully on this point, and possibly at no distant date.

—The Early English Text Society, which so far has done a good and much-needed work by its reprints of rare and curious tracts and manuscripts, has just proposed a series of republications of early dictionaries, as Levins, Huloet, the "Catholicon," Withals, Baret, and Horman. It has also given evidence of a business talent, not usually possessed by clubs of the kind, by inviting similar and kindred societies to take part therein, so that its issues may have a wider circulation than they would otherwise obtain; and the Philological and Camden Societies have joined forces with it, the former for the whole series, and the latter for the first book, Levins, which is to be printed from Lord Manson's copy, A.D. 1483, the MS. of which Mr. Way speaks so highly in the preface to his edition of the "Promptorium," and which, he thinks, may be the author's holograph. The series is to be edited by Mr. Henry B. Wheatley, the author of a curious volume "On Anagrams," and editor of "Hume's Orthographicæ," "Merlin," etc. It will probably be printed at the Clarendon Press.

—Messrs. Trübner & Co. have lately published the first part of a translation of the "Elder" or "Poetic Edda," commonly known as the "Edda of Sœmund the Learned." This, we believe, is the first attempt at a complete translation of these old Norse lays into English. The earliest poetic versions which we recall were made by Thomas Gray, whose spirited "Descent of Odin" will at once recur to his readers. Joseph Cottle, the friend and publisher of Southey and Coleridge, tried his hand at a number of them, but with indifferent success, the best things in his volume being its prose notes. He labored, indeed, under serious disadvantages as a translator, as a later rival pointed out, the work he undertook to translate existing only in Icelandic, of which he knew nothing, and in Latin, of which he knew very little. The Hon. William Herbert, dean of Manchester, the father, we believe, of the late William Henry Herbert ("Frank Forrester"), succeeded better, hitting as he did upon the happy expedient of turning his versions into ballads, one of which, "Thor's Recovery of his War-Hammer," is noticeably well done. This vigorous lay has been more closely rendered in *Once a Week* by Mr. G. W. Dasent, an old worker in this grim and wintry domain of letters. These, so far as we know, are the chief poetic versions, though others may exist in scattered volumes of verse. The best prose translations are in Pigott's "Manual of Scandinavian Mythology." The present version, which is published anonymously, is said to be close and readable, though rather bald and unpoetical.

—Dr. Charles Mackay has lately compiled a work, which is shortly to be published, on "The Lost and Perishing Beauties of the English Language." The ground which it occupies, if thoroughly explored, cannot fail to yield a rich return in the way of obsolete words and phrases, racy and idiomatic turns of expression, which, after performing yeoman's service, have been driven from the speech and the writing of to-day, some being confined to the back slums of ignorance and vice, "the huts where poor men lie," while others have been transported to the colonies, where they linger out the remnants of their once hardy life. Scores of such words, brought over by our ancestors, are still in use here, where we are loth to let them perish, smacking as they do of the age of Shakespeare and King James's Bible. The abundance of the material in old writers is beyond the gleaning of any one man, however well read and painstaking he may be. For this reason, if for no other, Dr. Mackay's book can hardly be more than partially successful.

VICTOR HUGO'S LAST POEMS.*

Some great poets lead quiet and uneventful lives; others are "dowered with the hate of hate, the scorn of scorn"—let us trust with "the love of love" also. Of this latter class is Victor Hugo. The conspirator of December has exiled him from his country and city; and a true Parisian exiled from Paris must feel very like a Peri pitched out of Paradise. The English, while granting him a political refuge, have been the most unsparing and condemnatory of critics. For years and years he was their type of the grotesque and abnormal and vicious, a sort of Walt Whitman, nay, a Walt Whitman as seen through Mr. Harlan's spectacles. People of Mrs. Trollope's calibre, concentrated essences of Philisterism, were especially down upon him. Does

* "Les Chansons des Rues et des Bois." Paris. 1866.

any one recollect that person's "Paris and the Parisians" and her crushing ridicule of "Le Roi s'amuse?" Somehow or other that drama managed to hold its own notwithstanding, and there came a time when its poetry was wedded to music worthy of it, and all the world confessed that the last scene of "Rigoletto" displayed one of the grandest situations in the whole tragic repertory.

No doubt if we take up Victor Hugo in a narrow and one-sided spirit of criticism, that criticism which only looks out for faults and aberrations, no living author, not the poet Tupper himself, presents fairer game. Such another mixture of strength and weakness as "Les Misérables," for instance, cannot be found in the whole range of romance, and by studiously picking out the worst parts of it we might easily prove the author a fit inmate of a lunatic asylum. The volume before us is not free from the hugest absurdities. Thus (p. 311), the bard is constructing for himself a natural church in the woods, somewhat after the fashion of Miss Barrett's "Lost Bower." He finds a wood-louse sleeping under a stone, and compares it to—what does the reader suppose?—the apostle in the Spirit on the Lord's Day! No, we are not joking; here it is in black and white:

"Seul, sous une pierre, un cloporte
Songeait, comme Jean à Pathmos."

This is such stuff as one might expect G. F. Train to write for a Fenian holiday.

In short, Hugo reminds us of Michel Angelo (whose name, if anybody prefers to write in one word, as seems to be the last fashion, we have no objection); or, to take a nearer comparison, of the painter Delacroix—often grand and beautiful, at times running into unconscious caricature and self-burlesque. But we must take the bad with the good, remembering that his faults no less than his merits fitted him for his great work as leader of romanticism and iconoclast of the wretched pseudo-classic school. If Hugo had not conceived such grotesque horrors as "John of Iceland," if he had not made Doña Sol call Hernani "my lion" instead of "my lord," as an ordinary dramatist would have made her, he could not have been the man to upset and tear to pieces the fusty periwigisms which choked French literature.

The prologue to his new "Chansons" may, perhaps, offend a very fastidious taste. It is entitled "Le Cheval." The "horse" is Pegasus, "le grand cheval de gloire," who carries Death athwart the Apocalypse, and eclipses with his wing the moon before Tenedos. Ezekiel and Job have been his mates, as well as Homer and Æschylus. The first of his inspired grooms was Orpheus; the last André Chénier (why *he*, unless to rhyme with *palfrenier?*) Some have been able to mount him; some he has kicked off; Hugo can but hold him by the halter, and, as he struggles with the mighty courser,

"Que fais tu là? me dit Virgile.
Et je répondis, tout couvert
De l'écume du monstre agile:
Maître, je mets Pégase au vert."

He is taking Pegasus to grass. Yes, indeed, and such grass! We have it in the first book ("Jeunesse"), and our first wonder is that any human being of Hugo's age and after Hugo's trials can be so young in soul as he is. The whole three hundred pages are a frolic of youth and love and rural scenery. A babble o' green fields, an' you will; but what a babble! More distinct and eloquent than many a delicately finished piece of oratory. Just look at this tableau of two lovers among the stones of an old abbey:

"Seuls tous deux, ravis, chantants!
Comme on s'aime!
Comme on cueille le printemps
Que Dieu sème!

"Quels rires étincelants
Dans ces ombres
Pleines jadis de fronts blancs,
De cœurs sombres.

On est tout frais mariés,
On s'envoie
Les charmants cris variés
De la joie.

"Purs ébats mêlés au vent
Qui frisonne!
Gaîtés que le noir couvent
Assaisonne!

"On effeuille des jasmins
Sur la pierre
Où l'abbesse joint ses mains
En prière.

"Les tombeaux, de croix marqués,
Tout partie
De ces jeux, un peu piqués
Par l'ortie.

"On se cherche, on se poursuit
On sent croître
Ton aube, amour, dans la nuit
Du vieux cloître.

"*On s'en va en becquetant,*
On s'adore,
On s'embrasse à chaque instant
Puis encore.

"Sous les piliers, les arceaux,
Et les marbres.
C'est l'histoire des oiseaux
Dans les arbres."

Catullus could n't beat that penultimate stanza if he were alive again. Could that be translated literally into English verse? a friend asked us. We will try; there is nothing like trying.

"Two alone with songs of joy,
Adoration!
How they well the spring employ,
God's creation!

"Sparkling laughter, what a burst
In shades roomy,
Filled with pallid faces erst,
With hearts gloomy!

"They are married but to-day,
Interchanging
Joy's delicious converse, gay,
Ever ranging.

"Sports amid the ruffling air,
That rude player!
Gaieties which this dark lair
Makes the gayer.

"Jasmines to the winds are thrown,
O'er tombs playing
Where the abbess carved in stone
Joins hands praying.

"And the cross-marked sepulchres
Their merry-making
(Scratched a bit by thistle-burrs)
Are partaking.

"Hiding, seeking, chase, and flight,
They feel dawning
In the ancient cloister's night,
Love, thy morning.

"As they go they coo and bill,
Wrapt in blisses,
Every moment kiss, and still
Want more kisses.

"Under arches, galleries,
Marbles hoary,
Like the birdies in the trees,
The old story!"

Unfortunately all the melody has tumbled out somehow. But this will happen sometimes—generally, in fact—with translations.

Again, is there any other living man (no, reader, we will *not* except Robert Browning) who could imagine a delicious bit of *renaissance* like this? The wood-spirit—we can see him now, a microscopic Pan, one of those diminutive goblins that Maurice Sand loves to draw for his mother's legends of Brittany—denounces to the young lover his mistress and his friend. They have played him false; they have made an *epidemic of kisses* in the woods, while the unsuspicious adorer was sleeping as sound as if he belonged to the Academy. Then the youth repels with disdain the suggestions of the malicious elf:

"Nain qui me railles,
Gnôme aperçu
Dans les broussailles,
Ailé, bossu;
Face moisie,
Sur toi, boudeur,
La poésie
Tourne en laideur.

He will not listen to the accusation, not he!

"Quel vilain rôle!
Je n'en crois rien,
Vieux petit drôle
Aérien.
Reprends ta danse
Spectre badin;
Reçois quittance
De mon dedain
Où j'enveloppe
Tous tes aïeux
Depuis Esope
Jusqu'à Mayeux."

Still, even youth must have its suspicions and the ideal its complications. These complications inspire a whole section of poems under the main head of "Jeunesse." The best among these is the exposure of modern love *à la mode*. Venal affection has long been a favorite theme for French satirists; but few have treated it so forcibly, none so pithily and quaintly. Unfortunately he must preface it with some fearful rubbish about the simplicity of the olden times, a specimen of his worst sham pedantry, an utter falsification of all possible history. We are sure that the very respectable minor prophet Amos would be disgusted at the *bonnes fortunes* M. Hugo attributes to him; and as to Chramnes, priest of Electra (if there ever was such an individual), receiving Alexander's friend Thais at supper in a tomb, with a ghost for

third party, by way of keeping up the proprieties, we are very certain, from our historical knowledge of that young lady, that she would have seen him and his ghost at a considerable distance first. Even when fairly in his subject the irrepressible mystifier will now and then invent a name for mere sake of the rhyme, just as Poe used to do. We have known a great many queer appellations in and about Lorettedom, but we never heard of a Mademoiselle Amathonte. A few such blemishes apart, the description is perfect. Our fair ones have introduced many variations into the old programme. Our shepherdesses fleece more bankers than they shear lambs. They have realized the application of algebra to courtship. They flirt their fans at so much the hour.

"Palmyre en pleurs, Berthe en délire
S' amourachent par A x B."

In their dreams they behold the leaves—of bank notes trembling in the breeze. We have come to the point where one is robbed by singing birds in the forest of Calzado.* The contrast between the first and second series of poems is thus characteristically set forth in the preface: "Le cœur de l'homme a un recto sur lequel est écrit 'Jeunesse' et un verso sur lequel est écrit 'Sagesse.'"

In the best stanzas of the best poems in "Sagesse," the poet rails at the folly of wars, the wickedness of kings who make them, the madness of the people who sustain them. For six thousand years the nations have delighted in battle. Amid the gleam of steel and the smoke of watch-fires our dark souls are lighted up by the cannon's flame:

"Et cela pour des Altesses,
Qui, vous à peine enterrés,
Se feront des politesses,
Pendant que vous pourrirez."

No nation can bear another near it.

"C'est un Russe! Egorge, assomme,
Un Croate! Fen roulant.
C'est juste. Pourquoi cet homme,
Avait-il un habit blanc?
Celui-ci je le supprime
Et m'en vais, le cœur serein,
Puisqu'il a commis le crime
De naître à droite du Rhin."

We might quaff the fountains, pray in the shade, love and dream under the forest oaks but it is so much pleasanter to kill our brethren.

Too true, old poet! The good time has n't come yet.

LIPPINCOTT'S PRONOUNCING GAZETTEER.†

The preface to the first edition of this work informs us that it was "the aim of the editors, . . . if possible, to produce a geographical dictionary as comprehensive in its plan, as perfect in its arrangement, and as complete and accurate in its execution, as the best dictionary of the English language." The preface to the revised issue, now before us, asserts that "in the attempts to render the present edition of the 'Gazetteer' every way worthy of the favor which has been so liberally bestowed upon the work ever since its first appearance, no expense or labor has been spared. Not only has an appendix containing nearly ten thousand new articles (chiefly relating to the United States) been added, but *every portion of the work has been subjected to a careful revision, and a vast number of such alterations and corrections as the lapse of ten progressive years has rendered necessary have been made.*" The ample title-page promises "the most recent statistical information, *according to the latest census returns of the United States and foreign countries.*"

It is not our intention, and it would not be an easy task, to examine the correctness of the original claims of this valuable book of reference—valuable chiefly on account of its exceeding comprehensiveness—to comparative excellence in its line; but we must forcibly protest against the pretentious assumptions concerning its revision, though we readily admit that, besides the appendix, it contains a large number of new articles, new statistical dates, and other additions or alterations. Not only are these additions or alterations very scanty in proportion to the vast contents of the whole, and far from affecting "every portion of the work," but they are frequently defective or antiquated in themselves, and many of them loosely and inaccurately done. Let us examine, for instance, by reference both to the main work and the supplement, some of the notices of places rendered memorable by the events of our great civil war.

According to the notice on "Pittsburg Landing," the battle fought near that place, in 1862, took place "in April," and according to "Shiloh," "about the 7th of April," while the article "United States," otherwise abounding in mistakes, correctly informs us that it was fought "*on the 6th and 7th* of April." "Fair Oaks" mentions only May 31, the first day of the battle, while "Seven Pines" is not given. Under "Corinth" we read of Rosecrans's victory, but not a word of its once so much talked-of "siege" under Halleck. Gettysburg is made a two-days', instead of a three-days', battle; the name of the vanquished general is given, that of the victor omitted. Fort Pillow is mentioned as "erected," but not as captured, "by the secessionists." According to "Savannah," that town was occupied by Sherman "about the 20th of December, 1864;" according to "United States," on the 21st of that month. Fort Fisher was taken "in January," Wilmington "in February, 1865" (days not given); Petersburg "*about* the 2d of April;" Richmond "on the 2d" (erroneously for "the 3d"); the battle of Bentonville was fought some time "in the spring of 1865." But, stranger than all, not the slightest reference to any military action of the late war is made under the heads "Antietam," "Atlanta," "Bull Run," "Cedar Creek," "Chancellorsville," "Fredericksburg," "Knoxville," "Murfreesborough," "Nashville," "New Orleans," "Perryville," "Pleasant Hill," "Port Royal," "Roanoke Island," "Sharpsburgh," "Spottsylvania Court House," "Springfield," "Williamsburgh," "Winchester," or "Yorktown." Fort Pulaski is nowhere to be discovered.

When the recent history of the United States is thus treated (in a work overflowing with ancient historical dates), it cannot much surprise us to find no allusion to the late warlike affairs in Italy under such heads as "Montebello" or "Magenta;" no mention of the name of Garibaldi under "Caprera," "Palermo," or "Volturno;" no notice of Solferino or Aspromonte (in Naples); no allusion to the surrender of Görgey under "Vilagos," or to his victory under "Szöny;" no notice of Kápolna; no allusion to the Crimean war under "Balaklava," "Taurida," "Crimea," or "Russia," while under "Sevastopol" we find that modern Troy still standing, with its "Malakoff, with the Great and Little Redan, situated near the lines of the allies, and near which there has been, in the present war (*sic*), some severe fighting." But not only the Crimean war is ignored in the "history" attached to "Russia;" the Circassian and the Polish wars, of 1831 as well as of 1863–4, share the same fate; the abolition of serfdom is a fact unknown to the writer of the article, and the fourth class of the Czar's subjects, "consisting of peasants or serfs," is left to "belong, in nearly equal proportions, to the crown and to individual proprietors; and though their different conditions admit of considerable diversity, the great body of them are, to all intents and purposes, little better than slaves. It ought to be observed, however, that the humanity and enlightened liberality of the late (*sic*) emperor, Alexander, formed a new division, to consist of free cultivators;" that "his successor, Nicholas"—elsewhere in the same article called "his *third* brother," and also "the late reigning monarch"—"followed laudably in his steps, and operations are now in progress by means of which, *though at some very distant date*, there is reason to hope that the complete emancipation of the serfs will be effected."

When we add that the histories of "Sleswick," "Holstein," and "Denmark" do not go beyond the year 1850, when the duchies "finally submitted to the authority of their sovereign, the King of Denmark;" that the Government of Prussia is left as it was in 1849; that the history of "Germany" concludes with the attempts of Austria, at the close of the revolutionary period of 1848–51, "to reconstitute the Germanic Confederation," when "various propositions to effect this object" were made, "but no definite result (February, 1852) had been attained;" that the history of Greece, of Spain, of the South American republics, and of most other countries, is treated with the same, if not with greater, disregard to late events; and that "Mexico" speaks of Maximilian without mentioning Juarez, and of the French invasion as having taken place in 1863 instead of 1861—our reader will have an idea of the "careful revision" to which the work has been subjected from a historical point of view.

But now let us see how "complete and accurate" this new edition is in regard to its main object, "the most recent statistical information, according to the latest census returns of the United States and foreign countries." Its deficiencies respecting parts of the Union are excused in the preface on plausible grounds derived from difficulties and temporary changes caused by the late war. But how is it in respect to foreign countries? A few examples will show: The area and population of "Russia" are given as they were in 1851; its latest commercial statistics refer to the year 1853. The area and population of "Sweden" are those of 1850. The same is the case with "Portugal" and "Switzerland." No general statistical table of the present kingdom of Italy is given. The statistical table of Germany contains three separate duchies of Anhalt, one of which ceased to be in 1847 and another

* Namely, the Italian opera of which Señor Calzado was manager for many years, till he was "cotched and sent to prison" for "prigging what war n't his'n" at a card party.

† "A Complete Pronouncing Gazetteer or Geographical Dictionary of the World. . . . Edited by J. Thomas, M.D., and T. Baldwin, assisted by several other gentlemen. Revised edition, with an Appendix containing nearly Ten Thousand New Notices." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.

in 1863. Referring to the former, a note adds: "Anhalt Kothen, *it is stated*, has recently been absorbed in the other two divisions of Anhalt." The same table states the population of Bavaria to be 4,559,000, instead of 4,807,000 in 1864 (see "Almanach de Gotha" for 1866); of Bremen 74,000, instead of 104,000; of Frankfort 77,000, instead of 91,000; of Hamburg 200,000, instead of 229,000; of Hanover 1,819,000, instead of 1,923,000; of Holstein and Lauenburg 526,000, instead of 602,000; of Nassau 429,000, instead of 468,000; of Prussia, exclusive of the eastern or formerly Polish provinces, 11,775,000, instead of 14,714,000, and so on. The statistics of the "British Empire," being given according to the census of 1851, are, of course, exceedingly defective in all their parts, but monstrously so in some, as, for instance, when the population of New South Wales is stated to be 208,000, instead of 367,000 (according to the census of 1861); of South Australia 37,000, instead of 135,000; and of Victoria 151,000, instead of 573,000. The population of "China" is given as in Johnston's "Dictionary of Geography," but without stating, as that work does, that it refers to an official census of 1825.

It is to that assiduously and scrupulously elaborated "Dictionary of Geography," of which we compare the original edition, that the editors of our "Pronouncing Gazetteer" are indebted for about one-half, if we are not mistaken, of their foreign notices, most of them literally copied, and almost all left in our "revised" edition precisely as they were written by Mr. Johnston, who, as he informs us, adopted the census of 1841 as his statistical guide for Great Britain and Ireland, and for other countries returns published between the years 1837 and 1849. Our "Gazetteer," therefore, which, on its title, bears the date of "1866," and speaks of statistics "according to the latest census returns," in reality embodies, without anywhere alluding to it, returns some twenty or thirty years old, in numberless notices, every word of which is from Johnston's first edition, whose chronological dates, frequently affixed to the figures of population, are moreover carefully omitted. A few examples will elucidate these statements. Thus we find in

JOHNSTON'S DICTIONARY.			LIPPINCOTT'S GAZETTEER (1866).		
Cinisello	Pop. (1843)	2,408	Cinisello	Pop.	2,408
Cirie	" (1838)	3,353	Cirie	"	3,353
Cisterna, Sardinian States	" (1838)	1,962	Cisterna, Sardinian States	"	1,962
Cittadella	" (1843)	6,599	Cittadella	"	6,600
Citta Vecchia, Dalmatia,	" (1845)	3,046	Citta Vecchia	"	3,046
Cividale	" (1843)	6,027	Cividale	"	6,027
Karlsburg	" (1845)	12,300	Karlsburg	"	12,300
Kars	" (1843)	12,000	Kars	"	12,000
Kaschau	" (1845)	15,600	Kaschau	"	15,600

This will suffice to show the character of the revision of "Lippincott's Gazetteer" in many of its parts; the original merits and demerits of this work we have abstained from touching upon, as not belonging to the limited sphere of our review. Its general usefulness is universally known. The neatness and correctness of the print appear to us deserving of the highest commendation.

GUROWSKI'S DIARY.*

If anybody opens this book with the expectation of finding in it a record of the workings of a doubting and bewildered soul in its search after truth, he will be miserably disappointed. Whatever struggles the Count may have gone through in the formation of his opinions, they were either all over before the work before us was composed, or else he has carefully excluded all trace of them from its pages. In the "Diary" he appears before us as a fully illumined believer, and lays the lash over the shoulders of the people around him with all the passion and indignation of certainty.

The present volume is prefaced by a table in three parallel columns, containing, first, the names of persons "mentioned in the book with praise," numbering in all 101; second, of those spoken of "half-and-half," in all 22; and last, of those spoken of with "blame," in all 40. But we are bound to say that this digest, valuable as it may seem, does not give the reader by any means an adequate idea of the manner in which the author has meted out his judgments. The mere list of names is, in fact, most delusive. If we weigh the blame against the praise, as we find it in the body of the work, we shall find that, supposing 101 lbs. of praise to have been distributed amongst the Count's favorites, or 1 lb. a man, at least 200 lbs. of blame are distributed amongst the 40 reprobates, or 5 lbs. a man. What M. Gurowski means by "half-and-half" we do not well know. But if he means a mixture composed of blame and praise in equal parts, we must be allowed to doubt whether even the author himself has paid proper attention to the proportion when he was putting in his ingredients, for it seems to us, as it will, we think, to the reader, that there is but a half-penny worth of praise in it to an intolerable deal of blame. For instance, Mr. Lincoln is one of the gentlemen who has had "half-and-half" dealt out to him, and we find that he was "a great shifter," "a political shuffler;" that "whatever he did was done by halves;" that "he had not an atom of organizing or administrative capacity;" that he was "a baker of generals;" that "he preferred having the army ruined by Meade rather than endanger his own chances of re-election." He is accused, moreover, of having caused the butchery of Olustee in order to secure three votes for the presidency, and M. Gurowski loses no opportunity of mentioning that he does not believe a word he says.

The "praise and blame" there is no mistake about. Forty greater scoundrels, as M. Gurowski describes them, than the gentlemen who incur the former are certainly not to be met with in history. The list includes G. T. Curtis, Thomas Carlyle, Archbishop Hughes, Senator Saulsbury, the Emperor Maximilian, Thurlow Weed, Chief-Justice Taney, Ben. Wood, General McClellan, and all the Cabinet except Secretary Stanton. It would be impossible for us in the space at our disposal to give any idea of the rascalities of which the whole forty persons were guilty. They appear, according to M. Gurowski's account, to have left no stone unturned to bring about the ruin of the country, and the destruction, body and soul, of every man, woman, and child in it. The chief villain of the lot appears to have been Secretary Seward, who had only one virtue, and that was purity in money matters. In all else he was wholly given over to the devil and his works. He had worthy coadjutors in Halleck, Welles, and McCulloch; though it is but right to say that in the author's classification, Welles comes under the head of "half-and-half," and is occasionally called in the body of the work by the pet name of "Neptune-Methuselah-Van-Winkle," or more frequently "Neptune" *tout court*. "Neptune" plays on one occasion a somewhat comical part in preventing the solution of "the question of earthen walls against wooden or iron walls." M. Gurowski declares that, if it should be solved in favor of the earthen fortifications, the result would be due to "Seward-Lincoln's hesitating policy in 1861–2, and to Welles' *big wig*." It is not often that this article of attire enters into the composition of causes to which the great events in history are, it is said, attributable.

Halleck is generally spoken of by our author as "Jomini-Carnot-Corinth-Halleck." Mr. Seward appears under various appellations implying different degrees of iniquity, the lowest being, as well as we remember, "Judas-Iscariot-Seward," and poor General Meade comes in for what is worse than M. Gurowski's abuse, his scorn. Meade seems to have passed his time between one blunder and another, and was really never out of mischief except when he was asleep. One cold night—that of the second of January, 1864—M. Gurowski seems to have been transported with rage at the reflection that Meade and Halleck were warm under the blankets instead of being out in the field freezing with the soldiers, and utters the pious invocation, "Oh how ardently I wish the mothers, sisters, and wives of the people under arms might for a moment become hyenas, tear to pieces our leaders, and thus avenge their children!"

M. Gurowski's praise is, we need hardly say, as unmeasured as his censure. Next to General Wadsworth, to whose memory he dedicates his book, and in whose honor he composed a poem in 1864, at Long Branch, in what we guess—being a little rusty in our Slavonic—to be the Polish tongue, his greatest idol is Mr. Stanton. If his account of this gentleman be true, all we can say is that he is far too good for this world, and deserves translation. How such a pink of perfection managed to preserve his innocence through a long career at the Pennsylvania bar, the Count does not explain; but his time at Washington seems to have been passed in heroic and successful attempts to avoid being contaminated by his colleagues. Wendell Phillips our author is never weary of praising, and appears to consider that at various times during the war he was the only statesman left in the country. On the fifth of December, 1863, we learn that "the small church of abolitionists began to hurrah for Lincoln," to M. Gurowski's regret. "I wonder not," he says, "at Beecher; but wonder at Wendell Phillips, who is not of that small parish. I wrote him." What effect this produced on Mr. Phillips we are not told; but we fear none whatever, for we find our author lamenting a month later over his continuing to "throw his eloquence for Lincoln," although his attention had been called to the "organizatory vacuum in Lincoln."

It is but just to M. Gurowski to say that he has made some excellent hits in his diary. He was one of the first, if not the first, we believe, to expose McClellan and to discern the rising of Grant's star; and there is, too, a vast deal of very unpleasant truth scattered through the book. He pricks a good many bubbles, though with a pitchfork, one of the largest being the widely prevalent notion that the visits of Thurlow Weed, Archbishop Hughes, Mr. Evarts, and Mr. Seward's despatches did a great deal to change the public

* "Diary: 1863, '64, '65. By Adam Gurowski. Washington, D. C." W. H. & O. H. Morrison. 1866.

opinion of Europe about our war. We doubt if they produced the smallest impression on anybody who was not already convinced. Henry Ward Beecher did more than all of them put together could have done in ten years, and Grant and Sherman really did all that was done at all, which reduces the share of the roving diplomatists to a very small compass.

The popular impression on laying down Count Gurowski's volume will be, we think, that the worst crime of which the blood-stained administration of Mr. Lincoln was guilty, was in not having made the Count himself Lieutenant-General, Vice-Admiral, and Secretary of the Treasury and Secretary of State. And if he will allow us to offer him a little advice, which we do with a horrible sense of our own unworthiness, it will be, not to waste so much love as he seems to do upon the American people. For he may depend upon it they are not worthy of it. Any community which fills all its high offices with such unmitigated scoundrels as those whom M. Gurowski describes, can hardly be very pure itself or worth much commiseration. We therefore recommend him to be a man, put up his pocket-handkerchief, lay down his pen, and "let the whole concern," in the expressive language of Mr. Mantalini, "go to the demnition bow-wows."

WARREN AND SHERIDAN AT FIVE FORKS.*

THE public can hardly have forgotten its surprise on learning, in the closing struggle of the rebellion, that Gen. Warren had been relieved from the command of the Fifth Corps by Gen. Sheridan, and had forfeited honorable mention among the heroes of the final victories around Richmond. We believe that the universal impression was that this removal took place in the heat of an engagement, and that it was occasioned by a difference between the two commanders which was peremptorily settled by the superior authority of Gen. Sheridan. The time, which did not permit a court-martial to elucidate the matter, was equally unfavorable for a popular judgment; and, in the prevailing ignorance of the facts, it is not at all strange that the presumption should have been in favor of the brilliant cavalry leader, who to his exploits in the Shenandoah Valley had added the *coup de grace* of a war as well as of a campaign. Few ever knew that Gen. Warren was immediately assigned by Gen. Grant to the defences at City Point and Bermuda Hundred; that, after the evacuation of Richmond and Petersburg, he was put in command of the latter city and of the Southside Railroad; and that, on the third of the following month, he was placed over the Department of Mississippi, the scene of still active hostilities. Failing to obtain of Gen. Sheridan an explanation of his course toward him, or of the Lieutenant-General a military investigation, Gen. Warren undertakes in the pamphlet before us to justify himself to his countrymen in a manner, whatever else may be said of it, dignified and temperate.

Gen. Sheridan's imputations are contained in his official report, and are three in number: that Gen. Warren disappointed the expectations of Gen. Grant in his movements the night before the battle of Five Forks, and ought to have captured a large portion of the enemy's infantry who were checking Sheridan at Dinwiddie C. H.; that he did not exert himself to get up his corps as rapidly as he might, in preparing to join in the attack at Five Forks, and seemed to wish the sun to go down before the necessary dispositions could be made; and that in the ensuing engagement portions of his line gave way under moderate fire, from want of confidence which he took no pains to inspire. Such were the grounds for relieving Gen. Warren at the *close* of a perfectly successful and highly creditable flank movement, which decided the fortune of the day, and in which the Fifth Corps, with a loss of 634 men, captured 3,244 of the enemy, with their arms, 11 regimental colors, and one four-gun battery with its caissons.

1. The night of May 31–April 1 was dark and stormy, and the rough country about Hatcher's Run in a terrible state for army movements. In the immediate neighborhood of the enemy orders had to be transmitted noiselessly from man to man. What were the "expectations" of the Lieutenant-General does not appear, but we have the successive orders of General Meade, to whom General Warren was then reporting. From these it is manifest that he acted promptly and with discretion; but was prevented from moving as he desired to the rear of the enemy at Dinwiddie C. H., because it was understood at headquarters that Sheridan was much more likely to retreat than to hold his ground. His directions were simply to reinforce the latter, which he did at the earliest possible moment; before they were sent by General Meade, the enemy which, according to Sheridan, might have been intercepted, was already in retreat towards Five Forks.

2. The three division commanders of the Fifth Corps testify to the alacrity with which they formed their troops as designated by General Sheridan on the afternoon of April 1st. General Warren himself declares that he was delighted and eager to serve under Sheridan, and promised him to be in readiness to move by 4 P.M. He was as punctual as his word, and the advance began while the sun was two and a half hours high.

3. But two constructions can be placed upon the third imputation: it affects either the loyalty or the courage of General Warren. We are confident that not even the general who turned the rout at Winchester has a right to indulge in this accusation. General Warren was chief of engineers to General Meade at the battle of Gettysburg, and the position of the Union army, which on that field was our only warrant against disaster, was mainly, if not altogether, his choice and his praise. He was already notorious for his intrepidity, and his subsequent promotion to be major-general could hardly have made a coward of him. In this very battle of Five Forks he did, by his personal example and leadership, inspire—not the confidence of his men, for they had smashed the enemy—but their ardor for a renewed and ultimate assault, and his own horse was killed under him close to the rebel breastworks, while the line was taken without a shot. He had previously visited every part of his corps, and stationed himself always where he could best communicate with his subordinates, with utter indifference to his personal safety. As for his loyalty, he is content to put himself upon the country.

No candid person, in our opinion, can read General Warren's defence without feeling that his grievance is a real one. The question of facts is easily settled against General Sheridan, into whose motives, however, it is not our purpose to enter. General Warren goes no further than to express his conviction that he was deliberately removed on the first opportunity. "If," he says, "a victory won by my command, under my direction, could not gain me credit, where the plans made were, as he (General Sheridan) says, 'successfully executed,' and where my efforts and directions were known to almost every one, then nothing could." This credit the public will not fail to bestow when fairly informed. At least it will applaud his soldierly acquiescence in what he deemed most unjust treatment, his solicitude for his good name unmixed with egotism, and this dispassionate vindication of his services, which is also a very clear and valuable contribution to the history of the Army of the Potomac.

* "An Account of the Operations of the Fifth Army Corps, commanded by Major-General G. K. Warren, at the Battle of Five Forks, April 1, 1865, and the Battles and Movements Preliminary to it. By G. K. Warren, late Major-General Volunteers." Wm. M. Franklin, New York.

THE MAGAZINES FOR APRIL.

THE best wine of the "Atlantic Monthly" is neither first nor last in the course, but midway—Mr. Kirk's description of the character and career of M. Sainte-Beuve, "the prince of contemporaneous criticism." The draught is a copious one, but it is pleasant to take, and will excite much valuable reflection.—Next in excellence is Mrs. Stowe's "Chimney-Corner" on the fashions, who sets them, and how far one may properly follow them with a good conscience.—The political article discusses ably the relations of President Johnson and Congress, and of each to the people. It shows that if, according to the theory of the former, the revolted States are, and all along have been, in the Union on equal terms with the loyal, not only is the present Congress a "rump," and its acts invalid, but all the legislation of the war may be impeached by the self-same logic.—The opening article, on the "Last Days of Walter Savage Landor," tells us comparatively little of what we had reason to expect. There are a great many quotations from or about the poet, and, from some verses addressed by him to a young American lady, and "heretofore unpublished," we learn that the writer is a Miss K. F.—"Were they Crickets?" is a weak imagining, in a vein mixed of "Peter Wilkins" and "Micromégas," and with just a suspicion of being intended for a satire on the times.—"Madam Waldoborough's Carriage" is a not bad extravaganza, but is too long in the handling, and there is scarcely enough made of the very capital situation selected for the pivot of the story—a foreigner in Paris, with fifteen sous in his pocket and none at his lodgings, entrapped into riding in a hackney-coach at two francs the hour!—The passages from Hawthorne's note-books are remarkable for glimpses of his habits of observation in his out-of-door wanderings, which make one half wish that the brush had been as much his instrument as the pen. The practice, we may remark by the way, of jotting down the pictures afforded by our daily walks would make truer artists and critics of us all. The hints at "motives" for future elaboration in fiction are full of the fantastic and sombre phantasies which colored all of Hawthorne's work. He was a remorseless anatomist, and took a sort of delight in probing the most repulsive processes of our nature, which, every one wishes to delude himself, do not exist for him.—"A Struggle for Shelter" treats of the difficulty experienced by single women in finding decent, commodious, and reasonable quarters in our chief cities. Clubs, analogous to those for men, are advo-

cated.—"The Late Insurrection in Jamaica" suffers the disadvantage of having been composed before the testimony before the commission had reached this country, and is, therefore, less to be prized for its statements about the unhappy occurrences of last October. Some of the causes of discontent are accurately enumerated, and also the points in which there can be no prejudiced inference from the blacks of Jamaica to the freedmen of the South, that shall deter us from giving them the just measure of their rights.—There are three poems in the present number, Longfellow's being the best, as we conceive.—Mr. Mitchell's and Mr. Charles Reade's stories are still further advanced.

"Harper's Monthly" shows us the "Birds at Home," with curious illustrations. Mr. Abbott indulges his mania for writing history by rehearsing the exploits of our navy in the North Carolina sounds. We had given him credit for better judgment than he displays in lauding the joint proclamation of Burnside and Goldsborough, Feb. 18, 1862, which repudiated any desire on their part to "liberate your slaves, injure your women, and [commit] such like enormities." We doubt if the next governor of Rhode Island considers this specimen of his "pure patriotism" particularly "worthy of historic preservation."—China furnishes a theme for two independent articles. The portraits of Gens. Ward and Burgevine, both Americans, both adventurers without principle, and both, fortunately, put out of existence, are given with an account of their participation in the horrible massacres of which the Middle Kingdom has been the theatre, according as the rebellion achieved success or the Imperial authorities found opportunity for vengeance.—The article on restaurants is unartistic and far from exhausting the subject; but it gives figures which will be welcome to those whose appetites are out of proportion to their purses, and tells besides some wholesome truths about our habits of eating.—The "Ethics of Adulteration" is a plea for certain manufactured products which, it is argued, are none the less worth buying at the price demanded because they are not what they purport to be. The author rebukes the public for examining the brand instead of the quality, and forcing native industry to counterfeit the trade-marks of its foreign competitors.—We should like to learn the ethics of the biographer of Sam Houston, of whom we are told everything that is good and very little that is bad. This sort of misrepresentation cannot be too severely censured, and to give it the currency of a popular magazine is a serious offence against the public morals.—The objections to "Round Dances" are very forcibly set forth in a paper on that subject, in a style much superior to that of ordinary pulpit preaching, and the best, perhaps, that adorns the number.

The "Catholic World," for the first time open to original articles, begins with one that treats of the present state of the patriarchate of Constantinople. The writer aims to show that while this portion of the Greek Church has forfeited the respect of the remainder by its tyrannous and corrupt practices, and rendered itself obnoxious to Rome by its schismatical difference on certain points of a common faith, there is yet no hope of such an alliance with it on the part of Protestant Christendom as the latter seemed to court, some years ago, in order to concentrate the opposition to Catholicism. The future possession of Constantinople by Russia is regarded, in a religious point of view, with complacency, although the Emperor and the Pope are by no means on so friendly terms as the Emperor and this republic, and although there is nothing in the traditions of the Russian Church compatible with the spiritual dominion to which the Holy See lays claim.—"Christine," is a troubadour's song, containing a few good lines, but not exciting an insatiable longing to read the rest of the cantos, which are promised in subsequent numbers.—"The Song of the Shell" is a fair production of the battle-field.—The "Reminiscences of Dr. Spring" are examined by some one having an eye to the weak spots in that autobiography. We have numerous excellent reasons for not agreeing with the reviewer's conclusions "that Dr. Spring has lived in vain."—Among the selected articles are Dr. Newman's reply to Dr. Pusey's Eirenicon, two continued stories, "Ireland and the Informers of 1798," "Proposed Substitutes for the Steam-Engine," etc. The leading book-notice is of Hassard's "Life of Archbishop Hughes."

Mr. Thomas Nast contributes a design to the April number of "Beadle's Monthly," which is not only so far an improvement on the number for March, but also in a very creditable proportion of original articles. Of these the poetry is, as usual, the poorest; but "April-a Year Ago" has decided merit, and the feeling of the "Hymn" at the close will be responded to by every lover of the April martyr.—The best prose article is "A Winter in Pau," the little Gascon town near the Pyrenees out of which issued Henry IV. to ascend the throne of France, and Bernadotte that of Sweden, and which is now represented, not without protest, by M. Larrabure in the Corps Législatif. We learn that Pau is highly favorable to invalids who are troubled with pulmonary complaints; that its climate is dry and equable; and that its chapter of winds is as short as Ireland's chapter of snakes—there are none. The walks are monotonous, the drives a little less so, but the ever-present scenery is magnificent. Living is dear. The neighboring watering-place of Eaux Bonnes among the mountains seems not unlike Mauch Chunk in its peculiar situation.—We are told "What Constitutes Treason" in this country, and what is its punishment by law. The writer makes the customary recommendation of tempering justice with mercy, with an evident leaning toward justice. He omits to guess the probable fate of certain distinguished subjects for either a halter or a pardon.—"The Alligator at Home" and "The Pearl Fisheries," with a paper on "Hydrophobia," are the chief remaining titles that do not belong to stories.

The most marked improvement in "Our Young Folks" is in the illustrations, which are now much more in keeping with the quality of the text than hitherto. Miss Hale's talk about the seasons is very good ground-work for an introduction to botany, provided the child is not left entirely to his own understanding of it. Mrs. Stowe presents another phase of "Young America" in "The History of Tip-Top," who is no other than Number One. Miss Prescott's "Dilly-Dally" is written with great naturalness, as usual, but not always with desirable simplicity. Gail Hamilton contributes an undisguised sermon on "Little Things."

Times hab Badly Change' Ole Massa Now. Song of the Freedmen. By H. G. Spaulding. (Oliver Ditson & Co., Boston.)—On the first page of the sheet this explanation is printed: "The leading melody of this song was heard by the writer in Florida. It was sung by a negro, but the words could not be recognized. In the words here given the writer has attempted to express what seems to him to have been the general feeling of the freedmen at the close of the war." This melody is quite pretty, but is evidently a latter-day composition, a song of the new régime, and an imitation of the popular "negro melody" of white origin. It contains no traces of the peculiarly wild and melancholy character of the old-time plantation songs. But the words are such a happy rendering of the state of the case, in simple and occasionally almost pathetic language, as to place the merits of the piece above many others which have gained popularity.

Driftings from the Stream of Life. A Collection of Fugitive Poems. By Elizabeth Bogart. (Hurd & Houghton, New York; E. P. Dutton & Co., Boston.)—We shall not flatter the author of this collection by placing a higher value on her productions than she herself has done in the preface. Not every log that comes to the boom is worth affixing the owner's mark; but if it cannot be shaped into spar, or plank, or board, or lath, it may, turned adrift, and rescued for firewood, cheer poverty's hearth in the dreary winter. Such we conceive to be the humble mission of this book, with its page on page of sentimental verse, its "harps" innumerable, its "stars," and "moonlight," and "memories," and "hope" that "went by on raven wings, darkening the summer sky." Some mourner's heart may be touched and comforted by the obituary verses, which assuredly were not all composed for others' griefs. In the metrical contest with "J. H. H.," to which we are treated in the appendix, it would be hard to say whether he or "Estelle" gets the worst of it.

Mackenzie's Ten Thousand Receipts in all the Useful and Domestic Arts, etc. Second edition. (T. Ellwood Zell, Philadelphia). We hope the calamity alluded to with such serenity in the preface to this volume—the destruction of "all other books of science in the world"—may be long postponed. That these ten thousand receipts, however, would not compensate for such a loss, does not detract from their present usefulness. We believe that sufficient care has been exercised in preparing them to make them worthy of confidence in the main, though we should feel much safer in following those which pertain to the arts than those for the domestic practice of medicine. The American editor has so far altered the original work as to adapt it to our soil and climate.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries, 1858-1864. By David and Charles Livingstone.—History of Friedrich the Second, called Frederick the Great. By Thomas Carlyle. Vol. VI. and last.—A Text-Book on Physiology. For the use of Schools and Colleges. By John William Draper, M.D.—Harper's Pictorial History of the Great Rebellion. No. 15.—A Child's History of the United States. Vol. III. Part Second. History of the Great Rebellion. By John Bonner.—Maxwell Drewitt. A Novel. By T. G. Trafford. Harper & Brothers, New York.

The Song-Book. Words and Tunes from the Best Poets and Musicians. Selected and Arranged by John Hullah. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia; Macmillan & Co., London. (Sheldon & Co., New York.)

Les Travailleurs de la Mer. Par Victor Hugo. Edition spéciale pour les Etats-Unis. F. W. Christern, New York; A. Lacroix, Verboeckhoven et Cie, Bruxelles.

Geological Sketches. By L. Agassiz.—St. Martin's Summer. By Anne H. M. Brewster. Ticknor & Fields, Boston. (B. H. Ticknor, New York.)

Christian Unity and its Recovery. By John S. Davenport.—The Idle Word. Short Religious Essays upon the Gift of Speech, and its Employment in Conversation. By Edward Meyrick Goulburn, D.D. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

The Grahames. By Mrs. Trafford Whitehead.—The Cecilias; or, The Force of Circumstances. By Anne Argyle. American News Company, New York.

Poems in Sunshine and Firelight. By John James Piatt. R. W. Carroll & Co., Cincinnati.

Fine Arts.

A FEW WORDS ABOUT ART CRITICISM.

Mr. Geo. H. Hall's note, published in The Nation a week ago, is a curious proof of the feebleness and insincerity of most American art criticism hitherto. Mr. Hall, it will be seen, does not waste words in trying to prove that his critic lacked knowledge of the matter in hand. He assumes that. He is sure that if the critic will do so and so, he will see so and so, namely, what Mr. Hall saw. He assumes as a thing of course that his critic never did it nor anything equivalent to it, but criticized painting purporting to be from nature without knowledge of the facts of nature.

Of Mr. Hall's color we shall say a word by-and-bye; but a subject of even greater importance is offered for consideration by his evidently real and sincere—not purposely displayed—impression of the worthlessness and insincerity of art criticism. There must have been, it is evident, an immense weight of bad art criticism to have produced that impression. One who had never seen an American newspaper notice, nor heard an allusion to American art, could yet accurately judge from careful reading of Mr. Hall's short note that a great deal of groundless fault-finding and senseless puffery must have gone before. Mr. Hall must have often suffered from praise that he knew to be undeserved, and have felt that it meant nothing, before he could have taken it for granted that blame also must be without meaning.

General art criticism is many-sided, and requires varied knowledge and matured thought on many subjects. There is scarcely anything within the range of human knowledge that may not, at one time or other, directly assist it. There are, especially at the present time, difficulties in it beyond the difficulties of literary criticism: for instance, the absence of such standards of right and wrong as have been tolerably well established in literature; and the fact that, just now, knowledge of art includes knowledge of literature, while literature gets on very well without much reference to art. Excellent judges of books and men may, as we see every day, know very little about art, and wisely distrust their own judgment of it; but an art critic is badly off unless he knows a good deal—and accurately—about books, and something, at least, about men. Now, as it is evident that all human knowledge falls short of ideally perfected knowledge, so it is evident that all human criticism is incomplete, and falls short of being final. But there is a great difference between the criticism of one picture and the criticism of another, and a great difference in criticizing different parts or qualities of the same picture. For instance, in Gérome's great work of the gladiators, "Ave Cæsar," etc., the scene is historically inaccurate. It is evidently the interior of the Flavian amphitheatre that is represented; but below the emperor's seat is inscribed "Vitellius Imp.," and the Coliseum was not built until after the deposition and death of Vitellius. So much is matter of fact, ascertainable fact; but now comes up for consideration that which is clearly matter of opinion, and must always remain so, viz., was the painter warranted in taking this liberty with history? At the present day the majority will say yes; but there have been times in the history of art when such freedom would not have been allowed the historical painter. A different instance is Tissot's picture, sold by auction at Mr. Avery's sale three weeks ago, "Un Tentatif d'Enlèvement." Is it good fencing? It is not, judged by the modern laws of *escrime;* the parry in particular violates all the laws of fence. But perhaps M. Tissot had ascertained that different laws of fence obtained in France in the days of Henry II. It seems unlikely; but until we know, it would not be wise or just to find fault. But, if it were once settled that it is an error, there would remain no question about excuse for it; there could be none; the critic would be justified in blaming what would be either negligence, or, worse, inaccurate perception of a really essential fact. So in an American picture not long ago—a ship riding at anchor in a heavy gale—some of the crew were represented going aloft by the leeward shrouds. Here was no question at all. Bluntness of perception, or else ignorance of the matter in hand, one or the other, caused the blunder, and either should be a disqualification for painting marine subjects.

But when there is question of color, there is perhaps more room for difference of opinion, more chance for even well-informed people to differ in the principles upon which they judge, than in any other quality of art. In the first place, are those the colors of nature? a question to be answered by experience or experiment, and which every intelligent person not color-blind will claim a right to answer for himself. Then, if they are not, as they never are or can be literally, is the painter right in his abstract or rendering? has he sacrificed lesser truths to greater, and insisted on the essential facts? is his work noble and beautiful? We find Mr. Ruskin, certainly not an admirer of art that is not true to nature, praising in a picture of a vintage the idealizing of the actual blackness of the grapes seen among the leaves into purple; but we find no praise given to Canaletto for idealizing the rosy and purple shadows on Venetian palaces into brown and black. And Mr. Ruskin is right. Real insight into nature and real study of nature will lead the painter to get as much as he can of natural beauty on his canvas, sacrificing unessential facts instead. But one person sees so much more of natural beauty in color than another, that they can hardly be judged by the same standard. Besides the many who are wholly or partially color-blind and never find it out, among those who can distinguish colors some see much more delicate gradations than others, some remember slight shades and hues much better than others. One person looks at a natural shadow called "black" or "grey" and sees that it really is warm in color—looks at a distant tree supposed to be green and sees that it is purplish grey—looks at a rock called brown and sees an iridescence of a million colors. To another person shade and shadows are little more than darkness, and to him the essential character of any object is its form.

Mr. Hall's fruit-pieces, as we saw them and studied them at the Somerville art gallery, had merit—the fruit was well rounded, the characters of form and growth well given. But these qualities are of minor importance in a picture of a bunch of grapes hung upon a wall; in such a picture color is everything. Every berry in the real bunch modifies the color of every other, the play of light and interchangeably reflected colors certainly not toning down the whole to greyness of shading, but raising the shadows, by dint of reflection, to richness of color beyond that of the lights. We said of these pictures: "Nor does it seem to us that the beauty of color in natural fruit and flowers has justice done it; the tone of color adopted in all Mr. Hall's works is not pure or bright enough for that." To that expression of opinion we have heard of no dissent, although, of course, there are many who disagree. It is to the particular instance we gave that Mr. Hall objects, namely, "purple is shaded [that is, in his pictures] not with darker purple but with grey." Mr. Hall writes that, if purple grapes are hung against a grey wall, their shadows will be full of grey reflections. It is unnecessary to remind him that that fact is somewhat irrelevant. It is not so that one's work is proved true and beautiful in color. It is perfectly true that there will be grey reflections, but on a few berries only at a time and from one point of view, and the grey will not be wholly unmodified by the purple. We have this statement only to make in conclusion Mr. Hall's renderings of the shade and shadow colors of nature are generally exaggerated abstractions of the darkness or depth of those colors only, their quality being wholly disregarded. Of his many fruit-pieces we do not remember one that has been conceived and painted in full color. This may be of no importance; it was the sole charge we made, and is the sole charge we now make against his paintings of fruit.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

The French decimal system of weights and measures gains favor steadily among the nations of Europe. It is the legal system of France, Italy, Belgium, and Switzerland, and though the German nations still adhere to other measures of length and to their old names of weights, their actual weights have been made easily comparable with the French by the enactment that the pound shall be equal to one-half of a French kilogramme. A government commission has just recommended the introduction of the French system into the Austrian dominions. The metre and the gramme have become universal in books and memoirs upon the experimental sciences written in any European language. For scientific purposes the centigrade thermometer also is almost always employed. In England and in this country an excessively cumbrous and difficult system of weights and measures is still adhered to. In the French system there is a very simple relation between the unit of measure and the unit of weight. A cube of pure water of which the side measures one-hundredth of a metre weighs one gramme, the French unit of weight. The English weights and measures are compared together by the following rules: 277,274 cubic inches constitute an imperial gallon, and the gallon of pure water weighs ten avoirdupois pounds. The troy pound is to the avoirdupois pound as 144 to 175. Under the French system all substances and commodities are sold by the same weights and measures, viz.: the gramme and litre and their decimal multiples. Under our system every different trade seems to have its peculiar weights and measures. Grocers, apothecaries, coal-dealers, liquor-dealers, grain-merchants, and tailors, have all their separate units of weight and measure, and the confusion which results is tolerated only because long

usage has accustomed the community to inconveniences which they believe to be inevitable. We copied our weights and measures directly from England; our system is, therefore, not in any sense a national one, and no national pride will prevent our copying a better one. In fact, we first demonstrated the convenience of a decimal system when, in establishing our coinage, we took the old Spanish dollar for our unit and divided it into dimes and cents. Later, the French applied the decimal system to weights and measures. The English Parliament has taken one step toward the introduction of the metrical system; a very short one to be sure, after the English fashion of making haste slowly, but still a step worthy of attention, and perhaps of imitation. Parliament has sanctioned the legal use of the metrical system; contracts may be made in the terms of this system. The enactment is merely permissive. To second this action of Parliament the British Association for the Advancement of Science made an appropriation for erecting, in conspicuous places, mural tablets, bearing the metre and its subdivisions, with the double object of familiarizing the public with the difference between the yard and the metre, and of presenting accessible standards for purposes of ready comparison. At a recent meeting of the Chemical Society of London a discussion took place on the best material for mural standards of length. Platinum, gilded brass, aluminium bronze, common bronze, gun-metal, cast-iron, and porcelain were all considered, the weight of opinion inclining to the cheaper substances, on the ground that extreme accuracy was not at all essential, and hardly attainable under such circumstances.

The subject has been repeatedly brought to the notice of our own Government and people in years past, and a proposition looking to the general introduction of the French system has been made in Congress during the present session. It is greatly to be wished that a hearty effort might now be made to carry this great measure. In these revolutionary times one more change in the habits of the people will not be hard to make. The metrical system was born of revolution in 1790.

When the chief nations of the world have but a single, uniform system of weights, measures, and coinage, what a simplification will be effected in commerce, travelling, and the affairs of common life! One large part of the curse which fell upon us at Babel will be removed, the arithmetics will have to be re-written, at least a year of life will be saved to every child, and the occupation of countless clerks all the world over will be for ever gone.

—About a year ago two young men, one a German, the other an Englishman, assistants in Dr. Odling's laboratory at London, were killed by inhaling a compound of mercury, called mercuric methide, whose poisonous properties were then not fully understood. It was one of those terrible accidents to which the pioneers in chemistry are inevitably exposed. An ignorant, and apparently malicious, person some time afterwards wrote an article for the "Cosmos" of Paris, accusing Dr. Odling of ignorance, selfishness, and cowardice, and warning young German chemists against the ill-treatment and dangers to which assistants in English laboratories were exposed. A controversy arose about the matter, which has at last drawn from Dr. A. W. Hofmann a very strong letter in defense of Dr. Odling. The immediate point in controversy is of little interest to us, but the strong opinions he expresses concerning English chemistry and chemists are worthy of notice. Dr. Hofmann is a German by birth and education, but he has lived twenty years in London and there attained such eminence that he had no superior among the many distinguished chemists in the great metropolis. He added to his scientific attainments a practical ability which secured to him an ample fortune, mainly in consequence of his study of aniline, the base of the innumerable colors which now bear this name. Last spring he returned to his native country, accepting an appointment as professor of chemistry in the University of Berlin. A very intense and constantly increasing prejudice against England exists throughout Germany, and Dr. Hofmann's strong expressions of feeling are especially interesting in the face of this widespread prejudice. Speaking of the feelings and opinions of a great number of his countrymen employed in the London laboratories whom he had known during his long residence there, Dr. Hofmann says: "Most of them were full of the amiable and honorable character of their employers, of their varied experience and insight into the grand forms of English life which these positions afforded them, and of the advantages which they hoped to derive therefrom in their future careers. Many of them have since made their way from these places to positions of importance in science and manufactures." And again, advising his young countrymen to enter the English laboratories whenever opportunity offers, he says: "In the manifold relations which link chemical science to life in England, they will find an inexhaustible store of instruction and incentive, and in the chemists of England they will become acquainted with the most honorable and trustworthy of men, well representing the great and splendid virtues of the English nation, among which stands uppermost the love of truth."

—The refuse matters and filth of dense populations can be got rid of in various ways. Daily removal in pails, by hand, is the Chinese method, employed with only slight modification in many towns of Europe to this day. In Berlin, for example, the semi-solid refuse is removed from the houses in pails, and emptied into loosely-closed carts, in which it is carried through the city streets out into the country. The labor of this daily removal is performed in many parts of Germany by women—a fact which forcibly illustrates a fundamental difference between German civilization and ours. Another method is that of temporary deposit in a more or less suitable receptacle, which is emptied at considerable intervals. In villages this method produces the manure-heap at each man's door, a species of savings-bank but too familiar to all who have travelled in Switzerland or Germany. In cities this system produces the tight cesspool, which must be periodically cleaned. A third method, of only partial application, may be called, for distinction, the dry-dirt method. Dry loam or ashes are mixed with the fœcal-matters in such quantity as to absorb entirely the emanations which would otherwise be offensive. This method is economical from the farmer's point of view, and by the help of some ingenious mechanical contrivance may be made effectual and useful in the country, or in small towns where the population is not crowded. The modern system of water-draining proceeds on the principle that the refuse of our houses had better be got out of sight as quickly as possible, and washed away through underground pipes into the sea, the lake, or the river, where its abominations can no longer offend us. There can be no question that the first of these methods is the most economical, though the most offensive. By it every constituent of the refuse which is of value to the agriculturist is promptly returned to the soil without waste by volatilization or dilution. There can be as little doubt that the sewage system is the most cleanly and convenient, and therefore the safest and best for crowded cities. But this system is open to two strong objections, one of which is general, and the other especially applicable to inland cities. First, the system is intrinsically wasteful; all the valuable fertilizing constituents of the city refuse, which the farmer and market-gardener so much need, are first diluted with a flood of water and then poured into the sea or the river. So long as it is impossible to utilize these matters without spending upon them more than they are worth, the community must pay a high price for its gain in comfort and health. Secondly, when an inland town pours its sewage into the river on which it lies, the waters of the river are polluted, and unless the river be a very large one, injurious emanations may arise from it, especially when the water is low; the fish may be injured or driven away, and towns lower down upon the same river and drawing their drinking water from the stream will get the benefit of all the sewage of the towns above them. These objections are strong enough, when added to the severe first cost of the underground sewers, to have prevented the introduction in many places of a system otherwise so desirable. A commission was appointed by the Prussian Government, in 1864, to visit England and report upon the system of water-drainage. The report of the commission was adverse to the system. At a convention of some twelve hundred agricultural proprietors, last summer, in Dresden, a discussion of this subject resulted in an almost unanimous condemnation of the sewage system, chiefly, of course, on the ground of its wastefulness. In England a large party has arisen to advocate a return to the cesspool system, in spite of its very grave inconveniences and dangers. Under these circumstances all endeavors to find a practicable method of utilizing sewage waters are of public interest and importance. Dr. Gilbert has very lately communicated to the Chemical Society of London some valuable experiments and estimates upon this subject. The various estimates of the money value of the sewage of large towns are more nearly in accord than we should have been inclined to anticipate. Liebig's original estimate of the value of the London sewage was $0.08 per ton, but in 1863 he reduced his estimate to $0.032 per ton. Mr. Way's estimates for London were $0.04 per ton, and Dr. Hofmann's $0.042 per ton. The sewage of the town of Rugby was found by Dr. Gilbert to be worth on an average $0.033 per ton. Lawes and Gilbert calculated that the sewage of a dense mixed population would be worth $1 60 per head per annum. Dr. Odling deduced from experiments upon the outfall of the great sewers north of the Thames the value of $1 68 per head per annum. It is obvious that the really valuable ingredients of sewage are diluted with such a bulk of water that no labor can be profitably spent upon the sewage. It must flow by gravitation, be disinfected by the soil, and be evaporated by the sun and wind. In short, it must be used for irrigation, if any profit

is to be won from it. But if sewage is to be used for irrigation, two points must first be clearly established. It must be proved that there are crops which will be benefited by the application of sewage, and further, that the offensive constituents of the sewage will be effectually absorbed by the soil of the irrigated field, so that the residual water which drains from them will be clean and sweet. On both these points Dr. Gilbert furnishes satisfactory information. At Rugby, four like parcels of ground, fifteen acres in all, were laid out with grass; three of these fields were irrigated with different proportion of sewage, and one was left in the ordinary condition. The experiments lasted three years, and the following table gives the average weight of green grass raised on each field during these three years:

	Tons.	Cwt.
1. Not irrigated	9	6
2. Irrigated with 3,000 tons sewage	22	5
3. " 6,000 "	30	6
4. " 9,000 "	32	12

In the following year no application of sewage was made, but plots 2, 3, and 4 still retained their luxuriance. Dr. Gilbert made experiments at Rugby and Croydon which proved that only very small quantities of ammonia escaped absorption by the soil of the irrigated fields. Croydon sewage, which contained 6.7 grains of ammonia per gallon before irrigation, gave only 0.21 grains per gallon after. The conclusions at which Dr. Gilbert arrives are briefly these: first, the liberal use of water is essential to the prompt and thorough removal of the refuse matters of large populations; secondly, the discharge of sewage into rivers should not be permitted, because of the danger to the public health, the injury to fish, and the waste of valuable manure, which result therefrom; thirdly, the best mode of purifying and utilizing sewage is to apply it to land; fourthly, grass is the crop best fitted for the application of sewage; fifthly, the general application of town sewage to grass land would greatly increase the production of milk and meat, and, indirectly, would produce, through the consumption of the grass, a large amount of solid manure applicable to all kinds of crops.

Two arguments urged by the opponents of irrigation by sewage waters remain to be considered. It is asserted that a large extent of fields so irrigated would be an intolerable and very dangerous nuisance in the vicinity of cities, and that the troublesome diseases caused by parasitical animals might be greatly increased if the circuit from human food through grass and the grass-eating animal to human food again were made so short and quick.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Saturday Evening,
March 24, 1866.

A further decline has taken place in gold. To-day it sold as low as 124¾, and closed at 125¼. Notwithstanding the decline, exchange continues dull and heavy at 107½ to 107⅝ for bankers' bills—say two points below the rate at which coin can be shipped as a remittance. These are very remarkable facts. Gold has not been as low since the fall of Fort Wagner, when it was generally supposed at the North that the war was at an end. Exchange has not been as low, with one brief exception, since the war broke out. Government has had nothing to do with the decline in either gold or bills. No more gold has been sold, and no bills have been drawn against any public funds deposited abroad. In both instances the fall must be ascribed to the natural operations of trade. Gold has fallen because the supply has been in excess of the demand; because everybody believes that specie payments are going to be resumed within a given period, and hence everybody, South as well as North, who has hoarded gold is throwing it upon the market for sale; while, on the other hand, no one wants gold for investment, and no one dares to buy gold on speculation. Exchange has fallen because the balance of trade between this country and Europe is in our favor; because we are shipping more cotton and bonds to Europe than we are drawing merchandise from thence; and because our people are steadily withdrawing from London the money sent thither during the war. Gold is quite scarce; throughout the week from 1-16 to 3-16 of 1 per cent. have been paid for its use for a single day. Under these circumstances it would be rash to attempt to set a limit to its probable fall. One set of people say it may decline to 122, another to 120. But it is clear that the arguments in favor of a decline would apply as cogently at 120 as at 127. There has been, as we showed a week or two since, no real increase of the currency for twelve months, and since New Year there has been a commencement of contraction. Confidence once really restored, the legal tenders might rise to par within a year without very much further curtailment of the currency.

In the progress toward par, grave commercial embarrassment would probably be encountered. Houses involved in debt might be compelled to suspend. Speculators loaded with goods and merchandise might be bankrupted. But careful merchants, who had done business for cash, kept small stocks, and sailed close in shore, would merely lose a portion of last year's profits. The process is already initiated. All the merchandise, produce, and dry goods markets continue paralyzed. Staple goods are being reshipped to Europe. A heavy decline in domestics has failed to attract buyers, and severe losses will fall upon manufacturers and their agents. Fancy goods (imported) are being sacrificed, the product of auction sales failing, in many instances, to pay the duty alone. Produce is steadily tending downward; heavy failures among Western speculators in breadstuffs and provisions are inevitable. Even those articles of general merchandise which are sold for gold, and which might be expected to improve on the decline in specie, are no more salable now than they were a few weeks ago. Some of the papers seem to contemplate a panic in merchandise and a crash among the merchants. No such occurrence is probable. The bulk of the trade of the city of New York has been for six months conducted upon such conservative principles that no general crash can be caused by the decline in prices. Speculators in produce and breadstuffs and here and there a few manufacturing companies will fail. But merchants generally have sold for cash, and the profits of last year's trade are generally sufficient to meet any losses from the few sales made on credit this spring.

The Morrill Loan Bill, after a recommitment to the Ways and Means Committee, was again reported to the House yesterday and passed by a large majority. The bill as passed provides that the Secretary of the Treasury shall not contract over 10 millions of greenbacks in the six months next ensuing after the passage of the bill, or over 4 millions in any subsequent month. This concession to the demands of manufacturers and speculators is not likely to satisfy the country; it ought not to satisfy the Senate or the President. At this rate, it would require many years to place the currency in a sound position, and during the whole period of transition the commerce of the country would be liable to severe fluctuations. It was argued by Mr. Boutwell and by several members from Pennsylvania—in the interest of manufacturing companies—that gold is declining fast enough without any legislative measures. No one, it seems, in Congress, thought of the obvious reply, that the decline in gold is due to the general belief that Congress will contract the currency, and that were it once generally understood that the views of Mr. Stevens and Mr. Boutwell were going to prevail, gold would be 150 in a fortnight. It was also urged that contraction would have the effect of closing forges, manufacturing establishments, etc., and that therefore it was unadvisable. But is there any reason for believing that we could contract any less painfully two or five years hence than now? Is it not clear, on the contrary, that the longer the painful process is deferred, the more severe it will prove? In a very short time, as Mr. McCulloch well observed in his report to Congress, if we go on as we are doing, we shall have a commercial crisis compared to which the crash of 1837 and that of 1857 were mere summer showers. It can only be averted by checking at once the tendency to expansion, extravagance, and excessive expenditure—by reducing the currency from its present swollen proportions to something like the normal volume required for the business of the country, and by compelling the banks to reduce their discounts to something like the average before the war. This is what is sought by the Secretary and his supporters in applying to Congress for legislative aid. If they succeed, we shall have one or two years of declining prices and hard times. But when they are over, our American dollar will be as good as the dollar of any other nation, and we may succeed in passing from a paper money régime to

a hard money régime without the crash which such a transition has usually involved.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets throughout the week:

	March 17.	March 24.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅛	104⅞	¾	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103¾	103⅞	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103¾	103¾	....	....
10-40 Bonds	90⅞	90⅝	....	¼
7.30 Notes, second series	99¾	100	¼	....
New York Central	92¾	92¾	....	....
Erie Railway	82½	80⅜	....	1¼
Hudson River	106	109	3	....
Reading Railroad	100¼	101¾	1½	....
Michigan Southern	78½	81½	3	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	78¾	79¾	1	....
Chicago and North-western	27½	27½	....	⅜
" " " Preferred	54¼	55⅝	1⅜	....
Chicago and Rock Island	108½	116	7½	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	92¾	92	....	¾
Canton	47½	47	....	½
Cumberland	44½	44¼	....	¼
Mariposa	12	12	....	....
American Gold	129½	125	....	4½
Bankers' Bills on London	108	107¾	....	¼
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

A further general advance in stocks will be noticed. Encouraged by the failure of the original loan bill in Congress, by the ease of money at this centre, and by the excessive sales of the bears, the cliques have succeeded in running up prices to higher figures than they themselves at one time contemplated. Thus Rock Island, which, a week ago, was dull and dead at 108½, has been since done as high as 118½. In reply to a Washington correspondent, we can only say that if the clique chooses to buy up all the floating stock, as they now seem inclined to do, the price may be put to 120, 150, 200, or 500. Whenever they want to sell, they will have to accept very much lower prices than those now ruling. The present direction will probably pay 5 per cent. dividend in April—no more. Speculators are, however, willing to give 10 per cent. for the April dividend, believing that something extra will be declared. Michigan Southern has sold as high as 83½. The company has not yet been able to pay Mr. Henry Keep the money he lent it in March, 1865, to pay the dividend paid at that time; yet speculators, gambling on the prospect of other men taking their stock off their hands at higher prices, are willing to buy at and above 80. Erie has shown marked weakness. The leading director, who is the greatest stock operator in Wall Street, is understood to have sold large quantities of stock, but not as much as he had previously bought. The expenses of running and keeping up the road in the year 1865 are said to have amounted to $12,000,000; they can hardly be any less this year. New York Central continues pretty firm on the prospect of the passage of the bill allowing the company to charge 3 cents per mile on express trains. Fort Wayne has been neglected. An active movement broke out at one time during the week in Reading, and sales were made as high as 103½. The advance, however, has not been maintained, and, as the Legislature of Pennsylvania has just chartered a rival road, many look for lower prices. A new party is said to have been lately organized in Cleveland and Pittsburgh; the stock sold as high as 82 at one time during the week, but closes lower. As a whole, the tendency of prices is downward, but this tendency is so often counteracted by the operations of cliques and by the oversales of the bears that speculators are losing money on both sides.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

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ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.
MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY.
37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS	$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE
At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the
PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,
pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby
(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)
of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed
FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,
the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.
☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.
NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.
ASHER TAYLOR, President.
H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

PACIFIC
MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,
TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - - - - $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,240

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.
ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.
THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE
AND
TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,
243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,
EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,
Issues
LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,
And Ensures Against
ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for $3,000, with $15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, $25 for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.
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S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.
J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...		$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.		
For premiums and policy fees:		
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94	
Renewals	1,818,654 82	
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40
Interest:		
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88	
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52	
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06
Rent		55,833 34 — $3,853,065 80
Total		$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:		
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40	
Paid Annuities	10,242 55	
Paid Taxes	38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:		
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25	
Real Estate	782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85
Add:		
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR		$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

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SIXTEENTH ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

Income for 1865, ...	$715,899 15
Paid Losses by 35 Deaths, ...	99,900 00
Paid Dividends—return premiums, ...	69,160 67

Assets, Jan. 1, 1866, $1,530,877 17.

The comparative growth of this Company is shown by its increased receipts during the past four years, ending 1st November. From

	For premiums.	*For interest.*
November, '61, to November '62	$150,927 18	$35,319 52
November, '62, to November, '63	198,202 68	38,628 50
November, '63, to November, '64	300,196 85	51,768 75
November, '64, to November, '65	551,571 47	67,354 87

A printed list of LOSSES PAID BY THIS COMPANY, of ten pages, will be forwarded on application, and is given chiefly for the purpose of fairly showing the diversity of interests, occupations, and professions represented by its patrons and beneficiaries, as also the widely extended field of its business and its bestowments—to the amount of $944,000; and in addition thereto there has been PAID IN DIVIDENDS $419,000, making a total of more than one and one-third millions of dollars; thus, at the same time, returning to the surviving policy-holders a large percentage of their past investments in premiums, and beneficently providing for the support of the widows and orphans of the deceased.

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COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.
JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.
CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

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Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

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PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,
BROOKLYN, N. Y.
OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - - - - - - -	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - -	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

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PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,
OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - -	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - -	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.
CHARTERED 1850.
Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.
NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

Insurance Scrip.
WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
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MARCH 1, 1866.

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BOSTON, February 29, 1848.
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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 40. THURSDAY, APRIL 5, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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The Week.

THE event of the week has, of course, been the President's message vetoing the civil rights bill. We have commented on it elsewhere It is amongst the most discreditable of our state papers. Its logic is that of a stump speech, and its law would hardly pass current in a college moot court. The President's friends must surely be sorely beset when they point to his statement that a bill for the investment of American negroes with ordinary civil rights is a discrimination against newly arrived foreigners owing allegiance to a foreign power and offering no adequate proof of their intention to make their homes here, as evidence of his statesmanship. Foreigners have to submit to a five years' probation before acquiring citizenship because, first of all, they owe allegiance when they get here to a foreign power, and this they have to cast off unmistakably. Secondly, they all have to give some substantial proof that they mean to live here, and the only proof of this they *can* give is staying here for a few years. The presumption is that a newly arrived stranger will want to go back again; he can only get rid of it by settling down. The negro is born here, owes allegiance to this Government, has never owed it to any other, and is about as likely to quit the country as to turn traitor; so that the two principal reasons for subjecting foreigners to a period of probation are in his case wanting. And then, if laws be intended for the benefit of the weak and obnoxious, which needs protection more, black natives or white foreigners?

THE Senate of the United States, in losing its oldest member, Hon. Solomon Foot, of Vermont, has lost, as in the case of his colleague, Judge Collamore, a legislator who would do honor to any country—simple, dignified, incorruptible, imbued with the highest principles of Christian, republican government. We are reminded by his death, as we have often been before, of the worth of the State which he represented, and its choice of a successor will receive the confidence due from the public to a community rich in men and in an unblemished political record.

AN eight-hour bill has been thrown out in the New York Legislature. In that of Pennsylvania, one has made some progress, and is almost farcical in its absurdity. An attempt was made to bring house-servants under its operation, thus suspending all work in kitchens at two o'clock, and we must say we are sorry it did not succeed, as the fun of the bill would have then been all the greater, while the mischief would have been no greater. Farmers and farm laborers are exempted from its operation, as if they did not need their afternoons for literary pursuits, while lumbermen on the other hand are tied down to eight hours, by which they will be considerably amused. We need hardly say that the lumbermen and everybody else will work as much as they please, all acts to the contrary notwithstanding. The only value these bills have lies in the evidence they afford of the lengths to which demagogues can go in gulling working-men. A similar bill has been defeated in the California House. The Senate passed it with an amendment providing that it should not go into effect until Massachusetts and New York passed similar bills. Hardly a manly or dignified way for senators to deal with the question.

THERE is now a movement on foot in New York to get the Legislature to punish the landlords for asking high rents. This is the proper supplement of the eight-hour movement. Do not let builders work more than eight hours a day; then, if many houses are not built, and house-rents rise, keep the rents down by law, and in this way a rush of capital into the building business will be caused that will be perfectly wonderful, and we shall all have houses for an old song, except the hateful, hard-hearted political economists. It might be well to pass another act compelling all disciples of Adam Smith, Mill, and Ricardo to live in tents and do their own cooking.

WE print on another page a vindication of General Sheridan, in the case of General Warren. We have compared it carefully with the latter's pamphlet, and see no reason to reverse our previous decision. "A staff officer" must perceive the futility of comparing the movement of a victorious enemy on ground not yet debated, with that of the troops which they had just checked, over a region interrupted both by battle and by the weather, and in darkness which was a help in the one instance and a formidable hindrance in the other. The question is not so much what General Grant expected, and what General Sheridan expected in consequence, as whether these expectations were rational in the premises, and whether General Warren failed to order the advance as soon as directed by General Meade and with all possible despatch It is certain that he volunteered to move to Sheridan's rescue twenty minutes before instructions came to send one of his divisions. Thus much of the controversy may be settled by official despatches. Where it is a question of individual veracity concerning motives and moods of mind, General Sheridan undoubtedly has a right to his own impressions, but we do not know what answer can be made to General Warren's contradiction of them.

THEY had a constitutional election in Wisconsin in 1849, from which it never clearly appeared whether the word white was stricken out or not from the fundamental law. The Supreme Court of the State decided last week in the affirmative, and sustained the right of colored citizens to vote. So much the stronger becomes the attitude of the North in exacting impartial suffrage of the revolted States.

THE trichina question will be found fully discussed in our Scientific Notes, and as a correct summing up may there be read of all that is known about it, it may be of some use to those who have been bewildered during the last few weeks by the pork-dealers' theory, and the butchers' theory, and that most confusing theory of all, the reporters' theory. It will be seen that there is more cause for alarm than owners of hogs are perhaps willing to admit.

A GOOD deal is said of General Lee's testimony before the Reconstruction Committee. It did not, however, contain a single fact

of importance, and was given very guardedly. He told the old story of Southern resignation, and gave the usual account of the theory on which he and others joined the secessionist army. He says that he either did take or would have taken the oath of allegiance to the Confederacy; but the question very naturally occurs: Would not this be a useless form if a man is bound by the action of his State? What is the use of an oath of allegiance which another power can at any time force you to break?

The endorsement which the President ought to have written on Postmaster Cleveland's letter, but did not, was this: "The duty of an United States postmaster is to see that the mails are regularly despatched, letters carefully and punctually distributed, the accounts of his office accurately kept, and the complaints of the owners of missing letters thoroughly investigated. His proper place during the day is his post-office; the time he spends at political meetings, or engaged in electioneering, is generally fraudulently abstracted from the public service. It is no business of yours as postmaster what opinions either General Hawley or Mr. English holds. You are concerned with them solely as a private person, and your coming to the conclusion that you ought to support the latter is no more a reason for writing to me about it, or offering me your resignation, than your changing your cook, or quarrelling with your tailor, would be. At the same time, I feel bound to mention that, if I hear of your absenting yourself from your office during business hours for the purpose of taking part in political canvasses, my duty to the public, to which you owe your entire time, will compel me to ask you to retire."

The latest piece of wisdom produced by the presidential organs is the assertion by the Washington *Union* that the unseating of Mr. Stockton by the Senate was "an act of revolution" and "treason." It adds that "if the radicals persevere in their course for the future as swiftly as they have for the past few weeks, they should be arrested for treason." It adds that the "times are critical," a sentiment in which we entirely agree. We must protest against the notion, however, that the radicals are advancing with half the swiftness of their enemies. Philosophers who have in the short period of nine months not only succeeded in wresting from Congress all control over the most important legislative process which any government was ever called upon to perform, but have actually got to the point of denying the right of the Senate to judge of the qualifications of its own members, and of accusing senators of treason for attempting to exercise it, can hardly be outdone in energy and quickness.

Another Jerseyman is blest with a clear conscience. The Hon. James M. Scovel is the fortunate man, and but for so invaluable a possession it is doubtful if he would have been made president of the Senate of New Jersey. For his conscience seems to shade off into self-consciousness and conceit, and his egotism into egoism, and he has been able so to turn the screws on the Republican party as to force them to endorse his flattering opinion of himself. He is just now taking another turn, by which he blocks the election of a successor to Mr. Stockton in the United States Senate, unless the candidate shall be selected from a certain number of gentlemen whom he names; or, in other words, unless a very prominent candidate shall be discarded. We do not credit the insinuation that Mr. Scovel forbears to nominate himself till the auspicious moment arrives, for he declares he is right within the doors of his own conscience, and, as he says, "a man with an empty pocket can defy the world, the flesh, and the devil." But when he adds, "I again take my appeal from the politicians to the people whose servant I am, and who, by the grace of God, I will never betray," we are reminded unpleasantly of a similar speech from President Johnson; and the parallel is not weakened by recent Democratic serenades at Camden.

One step towards supplying the working classes with innocent amusements has been taken in the First Ward of this city, by an association which is about opening a reading and coffee-room to compete with the vile resorts of that locality. The prime object of such an establishment is to provide young men who have no proper homes or tolerable lodgings with a rendezvous in which their social cravings may be satisfied aloof from temptation. Light, warmth, good fare, and a liberal supply of newspapers are all that is needed for this. A regular attendance once secured, the usual attractions of the club may be largely varied by lectures, concerts, stereoscopic exhibitions, and the like. The success of this experiment has a deep interest for the public.

The liquor-dealers of Massachusetts have lost their case before the Supreme Court at Washington, being assured by Justice Wayne that the internal revenue license cannot make that traffic lawful which the State has pronounced unlawful. About twenty-five hundred persons are said to be affected by this decision, and to owe the State, in consequence, nearly half a million of dollars in accumulated fines. Their next and only resort is Congress, whom they hope to persuade to pass Mr. Clay Smith's bill, already noticed by us as embodying an anti-State-rights heresy, and evidently framed in the "Bourbon" interest. The argument of one of their counsel before the Committee of Ways and Means was remarkable in at least one particular—that the prohibition of the sale of liquor in Massachusetts threw a heavier and unjust burthen of taxation on other States. He might as well have added that the tax on manufactures imposed a heavier (and therefore unjust?) burthen on Massachusetts than on Illinois or South Carolina.

The intercepted letter of Clement C. Clay, which is now circulating through the press, does infinite credit to that state prisoner as a Christian moralist and warrior. He will answer for the leader in the St. Albans raid that he is "an honest man, a true soldier, and a patriot," chiefly, it appears, because he was capable of such delicate distinctions as were involved in his plan of "retaliation" upon the North. Lieut. Young had assured Mr. Clay that "his efforts would be to burn towns and farm-houses, not to plunder or rob; but he said, if after firing a town he saw he could take funds from a bank, or anything which might inflict injury on the enemy, and benefit his own Government, he would do so." Mr. Clay's instructions, "oft repeated," were to the same effect; and this Confederate view of honesty and legitimate warfare and patriotism is perhaps the reason why he now languishes at Fort Monroe.

That the people of the South should bear the people of the North ill-will, and should even hate us in their fashion, was only to be expected, at the close of a war in which they had lost their cause and suffered enormous detriment. We have a right, however, to be surprised that their contempt for us is at least as great as ever, and that their belief in their superiority has been unshaken by the events of the past five years. This is General Terry's testimony before the Reconstruction Committee, and that of many other witnesses of high and low degree. It would be curious to learn how much this feeling has been strengthened since the President's "policy" began to transpire, and how much is due to our seeming inability to reap from victory its natural fruits. What, further, are the means by which we shall remove the ignorance on which this contempt is based? Without protection for loyal citizens, black and white, resident and immigrant; without protection for the church and the school-house from the torch of the incendiary; and with rebellious newspapers in full blast and free speech threatened with Judge Lynch, we shall certainly continue to be despised and deserve to be richly. Force was the only thing not despicable in the eyes of Southern whites, and to relax our grasp before submission is complete is to forfeit the respect of those who expected that the loser would pay.

Stephens, the Irish Head Centre, is said to be on his way to this country, and to have advised his followers at home to postpone active operations, and attend to civil pursuits. As nobody was engaged in warlike pursuits unless running away from the police merits that appellation, this advice seems superfluous. But we presume the turn of Canada will now come in earnest, and that the conquest of that country will not be long delayed. The form of government has probably not yet been fixed on, but it will, no doubt, be a limited monarchy of forty or fifty kings, who will all "keep open house."

Mr. Gladstone introduced the Government reform bill in the House of Commons on the 12th ult. The measure postpones the redistribution of seats, and looks simply to a reduction of the franchise—in the county, from £50 to a £14 occupation of a house with or without land, and the same for possessors of copyholds and leaseholds in parliamentary boroughs; in the borough, from £10 to £7 rental. The first reduction will affect considerably the great landholders; the working-men will be the chief gainers by the second, forming from a third to a half of the voters to be added to the constituent body. About two in five of them, according to Mr. Gladstone, will then be represented. He thought it quite likely the opposition would keep the bill from reaching the House of Lords before the middle of July. A free nation, as M. Thiers well remarked across the Channel, is a being compelled to reflect before acting.

The Paris *Débats* was among the liberal journals abroad which were confused by the President's appeal from the radicals to the Constitution in his first veto message. Later intelligence has enabled it to perceive the false distinction between the radicals and the loyal majority of the people. The transparent sophistry which classed Messrs. Sumner and Stevens with the leaders of rebellion was enough to reverse the mistaken judgment of Europe. The conflict of to-day is seen to be a renewal of that of yesterday, and the friends of the one civilization or the other take sides as they did before.

Probably never since midsummer of 1790, when the Champ de Mars was scooped out into a mighty amphitheatre around the *autel de la patrie*, has that field been the scene of such activity as now. Fine weather has greatly favored work on the building for the Exposition of 1867, and the foundation is now completed and the framework beginning to rise. An enterprising photographer, M. Petit, has purchased the monopoly of taking all the views—interior and exterior—of the palace, whether general or in detail. A brother artist has secured the right to erect within the area of the park an international *atelier de photographie*, where the artists of all the world may obtain saloons in which to exhibit their proficiency in taking portraits, etc. This will be a little exposition in itself, and of an art in active operation.

M. Guizot, in welcoming M. Prévost-Paradol to the French Academy, referred to the attachment of his predecessor, M. Ampère, to the city of Rome as a place of residence and as an historical study; and he added in this connection, that enlightened and fair-minded men were reluctant to believe that the future of a people demands the ruin of its past, or that it is impossible to ensure the Romans their just share of social progress and liberty without altering and destroying the situation of the European chief of the Catholic Church. This ought to be comfort to the Pope, coming as it does from so eminent a Protestant; but he has none the less composed a prayer to avert the impending catastrophe—"civitatem istam circumda, tu Domine."

The powers which signed the treaty of Paris have re-assembled, through their representatives, at that city, to take care of the Danubian Principalities, which, like all the petty states of Europe, are generally regarded as incapable of taking care of themselves. In accordance with this theory neither Wallachia nor Moldavia is represented in the conference.

Florence and Turin contended last summer for the honor of entertaining at its next session the International Association for the Advancement of Science. The ancient capital has won, and the association will sit this year at Turin. The new kingdom will be able to furnish it with some exceedingly interesting statistics. Besides those we have noted at various times, it appears that the Italian navy carries one-sixth as many guns as the French, one-tenth as many as the English, and one-sixth *more* than the Austrian. Of steam-vessels it has one-fourth as many as France, one-fifth as many as England, and *twice* as many as Austria. The cost of the naval establishment is one-fourth that of France, one-seventh that of England, and only one-fourth more than that of Austria. Or, if we look at the press of Italy, we find that on December 31, 1865, she counted 372 newspapers; that Florence had 42 periodicals, Naples and Turin 44, Genoa 41, and Milan 51. Some of the names are a curious study. In a given mail the *Inferno* and the *Garden of Mary*, the *Troubadour* and the *Frog*, *Minerva* and the *Ass*, the *Wasp* and the *Devil's Tail*, may be brought in more or less congenial juxtaposition.

The Government in Italy have been a good deal disturbed by demonstrations throughout the peninsula, in which the names of the two Josephs—Mazzini and Garibaldi—have been celebrated together. At Florence a public meeting was held, on the 11th ult., to applaud the election at Messina and to form a committee to work in unison with those great leaders "for the speedy completion of the national revolution." At Palermo the liberal Germans were invited to participate, on the 19th, in a fête in honor of the two republicans.

Hungary, under the lead of Deák, refuses to compromise with Francis Joseph. It must be ministry first, and mutual concessions afterwards. The Emperor's choice is asserted to lie between absolute despotism and sincere constitutionalism.

CONGRESS.

Washington, March 30, 1866.

The Senate chamber, on the transmission of the President's second veto message, was again the scene of profound though subdued excitement. Its reading was uninterrupted by any demonstrations of applause or disapproval, and the thronged galleries sat in hushed expectation of the vote which was expected to follow. But the desire of Senator Trumbull to defend the civil rights bill, of which he was the principal author, against the objections of the President, and a general feeling that nothing would be lost by delay, carried an adjournment of the question to the next day. The decease of Senator Foot intervening postponed the issue to Monday next. The utmost confidence prevails that the bill is to be sustained by the constitutional majority of two-thirds. This belief is strengthened by the scope and tenor of the message—so much more hostile to the style of legislation with which Congress has deemed it proper to guard the rights of the freedmen than was expected by many. Should the bill repass in the Senate, its success in the House is regarded as certain. This result would necessarily part still more widely the executive and legislative branches of the Government, and would perhaps lead to that final and irreparable breach which has all along been predicted, when the President would no longer feel himself bound to carry out the wishes of the party which elected him.

However much of comfort and encouragement may have been derived by the late Democratic party from the present state of things, it is not true that the President contemplates what they most desire—an identification of his administration with their men and measures. On the contrary, the more he is vexed and thwarted in his own favorite policy of reconstruction by the radical majority in Congress, the more fixed and determined does he become to repudiate the Democracy on the one hand and the radical Republicans on the other, and to found, if possible, a new party which shall reject what he deems the heresies of both. This experiment may be hazardous, but it is not unprecedented, and in it there is much reason to believe the President finds the only door of hope for the success of his administration. Relying upon popular support for the national policy which he has marked out for himself, he has long since discarded the expectation of winning the majority in Congress to his views. That majority, too, alienated by the Executive prohibitions put upon its favorite measures, appears no longer to be solicitous of harmony, but is distrustful, defiant, and sometimes needlessly irritating and disrespectful in its bearing toward that co-ordinate branch of the Government which the President represents. A marked sign of this was manifest during the reading of the veto message in the Senate. The leading members of that body paid little or no attention to the message, but were busily and even noisily caucusing among themselves, with rolls of the Senate in their hands, to cast up

the chances of overcoming the veto before its communication to the body was yet finished. The indecorum was once or twice checked by the presiding officer in a call to order.

The defeat of the bankrupt bill in the House is scarcely regarded as final. Its reconsideration will come up on Wednesday, when the narrow majority of fourteen against it may be overcome by the presence of many heretofore absent friends of the bill.

Next to the veto of the civil rights bill, the unseating of a New Jersey senator occupies all tongues. A purely legal question, it was deferred for two months, then settled, as was supposed, in favor of his title to a seat by the one vote of the senator himself—then reconsidered and reversed by one vote, nine Republicans voting in favor of the claimant's right to a seat.

DIARY.

Monday, March 26, 1866.—In the Senate, the entire day was occupied with the question of reconsidering the vote of the next preceding session, by which Mr. Stockton was declared entitled to a seat as a senator from New Jersey. The ground on which the reconsideration was based was that Mr. Stockton had voted in his own favor, thus carrying the resolution by a majority of one. The vote being reconsidered, a motion was put and carried that the vote of Mr. Stockton be not received in determining the question of his seat in the Senate. The question was then laid over.

In the House, Mr. Rogers, of New Jersey, made a speech, in support of his resolutions on the Federal debt, the rebel debt, etc., after which they were laid over till next Monday. The bill to amend the postal laws was amended by striking out the section authorizing the department to sell stamped envelopes at the price of the stamps, and passed. Mr. Dawes reported, from the Committee on Elections, a resolution that Hon. James Brooks is not, and that W. E. Dodge is, entitled to a seat in the House from the Eighth New York District.

March 27.—In the Senate, petitions for an International Copyright Law, for guarantees of a republican form of government, for the right of suffrage to women, for the establishment of a territorial government for Virginia, etc., were presented and referred. Mr. Fessenden, from the Finance Committee, reported the army and post-office appropriation bills from the House, with amendments. A bill to reimburse the State of West Virginia for expenses in calling out troops to suppress rebellion, was reported from the Military Committee. Mr. Stewart offered resolutions as a substitute for his former ones. They propose a constitutional amendment prohibiting discriminations in all the States in civil rights or the elective franchise on account of race or color, and on the adoption of this amendment by any late rebel State, provide for a general amnesty and representation of its people in Congress by their chosen representatives. Mr. Doolittle offered a bill to provide appropriate legislation to enforce the second clause of the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery. Referred. A bill transferring the custody of the library of the Smithsonian Institution to the Library of Congress was passed. A bill granting lands to the State of Minnesota to aid in constructing railroads was passed. The consideration of Mr. Stockton's case, as a senator from New Jersey, was resumed. Mr. Johnson moved to postpone until Thursday, to give an opportunity to Senator Wright, of New Jersey, to be present. Lost—yeas, 18; nays, 23. Mr. Stockton spoke nearly all day in defence of his claim to the seat. After debate by several senators, the resolution offered by Mr. Clark, from the minority of the Judiciary Committee, that Mr. Stockton is not entitled to a seat as senator from New Jersey, was adopted—yeas, 22; nays, 21. A motion to reconsider this vote was lost—yeas, 20; nays, 23. A message was received and read from the President, returning with his objections the act to protect all persons in the United States in their civil rights and furnish the means for their vindication.

In the House, a bill for the benefit of the Winnebago Indians was passed. The Senate amendments to the naval appropriation bill were made a special order for April 4. The bankrupt bill was discussed and amended, after which the previous question was demanded on its passage, and it was ordered, when the House adjourned.

March 28.—In the Senate, the decease of Senator Foot, of Vermont, was announced, and no business was done.

In the House, Mr. Morrill reported, from the Ways and Means Committee, a bill to postpone for two months the levy and collection of the income tax for the current year, with a view to an amendment of the law, now being prepared. Passed. On motion of Mr. Raymond, the Judiciary Committee was instructed to enquire into the expediency of reporting a law that no member whose name might be on the roll of the Clerk at the organization of the House shall participate in the election of Speaker or in other business until he has taken the oath prescribed by law. A bill to provide for settlement of the accounts of officers of the Freedmen's Bureau was passed. The vote was taken on the bankrupt bill, and it was lost—yeas, 59; nays, 73. On a motion to reconsider this vote, and to lay the motion to reconsider on the table, the yeas were 59 and the nays 68. Mr. Beaman moved to postpone the motion to reconsider for one week, and it was carried—yeas, 75; nays, 36. A bill to extend the laws of Kansas over all lands in that State reserved for Indian tribes was laid on the table—yeas, 69; nays, 48. Mr. Stevens offered a constitutional amendment authorizing Congress to lay an export duty on cotton. Objected to.

March 29.—The funeral obsequies of Senator Foot were performed in the Senate Chamber, after which both Houses adjourned to Monday, April 2.

THE FREEDMEN.

The Bureau in the District is constantly engaged in sending to good homes in the North such colored people as are out of employment. Hundreds are thus despatched every month. The sanitary measures in Washington are being vigorously carried forward. The Government has altered over several of the barracks about the city into tenement-houses, and these are rented to the poorer colored people at about three dollars per month. These people had been, and still are in some places, paying from six to ten or twelve dollars for miserable cellars, hovels, and huts of one or two rooms. As a result of this action on the part of the Government, the owners of these shanties have lowered their prices and are improving their tenements.

The Secretary of the Freedmen's Savings and Trust Company furnishes us the following items concerning the bank, in order to correct a misstatement which appeared in the columns of The Nation two weeks ago: Total deposits to March 1, 1866, $303,303 94. Of this $96,000 00 has already been returned to depositors, which they for the most part have invested in lands and homesteads for their families. The balance now due depositors amounts to $207,000 00. During February $25,000 00 were deposited, and the amount for March will be even larger. There are only fourteen branches, instead of twenty-nine. In Washington over $25,000 00 have been deposited, instead of only $5,000 00.

From the Lynchburg District, Virginia, the officer reports that the freed people are nearly all at work. From Culpepper County the report is about the same, except that the farmers are obliged to bring their hands from Alexandria. The reports of the officers of the Bureau at Fredericksburg, Tappahannock, Orange C. H., show a favorable state of affairs. The agent for Surrey County reports that the whites are cruel and unjust toward the blacks; that they try to keep the freed people with them by force, pay them as little as possible, beat them, etc. The agent at Brentsville reports that the freed people are working well, and that the whites are disposed to deal somewhat kindly with them. The agent at Stafford C. H. reports that the state of affairs is very good, considering the former relations, though the whites seem to have a real hatred for the blacks. He gives the following illustration:

"William Armstrong, president of the Board of Overseers for Stafford County, when asked, 'In case the United States Government ceased to issue rations to the poor freedmen, whether the county would feed them or not?' answered, 'Not a damned bite will I give them; I would choose hell first!'"

From other parts of the State the reports seem to be more favorable than formerly. The great demand for labor has much to do with this.

From the report of an inspecting tour made through Kentucky by Peter Bonesteel, Esq., as an inspector for the Bureau, we make some extracts. He reports sixty cases of outrage in a limited district alone, "unparalleled in their atrocity and fiendishness; cruelties for which, in no instance, as developed by the testimony, is there the least shadow of excuse or palliation." He says:

"I have classed these outrages as follows: Twenty-three cases of most severe and inhuman whipping of men, four of beating and shooting, two of robbing and shooting, three of robbing, five men shot and killed, two shot and wounded, four beaten to death, one beaten and roasted, three women assaulted and ravished, four women beaten, two women tied up and whipped until insensible, two men and their families beaten and driven from their homes and their property destroyed, two instances of the burning of dwellings and one of the inmates shot. Of these victims twelve men were Union soldiers, and three women the wives of Union soldiers."

The reports from Mississippi are very encouraging. The schools are increasing. Colonel Thomas says the demand for labor protects the freed people from violence. The whites are displaying great energy in obtaining means to cultivate the land.

In regard to the county court which he visited at Natchez, he says:

"I can report no objection to their proceedings, as the freedmen were allowed every privilege granted white men, and in cases where they were too poor to provide attorneys, counsel was assigned to them by the judge.

"The mayor and other officers of the city of Natchez expressed themselves well pleased with the conduct of the freedmen and the Bureau officers."

—A Vicksburg paper states that the Probate Court of Carroll County, Mississippi, apprenticed a colored lad without consulting his father concerning his right of custody; whereupon the latter sued out a writ of *habeas corpus* before Judge Cothran, the action of the Probate Court was pronounced null and void, and the boy ordered to be released.

—On a recent occasion seven or eight colored men and one poor white were seized for theft in Wilmington, N. C., the former strung up on tiptoe, *more servili*, and ordered to be flogged in obedience to the still barbarous law. The agent of the Bureau interfered after three had had sentence executed upon them. The white man was promptly released on bail.

—The colored people of Kentucky met in convention last week at Lexington. Among the resolutions adopted was the following:

"*Resolved*, That we claim each and every right and power guaranteed to every American citizen, including that of suffrage, naturally and legally belonging to us to-day; waiving for the time being the ballot-box and the doctrine of equality before the law, we ask the opportunity, we demand the privilege, of achieving for ourselves and our children, under the regulation of important State and Federal laws, the blessings which pertain to a well-ordered and dignified people."

Minor Topics.

A GENTLEMAN went into a restaurant in this city a few days ago with a friend, ordered his dinner, and, when the beef-steak made its appearance, ate it so fast that a piece stuck in his throat. He was carried to the hospital as rapidly as possible, an incision made, and the piece of meat extracted; but it was too late, he was dead. This is the most striking illustration of the dangers of fast eating we remember to have met with, and we commend it as such to lecturers and writers of books on the popular and interesting subject of "hygiene." People for whom dyspepsia has no terrors may possibly be frightened by the possibility of strangulation, and the time spent in dining be thus made to undergo a sensible prolongation. But we doubt very much whether even "awful examples" would do much for the great cause of slow eating. With many people fast eating is a habit contracted in childhood, and which becomes as much a part of them, when they grow up, as their gait, or their way of holding their heads. Children acquire it either through an unusually voracious appetite or through early exposure to undue competition at meals. When acquired later in life, as it usually is amongst us, the habit is apt to originate in dining in the middle of the day, that is, in the midst of the business hours of the busiest community in the world—a practice which originated when most men were farmers or soldiers, and when nearly all the thinking of the world was done by monks, but which in the middle of the nineteenth century in an American city is an anachronism and worse. No business or professional man can go to a one o'clock dinner and bring to the processes of mastication and digestion the repose necessary for the successful performance of either. Early dinners ought to be the luxury of the idle; for men who are not prepared for them by an open-air life, and who are compelled to hurry from them back to offices and stores, they are simply a kind of slow poison, and they poison more rapidly as the pressure of the various pursuits in which city men are engaged increases. The lawyer who stuck up on his office door, "Gone to dinner; back in ten minutes," might as well have added, "I am killing myself by bolting my food, and then trying to digest it over my papers; at forty-five I shall probably be either a broken-down invalid or a lunatic, but, in the meantime, I am very much at your service." There is also a ghastly humor about that other story of the host in a New England city who asked his guest, at a mid-day dinner, if "he would mind eating his pie in the street as they walked along." The doctors help to keep the practice up by preaching against "late dinners" and telling people that they cannot digest much food when they come home in the evening hungry and exhausted with the day's labor, as if that was not the very time and very condition in which people most need a good meal, or as if evening was not the hour at which the vast majority of the human race ate their principal repast, at this day. It is the hour, too, in which the mind enjoys most repose, most freedom from responsibility, and after which most people are sure of leisure. Of course those who usually dine at one find, what with the effect of habit on the stomach and the effect of doctors on the imagination, a dinner at six rather heavy; but we venture to assert there is not half as much dyspepsia amongst those who dine at six all the year round as there is amongst the worshippers of one o'clock. It must be remembered, too, that over-eating is as bad a thing at night as at noon, and anybody who relies on afternoon exercise to enable him to dispose of a surfeit will, of course, find a late dinner inconvenient. But, to the great mass of business men, the opportunities for successful digestion after six o'clock are good, while between one and six they may be said to enjoy none whatever.

GREEN, the Malden murderer, went into a bank in broad daylight in a quiet New England village, killed the clerk, robbed the safe, and went about his business. He is now under sentence of death, and an effort was made to secure his pardon on the ground of hereditary insanity. "Two Citizens of Malden" have recently spent an hour with the prisoner, and have written an account of the interview for the Boston *Advertiser*, containing, besides a description of the prisoner, an account of their own emotions and a theory of the cause of the crime. The "primary cause of the murder," they hint rather than assert, was "poor stock." It appears that insanity had shown itself in the Green family for several generations back. His paternal grandfather and several of his granduncles on the same side were insane. On the maternal side his uncle is insane, his grandfather was idiotic, and one of his granduncles committed suicide. All this is rather startling, and well calculated to support any facts that can be adduced in proof of Green's own insanity. But no such facts have been brought forward. The insanity of one's ancestors is not proof either legal or moral of one's own; for this, like other diseases, often skips a generation, and if proof of ancestral aberrations would sustain a good plea in bar, we might as well shut up the jails, for there are but few men who have not had progenitors on either the paternal or maternal side who have at least acted oddly. Green's mother was a drunkard, but the worst things told of his father are that he kept a store and afterwards was a postmaster. His children by his first marriage, of whom the prisoner is one, appear to have been deficient in character, but we must say that the fact recorded by the "Two Citizens of Malden," that "they did not amount to anything," is, for either psychological, physiological, or judicial purposes, of very little value. Of how many children may the same remark be made! The information which the "Two Citizens" have secured as to Green's own boyhood hardly warrants the assertion that they make, that his was a "social nature of a low but not a brutish order." The facts on which this conclusion seems to be based are the following:

"To have 'a good time' was all he cared for; but he was not addicted to any vice. He was neither sensual nor a drunkard. To be popular with the school children; to have a ride and a pleasant party as often as was possible; to secure a comfortable home for his wife, to whom he was devotedly attached—these ends and aims formed the *Ultima Thule* of his hopes and ambition."

We believe this would describe the boyhood and early youth of at least eight men out of every ten. The number of those who look forward to squaring the circle, or writing an immortal epic, or, like Mr. Johnson, being somebody's "Moses," or being elected President, is very small. The conduct of the great mass of mankind in early and often in middle life is, like that of Green, regulated by the desire to be popular with their neighbors, and to provide comfortable homes for their wives, and to be invited "to parties" as often as possible. We venture to assert that the worldly ambition of two-thirds of every community rarely goes beyond this, or, in the nobler language of the "Two Citizens," "these ends and aims form the *Ultima Thule* of their hopes and ambition." But we think it would be very unfair to conclude that "their social nature" is, for this reason, "of a low order," and we know of nothing better calculated to confuse popular notions of right and wrong, or at least diminish the popular horror of crime, than disquisitions like the one before us, in which it is insinuated that the fact of a man's love for a humdrum domestic life argues a low degree of accountability.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

ANDREW JOHNSON ON CIVIL RIGHTS.

THE objections of Mr. Johnson to the bill recently passed by Congress to secure the civil rights of the people of the United States are entitled to consideration on account of his office, whatever we may think of their intrinsic value or of his personal capacity to judge of such questions. There are few public men whose opinion upon a point of constitutional law would have attracted less attention a year or two ago than Mr. Johnson's, and we are inclined to believe that there are few whose judgment will carry less weight after his official term has expired. For the present, however, they are of undeniable importance.

The President's objections are two-fold: first, on constitutional grounds, and second, on grounds of policy. We propose to discuss the two classes of objections separately.

The provisions of the bill which, Mr. Johnson thinks, violate the Constitution are three. First, the abrogation of State laws discriminating between the civil rights of persons differing in color. Second, the provision for the punishment of persons violating the first section of the bill itself. Third, the new jurisdiction conferred upon the Federal courts.

The first objection is, of course, the principal one. Congress has interpreted the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery as authorizing the enactment of laws to prevent the continuance of unequal State laws, which were notoriously incidents of the slaveholding system. The President seems to hold a different theory. We had supposed that, under the rule of construction adopted by the Supreme Court of the United States, there could no longer be any doubt that Congress could adopt any measures that might probably be necessary to exercise the powers conferred on it, or to carry out the mandates of the Constitution. Now, it is true that men might be deprived of the civil rights mentioned in this bill, and yet not be actually enslaved. But it is also true that a man might be subject to be whipped by any and every other man, and yet not be a slave. He might be compelled to work without wages, and yet not be, within the definition of the Southern codes, a slave. He might have no rights over or in his wife and children, and still not be a slave. He might be prohibited from learning to read, from learning a trade, from travelling outside of his own village, from selling the fruits of his labor, or from owning the coat on his back, and yet not be a slave. But put all these burthens together upon one man, and wherein does he differ from a slave?

If, then, Congress is to have power to interfere with slavery at all, it must have the power to remove every shackle which belongs to the policy of slavery and which constitutes a link in its chain. And surely there can be no doubt that, upon the deprivation of civil rights and upon a system of unequal punishments, a new scheme of slavery might be founded. Slavery for *crime* is not prohibited. Suppose, therefore, that a State should enact that it should be a felony for any colored person to remain in the State for ten days, and that the punishment should be slavery for life? Statutes in substance like this have been passed before and enforced, and might well be again. Or, suppose that a law should be passed absolutely prohibiting colored persons from suing or defending suits. How could they escape out of slavery in such case? Or, suppose the mild and beneficent law of reconstructed and loyal (!) Mississippi, which absolutely forbids colored men from owning or leasing real property, should be enlarged by adding a section making it a misdemeanor for them to trespass upon any land which they did *not* own or hire (which is the law of this State), how easy would it be to reduce the whole colored population to slavery. Add to this the laws which have already been passed in several reconstructed States for the apprenticeship of colored children without the consent of their parents, irrespective of their ability to support them, and what more is needed to constitute slavery more brutal and destructive, by far, than the old and undisguised system? It would be slavery without the salutary check of a pecuniary interest in the life of the slave; and the lot of the colored "freedman," like that of the Cuban *emancipado*, would be ten times worse than that of the old-fashioned slave. If Congress has no power to hinder these plans from being carried out, the Constitutional Amendment is an imposture and emancipation a farce. It is true that, in doing this, Congress may possibly adopt measures that, in some instances, will effect more than is really necessary for the purpose. But this is true of all laws. It is almost impossible to frame a statute which shall do all that its authors intended and yet not do a hair's-breadth more.

The next objection is to the second section of the bill, which provides for the punishment of "any person who, under color of any law, statute," etc., subjects, or causes to be subjected, any person to the deprivation of rights conferred on him by the first section. This, Mr. Johnson says, punishes legislators who pass unequal laws, and judges who expound them. As far as legislators are concerned, the objection is so utterly unfounded as to remind us of a kindred passage in the veto of the Freedmen's Bureau bill, in which the language of the bill was directly falsified in order to make a forcible point. How is it possible that legislators can be said to act "under color of law?" They *make* law, they do not *act under* it. It might as well be claimed that all who voted for a legislature which passed such laws are punishable under this bill. Nor do we think that under any fair interpretation judges could be held to fall under the penalties of the bill. The whole phraseology of the section contemplates *acts*, not decisions, and is clearly aimed at ministerial officers, such as sheriffs, constables, etc. As to them, even Mr. Johnson has not the hardihood to deny the power of Congress to punish their acts. Mr. Johnson finds something in the third section which confirms his views as to the meaning of the second section. Our obtuseness is such that we cannot perceive the faintest glimmerings of light in that direction, and cannot therefore enter upon an argument for which we do not discover the least foundation.

It is, of course, possible to put upon the provisions of this or any other bill a construction as forced as that which the President has adopted in reviewing the civil rights bill. Under such a method of interpretation, scarcely any penal law could stand. Thus, we take at random the statute of this State in respect to counterfeiting. It declares, in the plainest terms, that every person who "counterfeits" a gold or silver coin, current by custom or usage, shall be punished as for forgery. Many boys amuse themselves by taking moulds of coins, in lead or other soft metals, without, of course, the slightest idea of using them to defraud, and without the possibility of doing so. According to Mr. Johnson's mode of interpretation, all these children are liable to be sent to the State prison. So the proposed penal code of this State makes it a misdemeanor wilfully to delay a public officer in the discharge of his duty. Upon Mr. Johnson's theory, it would follow that if this provision is adopted it will be a crime to stop a constable, on his way to an arrest, merely to ask him the time or to shake hands. Absurd as are these illustrations, they are not a whit more absurd than the President's construction of the second and third sections of the civil rights bill. Yet it is this branch of his argument which, the New York *Times* is of opinion, must have made Chief-Justice Poland and Judges Harris and Trumbull "blush" to find their legal learning surpassed by a layman. We can easily conceive that they blushed on reading the veto message; but, we fancy, from a very different reason from that hinted at by the *Times*.

The last of the constitutional objections is, that the Constitution does not allow an extension of the judicial power of the United States to the cases of which, under this bill, the Federal courts are to take cognizance. This objection depends entirely upon the first one. If the bill is in other respects constitutional, then Congress has unquestionable power to give jurisdiction to the Federal courts over all cases arising under the bill. This is plainly shown by the very section of the Constitution which the President cites on this point.

We have thus briefly reviewed the President's objections to the constitutionality of the bill, and trust that we have made it clear that they are entirely unwarranted. We now approach the other class of objections, which we find much more difficult to treat with respect. They savor of the demagogue and the stump, and are more worthy of Mr.

Rogers, of New Jersey, when addressing his constituents, than of the President of the United States addressing the whole continent, and, indeed, the whole civilized world!

The first objection, on mere grounds of expediency, which is raised by the President, is to the clause declaring persons of color to be citizens of the United States. The simple fact of his making this objection is a melancholy proof of Mr. Johnson's rapid retrogression from liberal principles. It is only a few months since he publicly addressed a crowd of colored men as his fellow-citizens. Now he is disposed to treat them as aliens and foreigners. Nay, he thinks they are not as fit for admission to citizenship as foreigners. Adopting one of the meanest and most untruthful arguments of mob orators, he asserts that the bill makes a discrimination against "intelligent, worthy, and patriotic foreigners, and in favor of the negro," because it admits the latter race, which has been here for two hundred years, to citizenship without waiting five years more, or going through the form of naturalization, which is notoriously so administered as to have become a fiction and a sham.

The President's mania for State-rights is amusingly exhibited in dealing with this question. After admitting that the Federal Government has exclusive control over the subject of citizenship of the United States, he objects to the admission of negroes to this privilege on the ground that "the people of the several States" have not expressed their conviction of its propriety. What have the people of the *several* States to do with it? The people of the *United States* have expressed their convictions, in the only legitimate way, by the votes of Congress. That ought to suffice even for Mr. Johnson.

Another objection is made to the authority given to the Federal courts to appoint commissioners without limit as to number, and to these commissioners to appoint persons to execute warrants and other processes. To Mr. Johnson's heated imagination a cloud of police, multitudinous as the frogs of Egypt, arises to darken the land. Yet all these provisions were literally copied from a somewhat famous statute passed in 1850, and for which Mr. Johnson himself voted. Nor was it ever found that, under that law, any extraordinary number of persons was appointed. In fact, other acts of Congress, which have been in force for more than fifty years, contain similar provisions; and the worst that can be said of the clauses which excite the alarm of Mr. Johnson is, that they are needless repetitions of existing laws.

The same answer may be made in substance to Mr. Johnson's objections to the "irresponsibility" of these agents, to the fees allowed them for their services, to the possibility of their abuse of power, and to their interest in creating mischief for the sake of fees. All these objections apply to every marshal, sheriff, and constable in the land. They are incidental to every judicial system. Sheriffs would make a poor living if there were no litigation. Therefore, let all sheriffs be removed, so as to put an end to litigation. Policemen would be all discharged if there were no thieves or rioters. Therefore let all policemen be discharged, and the land will be immediately cleansed from theft and riot. The argument is profound, but not quite convincing.

The remaining objections to the details of the bill refer to the provisions requiring the courts to sit in any place appointed by the President, and authorizing the use of the army, navy, or militia to enforce the law. It is only necessary to say, as to these points, that similar provisions exist in other laws of the United States, and of the "several States" for whose opinion Mr. Johnson is so anxious. The former provision is familiar law in this State, and the latter provision is copied from another Federal statute for which Mr. Johnson voted in former days.

We have striven to speak temperately of this extraordinary message, and to repress the feeling of impatient contempt which its dishonest evasions and unworthy clap-trap have aroused. But justice to the subject demands that we should plainly express our judgment that this message is one of the most discreditable state papers known to American history. Taking into view all the circumstances in each case, Chief-Justice Taney's celebrated opinion becomes almost respectable by comparison. In full view of the legislation of Louisiana, Mississippi, and other reconstructed States, which the President has been compelled, by his own sense of decency, to set aside, he has the hardihood to say that the conflicting legislation contemplated by the bill is not likely to occur. In the face of the same notorious facts he asserts that there has not been, nor is there likely to be, any attempt to revive slavery by the people of any State. So, after expressly denying the power of Congress to secure to the freedmen any right to sue, to testify, to hold property, to make or enforce contracts, to marry or be given in marriage, he calmly assures Congress that he will "cheerfully" co-operate with it in any constitutional measures to preserve to the freedmen their *civil rights!* In the name of heaven and humanity, what *are* civil rights if those which we have enumerated are *not* included under that term?

THE EXECUTIVE LEGISLATING.

THERE has been such a glamour thrown round the presidential office by the war that a great many people seem to have totally forgotten the precise nature of the President's relations to Congress and the country. And it is because they have forgotten it that the present conflict between the legislature and the Executive possesses much political importance. We are, in reality, witnessing at this moment, in the difference which convulses the country, the legitimate result of the departures from constitutional usage into which we were driven in the excitement and confusion of 1861. Nobody can, perhaps, be fairly blamed for the irregularities into which the Government then fell. They were the natural result of the alarm and anxiety and distrust of everybody and everything by which the nation was pervaded. But there is no denying the fact that our political machine received a severe jar on the day when Mr. Lincoln was allowed, of his own mere notion, to exercise the very highest power of government, the power of suspending the *habeas corpus*. Congress ought not to have lost a moment after its meeting in asserting its sole exclusive authority to meddle for any purpose whatever with the safeguards placed by the common law and the Constitution round individual liberty. The tameness with which it suffered this prerogative to be taken from it, and with which it submitted to divers other assumptions by the Executive of functions peculiarly legislative, are now bearing their legitimate fruit. People begin to see at last that disregard of the forms of law is a two-edged sword, and that although it may in the hands of a good man strike great blows for freedom, it may on the morrow, and in the hands of a bad man, strike almost as effective blows for slavery. From Mr. Lincoln's right to suspend the *habeas corpus* by proclamation Mr. Johnson's right to restore it by proclamation is a fair deduction. So that under this precedent Congress has practically lost all control over the Southern States. Mr. Johnson may to-morrow restore the writ throughout the South without consulting the legislature; and this done, the Unionists and negroes would be absolutely at the mercy of the secessionists.

A more remarkable example still of the mental confusion remaining from the war is shown in the course which Mr. Johnson has thought himself authorized to take in the matter of reconstruction. When the Southern armies had surrendered, and all appearance of resistance had ceased, the "war power" of the President permitted him simply to provide security for life and property while the people of the States were getting the machinery of civil government into order. The President with his "war power" is, and can only be, under any construction of it, the commander-in-chief of the armies of the United States, and on soil from which he has driven the public enemy; he exercises the power of a general in the field—no less and no more. The duties of a general in the field, after fighting is over, are the restoration of order and the creation of such means of administering justice as may be necessary and expedient. All else—the nature of the government to be established, the process by which it is to be established, the relations of the conquering to the conquered State—are matters for the decision of the legislature in all constitutional countries. If the President has power to settle these things, he is more than a general—he is a despot. If he unites in his own person legislative with executive powers, he is not the servant of the people, but its master. He exercises an authority such as has never been assumed before in any country calling itself free, by any officer of the government.

At the close of the war Mr. Johnson appointed provisional governors. So far all was well; executive officers of some sort there had to be to prevent anarchy. He went further, and called conventions to re-organize the governments. This, too, was not open to objection. He was still acting within his sphere as commander-in-chief. The various States needed to have some means of expressing their wishes. But this is as far as we can go with him. He had no business to make discriminations between classes of the citizens. He, as commander-in-chief, had nothing to do with State policy or State laws. His duty was to see that all had a hearing; when he decided who should vote and who should not, he *legislated*, and consequently was guilty of usurpation. But, at all events, once the conventions had met, he was as a holder of the war power *functus officio*. He should then have called Congress together and said: "The rebellion is over; the South is at your mercy. I have re-established order; I have provided the people of the revolted States with the means of addressing you. You are the legislature of the United States; in your hands the Constitution has lodged the power of initiating all laws and all schemes of policy. My duty, the duty assigned me by the Constitution, is to report to you and make suggestions to you, and to carry into execution such laws as you may pass, either with my approval, or in spite of my disapproval. I recommend you to treat the South leniently; to receive the return of the revolted States to the Union with as little humiliation to them as possible; but it is for you to decide. I shall express my opinion in the constitutional way on such bills as you may send for my signature; should my objections to them be deemed by you insufficient, I shall not forget that I am your executive officer; that 'all legislative (that is, all law-making) powers' are, by the Constitution, expressly 'vested in the Congress of the United States (Sec. 1), and that Congress consists of the Senate and House of Representatives;' that all that I have to do with the law-making is to 'recommend to your consideration such measures as I shall judge necessary and expedient.'"

He, however, did nothing of the kind. He did not call Congress together. He did not wait for its coming together. He set to work to make laws with great assiduity. He issued edicts with a rapidity equal to that of Louis Napoleon in December, 1851. He first of all arbitrarily excluded all colored men from voting. He next arbitrarily excluded all persons from voting who had taken part in the rebellion, thus, on his own authority, inflicting a penalty of the highest kind on persons who had been neither tried nor convicted of any crime whatever. He then—we beg the reader's attention to this point—began to exact certain qualifications from revolted States as conditions of their re-admission into the Union. He insisted that they should formally abolish slavery, that they should repeal the ordinances of secession, that they should repudiate the rebel debt. Now the power that makes such requirements as these of any people must be either a conqueror exercising the naked authority of the sword on conquered soil, or a legislature exercising a constitutional right. The first of these Mr. Johnson has always stoutly denied that he is or can be; the second the Constitution does not permit him to be; so that on every theory that has yet been propounded by himself or his friends, or that can be devised, of his position and duties, the whole reconstruction process, as he has carried it on, has been one long piece of usurpation, in which we are satisfied few loyal men at the North would have thought for one moment of acquiescing, if most of us had not been frightened by the war into forgetfulness or indifference to the true relations between the different branches of our government.

The whole work of re-organizing the South and restoring its relations with the Union is the most important kind of work on which a government can enter. It consists in law-making in the highest sense of the word. In a free country it is the legislature only which is capable of it. In this country the performance of it is expressly forbidden to anybody but the legislature. The phrase, "the President's policy," which is now heard so often, is a solecism of which no American who knows the nature of his own institutions ought to be guilty. The President has *opinions;* he ought not to have a policy. It is for Congress to frame a policy; it is for him to carry it out. As matters stand, he not only framed a policy without consulting Congress, but he went to work to carry it out, and, when Congress met, they found the work half done. This was bad enough in all conscience; but this was not all. When they met, and took the state of the South into consideration, they came to the conclusion that the conditions he had imposed on the revolted States were not sufficient, and proceeded to impose others. But they have found that not only has he arrogated the power of imposing conditions himself, but he maintains that any attempt of the legislature to add to his list is an usurpation, against which he feels it to be his duty to offer every opposition in his power. He denies the right of Congress to revise his work or to amend it; tells them to their faces that, if they presume to legislate about the South, they must take Southern representatives into their councils, just as if he consulted Jefferson Davis when he was about to draw up *his* conditions of reconstruction. He appeals to the Constitution as coolly as if the Constitution authorized the President to dictate to constitutional conventions the provisions of the organic law which they were to frame, or authorized him to drive from the polls at local elections whole classes of men who had been neither indicted, tried, nor convicted, or to maintain martial law in time of peace, or, in fact, to do any one of the acts by which he has sought to bring back the Southern States to their old position.

We confess that for our part we think the public acquiescence in the unwarrantable assumptions of power on which the President's whole interference with the reconstruction process is based, has gone far enough. Whatever excuse there might have been for it three years or even one year ago, there is none now. It is too late to undo the irregularities committed during the war; but it is not too late to force every branch of the Government to betake itself once more to its own business, and confine itself to the sphere traced out for it by the Constitution. We want no "deliverers," or "restorers," or "chieftains," or "Moseses;" no great man with a "mission" to get us out of our difficulties. If the legislative branch of our system be not equal to the present crisis, our institutions are a failure. But the people have not come to the conclusion that the old machinery is not still equal to all the work that may be required of it. It is not probable that the confusion which now pervades the minds of a portion of the public regarding the President's duties can last very long. It would probably not have lasted even as long as it has were it not that the present controversy is one which touches the negro more nearly than the white man, and the influence which the negro exerts in bemuddling the intellects and blunting the perceptions even of the most sensible people, is one of those things which, as we have often remarked before, we are glad to say it is not our duty to explain.

THE REFORM BILL IN ENGLAND.

While Americans are called on at this moment to decide questions which directly involve the fundamental principles of government, labor, and society, Englishmen are engaged in discussing the respective merits of a seven-pound rental and a seven-pound rating franchise. Tory and Whig, Liberal-Conservative and Conservative-Liberal, appear to us mere party appellations, to which it is hard to attach any real significance. Whether Lord George comes in or Lord John goes out of office can hardly be a matter about which we feel any very keen interest. But yet, underneath the seemingly meaningless and petty character of the English political contests of the day, many genuine and important principles are at issue. What those principles are, let us try to explain as distinctly as we can.

The reform bill of 1832 has often been aptly described as a social revolution. In spite of many shortcomings and much disappointment, it produced one great real result: it transferred the supreme power from the landed aristocracy to the middle classes, after much the same fashion as the revolution of 1688 transferred the supreme power from the crown to the aristocracy. The government did not cease to be one conducted mainly by the aristocracy; but, in the event of a contest of opinion, the casting-vote, so to speak, was taken from the peerage and landed gentry and given to the commercial and middle classes. The proof of this change may be found in the fact that no measure on which the middle class really set their heart has ever been permanently

rejected by the opposition of the aristocratic influence, and that no measure opposed to their instincts has ever become law. In ordinary times, and upon common questions, the country is quite content to leave the administration of affairs to the ruling caste, knowing that, whenever it chooses to exert its power, it can dictate the policy to be pursued. The political questions on which the middle classes are in earnest or united are not many in number, and therefore this power is seldom exercised decisively, but it exists none the less.

The reform bill which destroyed, to a great extent, the pocket borough system, and gave the largest share in the representation to householders, tradesmen, and professional men, was carried as a liberal measure by the aid of the popular party. Gradually the masses, to whose assistance its success was partly, perhaps mainly, due, discovered that, as far as they were concerned, it had not fulfilled their expectations. If contemporary accounts can be believed, the ideas entertained at the time of what reform was to effect were so extravagant that there could not fail to be much subsequent disappointment. But even reasonable and moderate men, who would have laughed to scorn the popular idea that a change in the representation would forthwith destroy poverty, were justly dissatisfied. The working masses discovered that they had very little, if anything, more of political power than they had before the reform bill, and that they had assisted in changing an oligarchy into a middle class monopoly. The change was one infinitely for the better, but it was not what they had expected or desired. Thus, imperceptibly almost, the attitude of the different classes in the state has changed. The middle class has virtually assumed a defensive instead of an offensive position; like any other class, having got power into its own hands, it wants to keep it, and looks jealously at any attempt to deprive it of its monopoly.

Of course such an explanation must be taken subject to many limitations. The middle class is such an enormous one in England, and shades off so imperceptibly into the aristocracy at one end and into the laboring population at the other, that it is almost impossible to define it by any distinct designation. Then, too, the leaders of the popular party belong almost without exception to the middle class; and, what complicates the question still further, this class is, on the whole, favorable to Liberalism—in the abstract. Nor are their liberal proclivities at all insincere. They wish sincerely to govern the country liberally, but they wish to keep the supreme power of government within their own hands, and they are sadly at a loss to reconcile this wish with their theoretical principles.

Under the present electoral laws the great middle class is most adequately represented. No doubt there are many anomalies by which individuals suffer exclusion from the franchise; but practically the class has no reason to complain. Now, by extending the franchise sufficiently to let in the working class to the electoral body, the whole distribution of political power will be altered. The numerical preponderance of laboring men over all and any other class in the country is so great that they would obtain that share in the representation at present enjoyed by the class above them. This is the plain English of the whole matter; and the more plain it is made to them, the less the middle class as a body like the idea. If the franchise were to be given to six-pound householders, the existing half million of voters would have to divide their power with another million of electors, all belonging to the operative section of the community.

Thus the contest on which the English people are now entering is really one for the transfer of power from the middle to the working class. If it were effected, the administration of the country would doubtless remain for years to come in the hands of the aristocracy, the squirearchy, and the upper ten thousand; the difference would be that the Government would necessarily be conducted with deference to the convictions and prejudices of the masses; and this difference would be a very great and a rapidly increasing one. Now this is a result for which the ruling classes are by no means prepared. The aristocracy are, of course, hostile to any alteration which tends inevitably to increase the power of the democratic element, and a very large section, if not a decided majority, of the middle classes are disposed to side with them. The Liberal party itself is divided on the question, and a very important and respectable section cannot make up its mind one way or the other. The "thoughtful Liberals," as this section delights to call itself, are in a hopeless muddle. They are in the old dilemma that we have all been in as children—they want to eat their cake and have it. They feel the injustice of excluding working-men from the electoral body, and yet they cannot stomach the notion of giving them political power. So they suggest all kinds of ingenious devices, fancy franchises, plurality votes, representation of minorities, etc., by which the working classes should have a share in the representation, but only such a share as would leave the supremacy of the present holders of political power unaltered and unquestioned.

Meanwhile, the working classes themselves remain apparently indifferent. The reasons of this apparent unconcern are, we judge, twofold. In the first place, wages are and have been very high for the last few years, and though in particular districts there is great and long-continued distress, yet, on the whole, the condition of the working classes has improved so much under the influence of free trade that they are not disposed to agitation, and without agitation any solid reform is impossible. In the second place, the leaders of the reform movement have been so anxious to avoid alarming the upper classes, that they have lost no opportunity of asserting that they contemplated no radical changes of any kind. In so doing they have overshot their mark. They have not removed the instinctive dread entertained by the upper ten thousand of any change which would give the working men the power to return a majority of the House of Commons, and they have paralyzed the enthusiasm of the working classes. If it were true, as liberal organs of opinion perpetually assert, that everybody is very well contented with things as they are, and that a reformed Parliament would consist of much the same men and pursue much the same policy as the existing one, why, except as a matter of abstract sentiment, should the unrepresented classes care for a vote? Mr. Bright and his colleagues know perfectly well that a Parliament elected by working-men would do many things and leave many things undone which the present legislature would not dare to do; but till they can summon up courage to announce boldly the changes they hope to inaugurate by lowering the franchise, they cannot expect to create any enthusiasm for reform. In England the public is not to be moved for an abstract idea. If you declare that, with a six-pound rental qualification, you expect to establish compulsory secular education, to do away with the county magistracy, to establish the game laws, to inaugurate vote by ballot, or to make any sweeping vital change, you will arouse at once the most vehement and bitter opposition, but you will also create a popular feeling in favor of your proposal which may ultimately secure its success.

Now the House of Commons is, as usual, a very faithful representative of the classes by whom it is elected. There are a certain number of advanced Liberals who wish for a reform, because they know perfectly well it will make the Government more democratic in its character; but this section is a small though important minority. Five-sixths of the members, to say the very least, have no real wish for a reform bill at all. A great proportion are so hampered with hustings pledges, so bound by promises made in the hope that their fulfilment would never be called for, that they would gladly welcome any *moderate* measure which would release them from their obligations without entailing any fundamental change in the conditions of political power. It follows, therefore, that any bill which commends itself to the approbation of the House must be *moderate;* that is, must leave things as they are. Under these circumstances, the dilemma of the Government was obvious. If they proposed a bill which meant nothing, they alienated the advanced Liberals; if they introduced a bill which really transferred power from one class to another, they risked the danger of a fatal secession from the ministerial ranks. If at last they have made up their minds, it is due to a clever though unscrupulous piece of tactics on the part of the *Times*. The "leading journal" is bitterly opposed at heart to any idea of reform. It never loses an occasion of giving a back-handed blow at the advocates of an extension of the suffrage; and it has also some not very intelligible personal grievance against the Russell-Gladstone ministry. Rumor says that the cause of offense is the suspension of the favor shown to it in many respects by Lord Palmerston; but its enmity may far more plausibly be attributed to its intense dislike of democracy in any shape than to any personal feeling. The *Times* accordingly, on February 28th, aston-

ished the public by an announcement that, in consequence of the difficulties attending reform, Earl Russell was about to resign office, and that the Duke of Somerset was about to form a Liberal-Conservative administration. The report was at once indignantly denied, and, apparently, with perfect truth. But, in order to counteract the injury caused by it to the credit of the ministry, the Government were compelled to come to some immediate resolution about reform. So on the following night Mr. Gladstone announced that on the 12th of March he would introduce a bill for the alteration of the franchise. Thus the *Times* succeeded in its real object, and has pinned the Government down to a course of action which, in the opinion of that journal, will lead to the downfall of the ministry. It is in fact extremely doubtful whether any important increase will be made to the electoral body in the present temper of the public. But we believe this, even if it prove an abortive, attempt to admit the working classes to electoral rights is only the first step in a movement which will ultimately lead to a social revolution far more important than that introduced by the reform bill of 1832. It is from this point of view alone that the coming discussion can have any general interest for a non-English public.

MR. WORSLEY'S NIGHTMARE.

[He having dedicated his translation of the "Iliad" to General R. E. Lee, late of the U. S. A., later of the C. S. A., "as the best living representative of its hero."]

Worsley.—(*Fallen into an uneasy after-dinner sleep.*)

Bless my soul! here 's a singular dream!
Can it be I am dead and do n't know it?
That has happened ere now to a poet
Who thereafter wrote many a ream;
Is it certain to enter one's head,
When he *is* dead, to think that he 's dead?
Here I am, or at any rate seem,
On the edge of a queer-looking stream
That would do very well for the Styx,
Or that one whom a nightmare fear eggeth on
Might imagine Cocytus or Phlegethon—
If it were, well, that would be a fix!
But perhaps an Homeric translator,
When he wakes up and sees that he 's dead,
Would not feel any difference greater
Than the no-change that happened with lead
In the humbug they called transmutation:—
Is it death I 've gone through or translation?
Or might all not result from the immersion
Of my wits for so long in my version?
If I 'm dreaming, I 'm mixing my classical attainments in maddest confusion;
'T is like pouring in Chian with Massic;
Aristophanes jumbles with Lucian,
I can scarce tell my Greek from my Latin;
Only nonsense of all sorts comes pat in,
And the whole makes a mess of my own ideas
Worse than I did of poor old Maionides.

(*He hears himself snore, and forthwith there enters his conception a*)

Chorus of Frogs.

Brekekex! Brekekex!

Worsley.

Heavens! what 's that?
Perhaps I had best be conning a prayer
To the maker's name inside my hat,
As we Britons are wont in despair
At services long and parsons flat.

Frogs.

Brekekex! Brekekex! who goes there?

Worsley.

Please your Frogships, Homer's last translator:
I 've done it in metre that 's called Spenserian,

Frogs.

Which, used by a bore 's a precious dreary one.
Onk! Onk! we wish you *might* be the last!
He 's as like himself, when so recast,
As one of us to Jupiter Stator:
Why, because one can croak, d 'ye think it follows
That one should set himself up to practise
A cavatina of Phœbus Apollo's,
With voice as rough as a nutmeg-grater?

Worsley.

Ahem! well, my friends, you see the fact is,
We English are always taught to seek
For that inspiration in the Greek,
Which, when your literature was great, your
Authors could somehow find in nature:
Our whole scheme of training takes such pains
To make merest Attics of our brains,
That after all of our plague and fuss
Pure nature 's all heathen Greek to us.

Frogs.

Brekekex! Attic, eh? say Bœotian:
Scarce a grain of *that* salt in your ocean!
Some Greeks, friend, believed in transmigrations,
And get 'em, by Jove, in your translations!

Worsley.

A theory downright Jacobinical!
Can it be that my brain, as it often is,
Is but brimful of old Aristophanes,
And, infect with his humor so cynical,
Is colored by what it doth brood on?
Why, I 'm thinking as wildly as Proudhon!

Frogs.

Brekekex! Coäx! do n't fear a bit!
'T is n't infectious; *he* was a wit.
Brekekex! Coäx! This world is a hoäx,
Version poor of an excellent hit!

Worsley.

Nay, this is profane: I 'll hear no more on 't;
If a trick of my brain, I 'll shut the door on 't.

(*Enter Bacchus, pretending tipsiness, in Charon's boat.*)

Bacchus.

If I were to meet with old Silenus
We could n' tell which was which between us;
Cocktails and juleps! smashes and slings!
I 've got so somehow with those Yankees
(They 've such a talent at mixing things),
I can 't make out where the gangway plank is;
It wavers and rises and falls and swings
Like one of my choruses dithyrambic,
Where you can 't tell trochaic from iambic. (*He lands.*)
Well, the confounded rope-dance is past,
And here I am on the shore at last,
Safe escaped out of Erebus's low air,
With a kind of peristaltic motion,
A devious looseness in my knees,
A general tendency to nowhere,
That gives to firm earth the flux of ocean:
In such a case a gargle of—Bourbon,
I think they call it—will help to curb one: (*Drinking.*)
Good ferrers to le' me have a bottle,
For I am as dry as Aristotle!
Hallo! what 's *your* name?

Worsley.

My name is Worsley; (*Solemnly.*)
Translator, sir, of the last new Homer.

Bacchus.

And, by this bottle, 't is no misnomer!
You could n' ha' made the statemen' terselier,

For nobody 'll ever translate him worselier ;
He 's one o' those skinkers, as I divine, (*Aside.*)
That mixes water with rare old wine ;
And, thus baptizing it by immersion,
Christens the puling result a version.
I say, my friend, do you chance to know
What *we* tempered our wine with, ages ago ?
Put some *salt* in the water, and that
Saved the new product from tasting flat :
You 're surprised ? Well, sure as my name's Lyæus,
You 'll find it so stated in Athenæus.

WORSLEY.—(*Aside.*)

Ah, this comes of taking too much claret ;
If 't was n't a dream I could n't bear it.

BACCHUS.

Well, Misser Worsley,
I warn you firs'ly
(Solemnly, too ; you think I am merry),
As you seem meaning to cross the ferry,
Where Charon does *his* job of translation
In the true, legitimate, stolid way,
So many verses (or trips) every day,
Without depression, without elation,
And no more change in his rhythm of oars
Than in that contractor's measure of yours,
That metes its phrase like a soldier's ration,—
I say, Misser Worsley,
I warn you firs'ly,
That Hector is waiting you, mad as thunder,
As those Yankees say, at your dedication ;
On the other side he 's taken station,
Vowing he 'll tear your ghost's limbs asunder,
Full of black bile as a theologian,
Cursing and swearing,
Ripping and tearing,
In the strongest phrase of ancient Trojan,
And I guess you 'd berrer stan' from under ! (*Exit Bacchus.*)

FROGS.

Brekekex ! Brekekex ! look out, Worsley ;
Heroes are apt to behave perversely ;
If you meet Homer, we warn you, too,
Keep clear of *him*, whatever you do !

WORSLEY.

I 'm in for 't now, and have got to go,
Though the outlook 's rather squally or so :
Here you, honest fellow, what 's your fee ? (*Hailing Charon.*)

CHARON.

An obolus, mostly ; but then, you see,
Sometimes there 's special deductions made ;
For when a man 's been nothing on earth,
Nothing 's as much as the job is worth ;
It 's *gratis* always for those in the trade,
And I understood, from Bacchus there,
Your business has been in the upper air
What my own down here is, more or less,—
Piloting folks to forgetfulness.
But what 's that bundle under your arm ?

WORSLEY.

Why, nothing that *could* do any harm ;
A few poor ghosts of my new translation ;
I did up some half a dozen copies,
To have a few just for presentation.

CHARON.

Lethe once tasted, ghosts need no poppies :
Leave 'em behind you there on the levee,
And nobody 'll touch 'em, I 'll be bound :
What good in dying, if all the bevy
Of life's poor failures, and duns, and bores,
Could follow, to haunt us underground ?
For a boat like mine, such verse as yours,
Though disembodied, were quite too heavy.
Come ! in with you ! I 've no time to wait ;
I 've three more trips yet, and it 's getting late.
You 're English, eh ? (*Talking as he rows.*)

WORSLEY.

Yes.

CHARON.

So I could swear !
You 've most of you such a stuck-up air,
And somehow look down on all creation
As if you were each the British nation ;
Doer of everything under the sun,
From taking Troy to the last bad pun.
Once get your white chokers under your chins,
What conscience you *do* have for other folks' sins !

WORSLEY.—(*Aside.*)

A most uncommonly vulgar hind !
We *have* done everything, time out of mind,
And so little boastful, modest elves,
That nobody knows it but ourselves.
If we should brag like the Yankees and French—

CHARON.

Come, be packing ! Art grown to the bench ?
Why, John Bull thinks e'en the lower regions
Must pay his comfort proper allegiance !

(*Enter Hector and to him a crowd of American ghosts just landed.*)

SPIRIT OF SMITH.—(*Spits and speaks.*)

General Hector, 't would make us proud,
If my friends and I might be allowed
To take so great a man by the hand,
And we 'd be grateful, if you 'n' your staff,
Would favor us each with an autograph :
My name is Smith, sir. I 'll take my stand
And introduce 'em all as they land,
Gentlemen sperrits, you 'll step this way
And shake the general's hand, I say.

HECTOR.—(*After the presentation of three thousand.*)

By Jove ! I feel like an old town-pump ;
I never was in such a scrape as this ! (*Aside.*)
Allow me, good sirs, to have the bliss
Of greeting the others in a lump ;
And as for autographs, to my shame,
I never e'en learned to write my name ;
I lived in the ages, you know, called dark,
When men had a way of making their mark.

SPIRIT OF SMITH.—(*Spits and speaks.*)

Well, I hope you won't decide adversely
On one request I shall put to your vote—
That 's to present my friend, Mister Worsley,
I made his acquaintance on the boat :
I rather guess it 's likely you know him—
Author of "Homer," a first-class poem.

WORSLEY.—(*Aside.*)

Confound his impudence ! But for him,
I might have slipt by : my chance is slim.
Acquaintance, indeed ! I 'd like to know
If he makes 'em by treading on one's toe ?
For no more, no less, that I could see,
Was all of his introduction to me !

HECTOR.

Ah, here, then, I have you ; come at last !
My staff has been longing, these three months' past,
To measure the back of that dedicator
Who likened me to the double traitor,
False to his country, false to his oath,
Me, who 'd have given my life for both !

Me, who no omens could understand
But those that said, Fight for Fatherland!
Achilles dragged but my dust in dust;
You insult my soul without reason,
Coupling my name with a broken trust,
Dabbling my fame in the lees of treason.

WORSLEY.—(*Aside.*)

That swelling nostril I hardly like,
Nor the look that makes me too mean to strike:
I never felt worselier since I was born,
Between my fears of his staff and scorn.

HECTOR.

Did he war bravely? The more his shame;
And, once men take their side with wrong,
Their guilt stalks behind them, stern and strong,
And despair may win fair valor's name.
Courage is mostly a thing in the veins;
'Tis Valor that lives in the poet's strains,
Valor that stands for the right and true,
A thing unconceived by such as you!
Was *his*, then, your notion of the bravery
That swells in deathless echoes of song?
Forth from my presence, poor snob of slavery,
Herd with the dull souls where you belong!
Study that bible you call the Peerage,
Get what salvation therefrom you can,
Nor come near me, lest I pay the arrearage
Due to your ribs from an honest man.

(*Mr. Worsley awakes in terror, but gradually composes himself by reading a few pages of his translation of Homer.*)

J. R. L.

THE THEATRES.

WHY is the theatre the insignificant institution that it is among us? We take for granted that it is insignificant, and can enter into no argument on that point. There is no one to argue that question with but the actors, and they are the last persons with whom one would think of arguing any question of social importance. The great writers, the Massingers, Fords, Otways, Ben Jonsons, Sheridans, the Racines, Corneilles, Molières, no longer write for the stage, because its productions hold no place in literature. The great critics do not think it worth while to exercise their acumen on its performances. The magazines allow no space to its interests. Even the daily press hardly notices its representations, or notices them under the name of "amusements." The educated men and women, people of culture and refinement, never frequent the theatres, and are rarely seen there. The audiences are made up chiefly of strangers in the city and of that class of people who find the opera an entertainment either too expensive or too refined for their taste. After all that Booth has lately done for it among us, the theatre has no place in the regards of the literary, the elegant, or the fashionable.

There must be good reasons for this, and in our judgment they are not far to seek. The theatre is not so much respected in our generation as it was in the last because it has not the place in our generation that it had in the last. It is not marked by the characteristics of the age or in communication with the spirit of the age, where that spirit is peculiar. If anything distinguishes the epoch we live in, it is a decided tendency towards realism, or, as some call it, naturalism—a disposition to be severely true to nature. This character is stamped on all the genuine products of the time. The artist paints nature; the poet draws his inspiration and takes his theme from the sentiments of ordinary existence, and tries to set common humanity to music; prose composition in every kind is direct and simple; the best literary style is the most unaffected style. Even the pulpit, which is usually the most stubborn in its resistance to the new genius, whatever it may be, feels the tone of this tendency and yields to it. The preacher studies to lay aside the sententious declamatory style of the fathers, uses his natural voice in a natural way, talks right on, and in all he says seems to mean business. It is conceded that the conversational manner is the best for him. In the lecture-room, on the platform, mouthing and gesticulation no longer pass current with the most appreciative assemblies. The stage alone betrays an unconsciousness of the change that has come over the tastes of the people. The theatres are smaller, as if intended for the exhibition of the quiet social life of our age instead of the grand heroic life which the drama of the last century loved to display; the stage itself is narrower, as if for lowered voices and more familiar action among the players, but otherwise the new order of things is not recognized. The actors hitch and strut after the old manner; mouth and drawl and rant, do everything with their voices but use them as gentlemen and ladies do; make horrible grimaces and saw the air with their hands in a most unnatural manner; they neither enter a room, nor leave it, nor walk across it; they neither sit nor stand, neither salute nor converse, as ordinary men and women do those things. The stage appointments are bad. There is no skill in arranging parlors to look like the rooms people live in. The plays are poor, not born of the social experiences nor representing the manners of the time. If they have merit, they were written by the authors of the last generation, and cannot be acted naturally; if they can be acted naturally they have no merit, because they present unattractive or low phases of social life. Few of the good plays are modern—little of the acting, therefore, is modern. But it will not do for the playwright to live in one century and the play-actor in another. The French understand this, and they have a theatre genuine in its kind, legitimate, fascinating as theatre ever was, probably more so, and yet entirely within the compass of modern experience. The play represents a bit of real life, and the players show their talent by the perfect skill with which they mimic real life. The French theatre is a most charming entertainment for cultivated people, and cultivated people frequent it. Even here in New York, where the French stage falls far below the best Parisian standard, it attracts a crowd of ladies and gentlemen who are never seen within the walls of any other play-house in the city, and who seldom regret the hour or two they spend there, because the play and the players come within easy reach of their sympathies. Actors and spectators recognize each other as belonging to the same humanity, living in the same epoch, and sharing the same experiences, and that is more than can be said of any other theatre in the city, not even excepting the Winter Garden in its best estate.

Here we are persuaded is the secret of the failure, and failure here involves failure elsewhere, every kind of failure. For to make amends for this radical defect, which they will not or cannot cure, the managers of theatres appeal to the love of amusement in its cheapest, gaudiest form, and try to catch the interest of the people without engaging their minds. The eye is dazzled by tawdry spectacles. Every kind of fancy is brought in to make the show novel. Comedy, burlesque, extravaganza, absurdity, caricature, dumb-show burlesque, and picturesque are overworked. Ideas are excluded or so covered up with affectations and drolleries that the people shall not be reminded of real life or aught thereto pertaining. Their risibles, not their intellects, are addressed. We are not taking any high position or claiming any elevated mission for the stage, as if it should undertake to instruct or edify the public. We are willing to concede that its great function is to amuse. This has always been its function in modern society. Whatever it may have been in the classic ages, the theatre in the last century or centuries, in the time of Ben Jonson and Shakespeare even, looked toward this end, it is probable, and toward no other. People went to the play-house for entertainment, and they found it in the romantic drama with its heroic personages, its sententious moralities, and its high-flown declamations. Such a drama would not amuse us much; it would more likely bore us past endurance. But is it necessary that, in order to amuse us, the theatre should treat us as if we were children, who could be entertained with nothing but the gaudiest spectacle or the broadest farce? Is there no amusement without fanciful tricks or side-shaking laughter? Is the comical, the grotesque, or the impossible a necessary element in entertainment? Grant that the uneducated part of the people desire this and will welcome nothing better, is the theatre designed for the uneducated part of the people only, and is it satisfied when it can reach them at their lowest point of unrefinement and can give them just what they desire and no more? Surely others than the vulgar wish to be amused and need to be, and they are easily satisfied too; it is only necessary to mingle talent, wit, sprightliness, intelligent observation, delicate criticism, and some perception of character with their entertainment, and they will be entertained. But they do demand this. To say that the stage is what the people make it, and that it must be content to follow the popular taste, instead of leading it, is to say what we are not anxious to dispute. Our complaint is that it does not accomplish as much as this. It simply follows the most vitiated taste, and does that badly. There is a demand for the stage among cultivated people, as the French theatre proves. Why not meet this demand? Why not "pander" to this taste? Why not have plays that will interest the better portion of the middle, even of the working classes, and playing that will have sufficient vitality and grace to charm them? There is no reason why not, except that theatrical managers choose to make money in the easiest way, and if they can fill their houses with decently-behaved audiences, give little care or thought to the perfec-

tion of their art or the extension of their influence among the better class.

We should like to say something of the moral influence of the theatre, but it is hard to say what we feel like saying now; it is hard to say anything on the subject wisely, usefully, and well. The theatre, perhaps, can never be expected to do more than reflect the moral sentiment, and catch the moral tone, of the society it belongs to. It is not its business to preach; it is not a censor or a judge. Its duty, let it be conceded, is merely to hold the mirror up to nature. But then its mirror should not be cracked, or clouded with film, or covered with dust. And it should be held up so as to reflect "good" nature, as the artists call it. It should show the actual morals of real life, be they what they may be. Several generations ago, when the customs and manners of social life were artificial in the extreme; when it was the fashion in ordinary conversation, in private intercourse, and even in familiar letter-writing between friends and relatives, to use a stilted phraseology; when ladies and gentlemen, in parlors, indulged in high-flown sentimentalities about virtue; when preachers and public orators generally dealt in flowery paragraphs, and choice moralities were current from lip to lip, the playwrights very properly mimicked the habit, and the players deemed it part of their vocation, as of course it was, to roll out the swelling periods with unction, and give to virtue its meed of exalted praise. We never do this now in ordinary life; the man who does it is voted a Pharisee or a prig. Even ministers feel the unreality of it. Why should the stage alone keep up the out-worn tradition? Or why should the stage, sensible that the tradition is out-worn, and conscious that the high vaulting moralities fall flat, go straightway to the other extreme, and let it be understood that honest, sincere, genuine virtue is a thing not to be found or looked for in ordinary life or among real people? Why, from chastising vice with long, involved periods, have they taken up the task not of soberly chastising but of ridiculing and caricaturing human nature itself? Why, under the guise of correcting bad morals, do they somehow succeed in shocking good ones? Why, instead of making men and women ashamed of being hypocrites, liars, plotters, knaves, buffoons, do they make them ashamed of being men and women? The old way of scourging vice on the stage proceeded on the assumption not only that vice was a thing to be scourged, but that virtue was powerful enough to scourge it, and that men and women were virtuous enough to bear the scourging and be thankful. The new way of scourging vice on the stage seems to proceed on the assumption that all are vicious; that, if the truth were told, none are virtuous, and the glee occasioned by the whipping is simply the glee which one set of rogues takes from seeing another set of rogues get their deserts. The stage portrays the vices and the virtues of the most vicious and the least virtuous classes in society. It would escape from such a falsification of truth if it would undertake to represent comprehensively human life in all its phases as it goes on about us, at home and abroad. People are no less virtuous now than they have been formerly; on the contrary, we believe they are much more so, and nothing more would be required to elevate the moral character of the stage than a faithful delineation of the actual character of refined social existence.

A critic in the first February number of the "Revue des Deux Mondes," of the current year, writing on the morals of the stage, says: "Let any one, on coming away from one of our popular theatres, examine himself, and he will confess that he has been wounded in the very heart and stung undefinably in the noblest part of him. He has been amused; he has been at moments even touched; this scene has been charming, that was animated with a fine spirit, yet another was full of just perceptions and witty sayings. But he is dissatisfied, and he feels that he has a right to be." Few persons on leaving one of our theatres could honestly say that they had been charmed or touched or impressed by passages of truth or wit. They might say they had been amused; they would, probably, if they were candid; they would, certainly, if they were earnest, say they had been wounded and shocked. The writer in question justifies his verdict by an analysis and criticism of several of the most popular dramas, and comes to the conclusion that a low idea of human nature can alone explain the debasement he deplores. For this low idea of human nature he does not hold the age responsible so much as the laws and institutions under which the French people live. The stage may not be unjust to society, but society has no chance to do justice to itself. The case does not stand so with us. Here society has full opportunity to do justice to itself, but it receives no justice at the hands of playwrights and play-actors. No one could guess from our theatres what our world was like; and the world does quite right in letting them severely alone. Our dramas are not even American in the most distant sense. With one or two exceptions, they are English and English adaptations from the French. They portray, therefore, English life and French life, as it was their duty and purpose to do. Whether they do that well or ill is a matter that concerns English and French critics more than it does us. English and French life are very different in almost all respects from American life. All the forms of society are different. Institutions and customs, morals and manners, dress and carriage, are wholly unlike. The transplanting of the theatre is as illegitimate as the transplanting of the journal, the bar, or the platform. The French stage pleases not because it is French, but because it is finished in art. An American stage equally excellent would please so much the more. The theatre will not be real till it is grown on our soil. When it is born of American life, it will represent American society, and cultivated people will be its hearty patrons.

A HALF-HOUR AT HERCULANEUM.

I.

THE road from Naples to Herculaneum is, in fact, one long street; it hardly ceases to be city in Naples till it is town at Portici, and in the interval it is suburb, running between palatial lines of villas, which all have their names ambitiously painted over their doors. Great part of the distance this street is bordered by the bay, and, as far as this is the case, it is picturesque, as everything is belonging to marine life in Italy. Everywhere seafaring people go lounging up and down among the fishermen's boats drawn up on the shore, and the fishermen's wives making nets, and the fishermen's children playing and clambering over both, while over all flap and flutter the clothes hung on poles to dry. In this part of the street there are, of course, oysters, and grapes, and oranges, and cactus-pulps, and cutlery, and iced drinks to sell at various booths; and commerce is exceedingly dramatic and boisterous over the bargains she offers there; and equally, of course, murderous drinking shops lurk at intervals along the pavement, and lure into their recesses mariners of foreign birth, briefly ashore from their ships. The New York Coffee House is there to attract my maritime fellow-countrymen, and I know that if I look into that place of refreshment I shall see their honest, foolish faces flushed with drink, and the excitement of buying the least they can for the most money. Poor souls! they shall drink that pleasant morning away in the society of Antonino the best of Neapolitans, and at midnight, emptied of every soldo, shall arise, wrung with a fearful suspicion of treachery, and wander away under Antonino's guidance to seek the protection of the consul; or, taking the law into their own hands, shall proceed to clean out, *more Americano*, the New York Coffee House, where Antonino shall develop into one of the landlords, and deal them the most artistic stab in Naples: handsome, worthy Antonino, tender-eyed, subtle, pitiless!

II.

Where the road to Herculaneum leaves the bay and its seafaring life, it enters, between the walls of lofty, fly-blown houses, a world of maccaroni haunted by foul odors, beggars, poultry, and insects. There were few people to be seen on the street, but through the open doors of the lofty fly-blown houses we saw floury legions at work making maccaroni; grinding maccaroni, rolling it, cutting it, hanging it in mighty skeins to dry, and gathering it when dried, and putting it away. By the frequency of the wine-shops we judged that the legions were a thirsty host, and by the number of the barber-surgeons' shops that they were a plethoric and too full-blooded host. I think the latter were in the proportion of one to five of the former; and the artist who had painted their signs had indulged his fancy in wild excesses of phlebotomy. We had found that, as we came south from Venice, science grew more and more sanguinary in Italy, and more and more disposed to let blood. At Ferrara, even, the propensity began to be manifest on the barbers' signs, which displayed the device of an arm lanced at the elbow, and jetting the blood by a neatly described parabola into a tumbler. Further south the same arm was seen to bleed at the wrist also; and at Naples an exhaustive treatment of the subject appeared, the favorite study of the artist being to represent a nude figure reclining in a genteel attitude on a bank of pleasant green sward, and bleeding from his elbows, wrists, hands, ankles, and feet.

Phlebotomy and the manufacture of maccaroni may be distinct branches of industry at Naples, and I do not deny that they are; but I have never in my own mind been able to dissociate them since the day of my ride to Herculaneum.

III.

In Naples everywhere one is surprised by the great number of English names which appear on business-houses, but it was entirely bewildering to read a bill affixed to the gate of one of the villas on this road: "This Desirable Property for Sale." I should scarcely have cared to buy that desirable property, though the neighborhood seemed to be a favorite summer

resort, and there were villas, as I said, nearly the whole way to Portici. Those villas which stood with their gardens towards the bay would have been tolerable, no doubt, if they could have kept their windows shut to the vile street before their doors; but the houses opposite could have had no escape from its stench and noisomeness. It was absolutely the filthiest street I have seen anywhere outside of New York, excepting only that little street which, in Herculaneum, leads from the theatre to the house of Argo. This pleasant avenue has a stream of turbid water in its centre, bordered by begging children, and is either fouler or cleaner for the water, but I shall never know which. It is at a depth of some fifty or sixty feet below the elevation on which the present city of Portici is built, and is part of the excavation made long ago to reach the plain on which Herculaneum stands, buried under its half-score of successive layers of lava, and ashes, and Portici. We had the aid of all the virtuous poverty and leisure of the modern town—there was a vast deal of both, we found—in our search for the staircase by which you descend to the classic plain, and we found it a discovery involving the outlay of all the copper coin about us, while the sight of the famous theatre of Herculaneum was much more expensive than it would have been had we come there in the old time to see a play of Plautus or Terence. As for the theatre, "the large and highly ornamented theatre" of which I read, only a little while ago, in an encyclopædia, we found it, by the light of our candles, a series of gloomy hollows, of the general complexion of coal-bins and potato-cellars. It was never perfectly dug out of the lava, and it is known how it was filled up, together with other excavations, when they once threatened to endanger the foundations of worthless Portici overhead. I am amused to find myself so hot upon the poor property-holders of Portici. I suppose I should not myself, even for the cause of antiquity and the knowledge of classic civilization, like to have my house tumbled about my ears. But though it was impossible in the theatre of Herculaneum to gain any idea of its size or richness, I remembered then the magnificent bronzes which had been found in it, and did a hasty reverence to the place. Indeed, it is amazing, when one sees how small a part of Herculaneum has been uncovered, to consider the number of fine works of art in the Museo Borbonico which were taken thence, and which argue a much richer and more refined community than that of Pompeii. A third of the latter city has now been restored to the light of day; but though it has yielded abundance of all the things that illustrate the domestic and public life, and the luxury and depravity of those old times, and has given the once-secret rooms of the museum their worst attraction, it still falls far below Herculaneum in the value of its contributions to the treasures of classic art, except only in the variety and beauty of its exquisite frescoes. The effect of this fact is to stimulate the imagination of the visitor to that degree that nothing short of the instant destruction of Portici and the excavation of all Herculaneum will satisfy him. If the opening of one theatre, and the uncovering of a basilica and two or three houses, have given such richness to us, what delight and knowledge would not the removal of these obdurate hills of ashes and lava bestow!

Emerging from the coal-bins and potato-cellars, the visitor extinguishes his candle with a pathetic sigh, profusely rewards the custodian (whom he connects in some mysterious way with the ancient population of the injured city about him), and, thoughtfully removing the tallow from his fingers, follows the course of the vile stream already sung, and soon arrives at the gate opening into the exhumed quarter of Herculaneum. And there he finds a custodian who enters perfectly into his feelings; a custodian who has once been a guide in Pompeii, but now despises that wretched town, and would not be guide there for any money, since he has known the superior life of Herculaneum; who, in fine, feels towards Pompeii as a Bostonian feels towards New York. Yet the reader would be wrong to form the idea that there is bitterness in the disdain of this custodian. On the contrary, he is one of the best-natured men in the world. He is a mighty mass of pingueous bronze, with a fat lisp, and a broad, sun-flower smile, and he lectures us with a vast and genial breadth of manner on the ruins, contradicting all our guesses at things with a sweet "Perdoni, signori! ma ——." At the end, we find that he has some medallions of lava to sell: there is Victor Emanuel, or, if we are of the *partito d'azione*, there is Garibaldi; both warm yet from the crater of Vesuvius, and of the same material which destroyed Herculaneum. We decline to buy, and the custodian makes the national shrug and grimace (signifying that we are masters of the situation, and he washes his hands of the consequences of our folly) on the largest scale that we have ever seen; his mighty hands are rigidly thrust forth, his great lip protruded, his enormous head thrown back to bring his face on a level with his chin. The effect is tremendous, but we, nevertheless, feel that he loves us the same.

IV.

The afternoon on which we visited Herculaneum was in melancholy contrast to the day we spent in Pompeii. The lingering summer had at last saddened into something like autumnal gloom, and that blue, blue sky of Naples was overcast. So, this second draught of the spirit of the past had not only something of the insipidity of custom, but brought rather a depression than a lightness to our hearts. There was so little of Herculaneum: only a few hundred yards square are exhumed, and we counted the houses easily on the fingers of one hand, leaving the thumb to stand for the few rods of street that, with its flagging of lava and narrow border of footwalks, lay between; and though the custodian, apparently moved at our dejection, said that the excavation was to be resumed the very next week, the assurance did little to restore our cheerfulness. Indeed, I fancy that these old cities must needs be seen in the sunshine by those who would feel what gay lives they had once led; by dimmer light they are very sullen spectres, and their doom still seems to brood upon them. I know that even Pompeii could not have been joyous that sunless afternoon, for what there was to see of mournful Herculaneum was as brilliant with colors as anything in the former city. Nay, I believe that the tints of the frescoes and painted columns were even brighter, and the walls of the houses were far less ruinous than those of Pompeii. But no house was wholly freed from lava, and the little street ran at the rear of the buildings which were supposed to front on some grander avenue not yet exhumed. It led down, as the custodian pretended, to a wharf, and he showed an iron ring in the wall of the house of Argo, standing at the end of the street, to which, he said, his former fellow-citizens used to fasten their boats, though it was all dry enough there now.

There is evidence in Herculaneum of much more ambitious domestic architecture than seems to have been known in Pompeii. The ground-plan of the houses in the two cities is alike; but in the former there was often a second story, as was proven by the charred ends of beams still protruding from the walls, while in the latter there is only one house which is thought to have aspired to a second floor. The house of Argo is also much larger than any in Pompeii, and its appointments were much more magnificent. Indeed, we imagined that in this more purely Greek town we felt an atmosphere of better taste in everything than prevailed in the fashionable Roman watering-place, though this, too, was a summer resort of the "best society of the empire." The mosaic pavements were exquisite, and the little bedchambers dainty and delicious in their decorations. The lavish delight in color found expression in the vividest reds upon the walls, and not only were the columns of the garden painted, but the foliage of the capitals was tinted of various hues. The garden of Argo's house was vaster than any of the classic world which we had yet seen, and was superb with a long colonnade of unbroken columns. Between these and the walls of the houses was a pretty pathway of mosaic, and in the midst once stood marble tables, under which the workmen exhuming the city found certain crouching skeletons. At one end was the dining-room, of course, and painted on the wall was a lady with a parasol. I thought all Herculaneum sad enough, but the profusion of flowers growing wild in this garden gave it a yet more tender and pathetic charm. Here—where so long ago the flowers had bloomed, and perished in the terrible blossoming of the mountain that sent up its fires in the awful similitude of nature's harmless and lovely forms, and showered its destroying petals all abroad—was it not tragic to find again the soft tints, the graceful shapes, the sweet perfumes of the earth's immortal life? And of them that planted and tended and plucked and bore in their bosoms and twined in their hair these fragile children of the summer, what witness in the world? Only the crouching skeletons under the tables. Alas and alas! Master Poet, lend us your rhymes and your handkerchief.

V.

The skeletons went with us throughout Herculaneum, and descended into the cell, all green with damp, under the basilica, and lay down, fettered and manacled, beside the big bronze kettle there in which the prisoners used to cook their dinners. How ghastly the jolly thought of it was? If we had really seen this kettle and the skeletons there—as we did not—we could not have suffered more. They took all the life out of the house of Perseus, and the beauty from his pretty little domestic temple to the Penates, and this was all there was left in Herculaneum to see.

"Is there nothing else?" we demand of the custodian.

"Signori, this is all."

"It is mighty little."

"Perdoni, signori—ma!"

"Well," we say sourly to each other, glancing round at the walls of the pit, on the bottom of which the bit of city stands, "it is a good thing to know that Herculaneum amounts to nothing."

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXXIV.

VICKSBURG, Miss., March 8, 1866.

I SET out from Baton Rouge for Vicksburg and the North on the steamboat *Columbian*. At the place where I went aboard, as at most other points, she followed the fashion of Mississippi steamboats, and made the landing with more haste than ceremony. It was pleasant to look on one Southern scene full of business-like activity and bustle—the bow scraped the bank, gangway planks were instantly pushed out, freight was rolled ashore in a hurry, people crowded aboard, jostling each other to beg a late newspaper from the clerk; the steam, all the time roaring and hissing, made the boat itself seem impatient to be off, and at the end of five minutes we were making for the middle stream.

The few passengers were mostly Northerners bound for St. Louis. One reads of the strange characters, of the gambling and hard drinking on these river boats, and I looked for something of the kind, but saw nothing of it; everything was orderly and commonplace. We were going up "against a rise," I was told, so that the water was thicker than usual with mud, and great quantities of driftwood were carried past us on the strong current, but our rate of speed was nearly eight miles an hour. Let the traveller forget that not unlikely he may be scalded to death or blown to pieces, and a voyage up the river is pleasant travelling, if only because one is constantly astonished at the grandeur and immensity of the stream, recognizes the river as a wonder of nature, and because, as he sails for days after days on into the heart of a continent, he is forced to see the vastness of the country and to think of its wealth and strength in the future.

I became acquainted with but one of my fellow-passengers. He was a man from Maine, and was then on his way home again from Texas, whither he had gone at the end of the war. He had been a photographer, he said, in Austin, and away down there that was a very profitable occupation; pictures commanded big prices. He 'd have liked to stay there if the people had been a little more reasonable; but they were so down on Yankees that he was a little afraid to risk it, and, as he had been offered a good price for his gallery, he decided to sell out and get away. The soldiers were there now, but nobody knew how long they 'd remain; as soon as they should go, all the Yankees that did n't want to turn rebels would have to go too. A regular Yankee soon finds out how he 's looked down on, and he do' n't trust them. He himself had learned to carry a pistol all the time; everybody had to do it, and a Yankee in particular ought to go armed. Here was an example of the way in which they felt: One day he was in his back room, finishing a picture, and a couple of ladies walked into the reception room and began to examine the specimens. It so happened that he had photographed a good many of the officers, and he heard one lady say, "Why it 's a regular Yankee concern. 'Most every picture is some beast of a Yank." That was a kind of talk that always made him mad; he 'd heard about enough of it, so he stepped out and said, "Madam, if those officers are Yankees, they are all gentlemen." The women walked off disgusted, and would n't have anything done. It was that style of thing that disgusted him with the Southerners. At one time they were decent, comparatively. "We 're whipped," you 'd hear 'em say—"fightin' 's played." But after the women folks got hold of them the men gave up all that, and now men and women were about alike—more disloyal than they were in '60. The niggers were going to have a good time.

This person's view of these matters was the same with that of an intelligent Northerner, whom I met in Baton Rouge. He had been travelling from Ohio to Louisiana, to seek for the remains of some unfortunate friends of his who had perished miserably in a steamboat explosion, and whose bodies, it was possible, might be found at some point between Vicksburg and the Gulf. His search had brought him into contact with all sorts of persons in several States, and he had endeavored to find out as much as possible about the opinions and feelings of the Southern people. I asked him to let me know his conclusions.

"You must understand," said he, "that in 1860 I was a strong Douglas man. I did n't like Lincoln, and the abolitionists I hated; but, of course, I was Union. As the war went on I began to believe in Lincoln, and, by the time the Emancipation Proclamation was issued, I had been educated up to it and endorsed it. As a war measure, I mean; that was how Mr. Lincoln regarded it, and so did I. Well, since the war ended I 've been a conservative; I 've considered Stevens and Sumner dangerous men, who did n't understand the South, wanted to humble it and so on, and were standing in the way of peace. I believed what we used to hear, that the North did n't understand the South. I believe it yet, but in a very different sense. This journey has been the greatest that I ever experienced. I came out with the kindest feelings for these people down here; I wanted to see it made easy; we had whipped them, and I wanted it to rest there. I thought the South wanted it to end there. But I was tremendously mistaken. They hate us and despise us and all belonging to us. They call us cut-throats, liars, thieves, vandals, cowards, and the very scum of the earth. They actually believe it. They won't even allow that we won our own battles. 'We were overpowered by numbers,' they say; 'of course we could n't fight all Europe.' They 've said that to me more than fifty times within the last few weeks. And they say that they are the gentlemen; we are amalgamationists, mudsills, vandals, and so forth. And I 've heard and seen more brag, and lying, and profanity, and cruelty, down here, than I ever saw or heard before in all my life. The only people I find that a Northern man can make a friend of, the only ones that like the Government and believe in it, are the negroes. I 'm convinced they can vote just as intelligently as the poor whites. A Southerner would knock me down if I said that to him; but it 's true. I tell you I 'm going home to be a radical. Fight the devil with fire. I 've learned to hate Southerners as I find them, and they can hate me if they want to. I 'm a Sumner man after I get back, and I shall write out my experience for some of our papers. Every man that 's seen what I 've seen ought to let it be known. 'The North do n't understand the South,' you know, and I 'm going to help our people to see two or three things: that the chivalry hate us and despise us; that a 'nigger' they do n't consider human; that whatever harm they can do us without getting another whipping, they 've got the will to do, and mean to do, too. I wish every county in the North would send out two men, who have the confidence of their fellow-citizens, and make them travel through the South and report the true condition of things. They could n't make a true report without changing every honest administration man into a radical. I know what I was when I came out, but I could n't resist the evidence of my own senses."

It was eight o'clock in the morning when we reached Vicksburg, and it was not till the following morning that we could fully perceive the repulsiveness of the place. On that night, however, the landlord of the principal hotel assisted us to form a correct notion of it. He walked into the hall or office where most of his guests were assembled, and cried out in a loud voice as he walked up and down through the crowd, "Gentlemen, I warn you to take care of your money. Hardly a night passes that some gentleman in the house is not robbed. Let me beg you to look out for your money." Upon this my next neighbor said to me, "These d—d niggers, you see"—a reference to the waiters. But in fact the rooms contained two or three beds, and no one knew whether his room-mate was not a Vicksburg gambler or one of the people who make the city streets unsafe after nightfall.

On the next morning I walked about the place, observing with curiosity the singular bluff on which the town stands and overlooks many miles of the surrounding lowlands; and saw the semi-circular sweep of the Federal earthworks. In the streets there are still vestiges of the innermost lines of the besieged, and also of the caves or burrows in which people hid themselves from Grant's shot and shell. Not much, I suppose, has been done to remove the traces of the siege, and, if so, it is evident that the city suffered little by it.

The day was chilly, and in the afternoon I sat before the red-hot stove in one of the hotels and listened to one of those conversations which so displease most Northern travellers in the South. Perhaps a dozen people sat within hearing of the three speakers. Of the latter two were elderly men of good appearance, and the third was a young man of twenty-five or twenty-six, with a dyed moustache and insolent manners, who chewed tobacco and nursed one of his small feet, while, without modesty or hesitation, he engrossed the principal part in the conversation.

"Well," said one of the old men, "you were luckier than I was. They broke me up. I lost about fourteen thousand dollars worth of niggers, and they 've taken that lot of mine, and I 've got to go to work and make it up."

"They did n't make much out of me," the young man said. "Put a bullet through me at Baton Rouge; but I reckon they owed me that much, some of 'em. I had n't anything to lose. I was raised to work myself since I was that high."

"Ah, you were? At the North?"

"No, *sir*. Never was north of the Potomac till John Morgan went into Ohio, and if I live a hundred years I 'm never going again. Got no use for wooden hams."

"And these yer shoe-peg oats."

"What 's that?" said the other old man.

The young man explained to him: "Why, these Massachusetts and

Connecticut Yankees make shoe-pegs by machinery, and they make 'em cheap, so whenever they can they shove 'em off for oats on some trader at a distance. Put a few sacks of pegs among the piles of oats, you know. You go to New Orleans, and any of the grain-dealers will tell you all about it. Wooden nutmegs, wooden clocks, wooden hams—every d—n thing. I was talking to one of these fellows not long ago, and he beat round and would n't talk out openly. Trying to make me think he was a Southerner. Says I, 'How long have you been out from Boston?' 'Haow long have I been eout from Boston?' says he. 'Yes,' says I; 'I know a Yankee from Massachusetts whenever I see him. You 're no Southern man;' and then he owned he was n't."

"Ha! How did you know him?"

"His talk. And then they 've all got short fingers—picking up pegs, I tell 'em—and think more of half a dime than you would of a dollar. I can 't stand 'em."

"But, by George! though, I do n't see but what we 've got to stand 'em."

"Yes, if you stay here you have. What 's more, you 've got to stand nigger suffrage. You 'll have your niggers voting within a year."

"Oh, no; no, sir. That would n't be constitutional."

"Constitutional! How much constitution have you got left? Look at the nigger soldiers in the streets. You 'll have nigger suffrage in a year. Did n't you see that the niggers in Texas have sent up a petition for it? They have; and they 'll get it. Well, I expect to be in Mexico three months from now."

"You going to that new town some of our folks have got there? But a' n't the United States going to drive Maximilian out?"

"It 's none of the United States's business."

"Oh, but there 's the Monroe doctrine. We 've told Europe that our people a' n't going to have kings and monarchs on our soil, and you 'll see Maximilian 'll have to quit."

"Well, I a' n't in for monarchy myself. But the Mexicans are better than the Yankees and the niggers."

"Well, Johnson 's doing very well now. He do' n't believe much in the niggers, neither, and when we 're admitted into Congress we 're all right. The men that tyrannize over us now won't be in a majority then."

"All the men, North and South, that are conservatives, must unite together. There are some men at the North that behaved very well all through the war, and we must unite with them."

"All right; you gentlemen can try it."

"Well, if we can 't get in we can stay out, anyhow, and we 'll see how they can get along without us."

"If it was n't for these niggers. There 's the difficulty."

"They a' n't going to be in the way long. There a' n't half the niggers that there was. A heap of 'em 's dead. You may know that by it 's being so hard to hire 'em; there actually a' n't the niggers; and now they 're re-taking 'em to Cuba, and selling 'em. Did you see that Toombs met his coachman in the street in Cuba, and found he 'd been sold there?"

"Yes," the other old man said; and Mr. ——, of Hinds County, "had told him that he knew it for a fact that one cargo had gone over certain."

Then the talk went on about the injustice and folly of emancipation; how miserable the lot of the freedman must necessarily be; how cotton and sugar and rice never could be cultivated except by slave labor, and how the United States undoubtedly ought to pay the value of every emancipated slave. The young man for his part told of his battles, and, as I have repeatedly noticed on similar occasions, his audience received quite readily more than one story of cold-blooded cruelty, which, at the North, would not have been listened to by any circle of persons of equal intelligence and apparent respectability, if any one could be found to tell them there. For example, he and half a dozen of his companions being at some little distance from their command, came upon a straggling party of four Federal soldiers. Immediately after capturing the squad they stripped them of their shoes and hats. "We wanted them, you know; and if they had a fine watch or a roll of greenbacks, we wanted them too. Being on foot, they could n't keep up with us, and, of course, we were in a hurry about that time; so when we got into a piece of pine the Yanks did n't come out when we did. Do n't know whether any stray Yanks were seen round there after that. Maybe."

The headquarters of the Freedmen's Bureau for Mississippi is at Vicksburg. It is chiefly busied with a general supervision of the affairs of the colored people, and occupies itself with details only when its interference is necessary. The examination and approval of contracts is not a part of its work, and the relations between employer and employed are controlled, in the first instance at least, by the civil authorities. Through its subordinate officials, its influence is extended to every part of the State, and, as might be expected, it is not a popular institution. Every sub-assistant commissioner the assistant commissioner informs me, needs military force within call to sustain him. The freedmen are working very well, and are receiving good treatment; their labor being in great demand, it commands very good prices, and the planter finds it to his interest to use his laborers well. It is not from the oppressive acts of individuals, therefore, that the negroes suffer most injustice, but from the spirit in which the civil authorities enforce the laws. Under the provisions of the vagrant law, for example, a white man as well as a negro might be arrested; but in practice it is found that while honest and industrious negroes are often arrested and punished, there is no arrest of notoriously idle and worthless white men. For this state of things the spirit of public opinion is responsible; and because this state of things exists the Bureau is a necessity. The hostility to schools for the negroes is very general, and often very bitter and dangerous. In the middle of February a Dr. Lacy, an old man who had started a school in Okolona, was four times shot at as he walked in the street for no other reason than that he was a teacher of negroes.

Such cases, whenever they occur, are reported by the officers of the Bureau to the military commander, General T. J. Woods. The case of Dr. Lacy has been reported. As yet nothing has been done in reference to it. In the town of Fayette the people will not permit schools to be maintained, and in Grenada they will not permit them to be opened.

In the face of such opposition, 5,240 children have been gathered into schools, and are receiving instruction from about 70 teachers, who are paid in small part by their pupils, but mainly by the Northern charitable associations. In the monthly reports returned by these teachers they are required, I notice, to give the number of pupils in their charge whose blood is mixed, and the number of those whose blood is purely African. Taking the returns of twelve schools which happened to be first set down in the consolidated report, I find it stated that, in the opinion of the teachers, the children of African blood number 287, and those of mixed blood number 777. A majority of the scholars live in the towns and cities.

In the office of the assistant commissioner, Colonel Thomas, I met several gentlemen attached to the Bureau, and resident in different parts of the State. They spoke of the condition of the negroes as being generally prosperous, but there is much hostility, they say, on the part of the native white population to Northern men. The large landowners are anxious for immigration, but it is not so with the mass of the people. It is for their property rather than for their lives that the new-comers fear; but in respect to their lives they are by no means at ease. It would be easy to multiply instances, one gentleman told me; he would give me two. Not long since Colonel S——, of Hinds County, a Southerner, and a gentleman from the North were in treaty about going into cotton-planting together, and probably would have done so. But Colonel S——, after a little while, saw with regret that it would be necessary to break off the arrangements. He informed his prospective partner that he had reliable intelligence that more than a hundred men in the neighboring county of Holmes had bound themselves to prevent the settlement of Northern men among them, and had also determined that no discharged negro soldier should be suffered to find employment in that section of country. My informant said it was beyond a doubt that Colonel S—— acted in perfect good faith.

Another case was that of Mr. A——, of Boston. He moved into Mississippi after the war, with the intention of becoming a planter, and at first was very much pleased with his prospects—so much pleased that when a little while ago he made a visit to Massachusetts, he wrote a letter to the Boston *Post* and praised his new neighbors highly. Soon he came back, and it was not long before he began to think himself mistaken. By-and-bye he became convinced that the people were too much opposed to Northern men for him to stay among them with safety. So he paid a considerable sum of money to the owner of the lands which he had intended to cultivate, was released from his bargain, and has left Mississippi.

On the last night of my stay in a Southern city I attended a political meeting, which had been called to endorse the President's recent veto message. It was held in the court-house, and was composed of about two hundred persons, who were by no means enthusiastic. Resolutions were passed, and many speeches were made, in all of which the President was lavishly praised, and the Senate and House of Representatives spoken of with great disrespect. "The war being over," said one speaker, "we were looking for peace, but it seems that the rebellion has only changed hands; that treason has reached the halls of the Congress of the United States. But there is a man at the head who is able to cope with it. President Johnson has put down the rebellion at the South, and he is now prepared to put down the rebellion at the North."

Another speaker warned the Southern people to remember that there was a party at the North, the Radical party, who would never be content

till the last silver spoon was taken from them and their lands divided; but there was also in the North a Democratic party which needed the active co-operation of the Southern people, and only needed that to hurl the Radicals from power.

The evening was not very far advanced when Col. Joseph E. Davis, a brother of Jefferson Davis, was seen upon the floor and a committee was appointed to lead him to the platform. A speech from him was demanded, and he complied, speaking three or four minutes, when, as I think, at the suggestion of the chairman of the meeting he brought his remarks to an abrupt conclusion. The Vicksburg *Journal* says:

"He fully endorsed the action of President Johnson in vetoing that accursed measure to enlarge the powers of the Freedmen's Bureau. The bill, if passed, would have caused a revolution equal to, if not more dreadful than, the one through which we have just passed. We have a branch of the Freedmen's Bureau in our midst headed by officers of the most infamous character; who hold the offices for a given purpose; who gladly record the abuses and murders of negroes, and forward such information, rather than assist our people without homes and means in obtaining the necessaries of life. You have these officers among you. I charge you to look out for them. Mr. Davis's feeble health would not admit of any extended remarks."

I might give many passages from the various speakers, but they would be wearisome. I give but one.

Mr. McKee, formerly a general in the Federal army, stepped forward and said that he approved of the veto message of the President and endorsed it fully. "But in that hall on that night he had heard language used by some of the speakers that made his blood run cold."

Though it seemed to me not very successful as a political gathering, the meeting revealed very plainly the feeling which prevails in all the Southern country. The speakers represented the South as being cruelly injured, insulted, and oppressed, and the North as her wanton oppressor.

ENGLAND.—THE DEBATE ON THE REFORM BILL.

LONDON, March 17, 1866.

THERE was very little if any visible excitement about the reform bill on the night of the debate, out of doors; no crowd, as in the days of the old bill of 1832, assembled at Westminster to cheer the advocates or hoot the opponents of reform; and even the knot of idlers which always collects round the doors of Westminster Hall on a great night, in order to see the members enter, was scarcely more numerous than usual. Inside, indeed, the House was crammed. On the floor of the House of Commons there are not seats for more than some four hundred members, so that on full nights the odd two hundred and fifty-eight have to take refuge in the long galleries which line either side of the chamber. The door-ways and passages were crowded with members, and the peers' benches were filled with representatives of the upper house, among whom Earl Russell was conspicuous. Of its kind there are, I think, few grander spectacles than the House of Commons on a great night like that of Monday. The absence of desks causes the ranks of the members to look so close and serried; the division of the assembly into two parties, seated upon opposite sides of the House, gives a life-like aspect which, to an Englishman, seems wanting in legislative assemblies where, as with you, the place where a member sits has no political significance. Then, too, the fact that the meetings are held at night, in a room brilliantly lit by gaslight, makes the scene brighter than it would be otherwise.

For the first half-hour the routine business of presenting petitions, etc., was conducted amidst a ceaseless murmur of voices, and then there was a dead silence, broken for a moment by a few not very enthusiastic cheers, when Gladstone rose to bring in the bill. The speech was expected to be one of his most brilliant efforts, and it was known he had devoted unusual care to its composition. The Chancellor of the Exchequer has, amongst other advantages, the signal one of having a figure and voice adapted for an orator. Intellectual is the epithet you would apply at first sight to his features. I don't know that they could be called regularly handsome; indeed, he is one of those men whose face has grown more and more striking as advancing years have begun to mark it. The lithe, spare figure, which would be tall if it were not for the constant stoop, the high rather than massive forehead, overshadowed by the spare hair fading from black to grey, the stern underhung chin, the clear, piercing eyes, the sharp, well-cut mouth, all constitute a picture which, when once seen, is not forgotten easily. In repose the face is very weary—sad, I think, as a rule—but the smile is wonderfully pleasant; and, when the excitement of the moment catches, the features light up sharply, and the speaker seems to become young again. His voice—a thing most rare with English speakers—is beautifully modulated in its tones, and the charm of his accent and the rhythm of his long, stately sentences would always secure him a hearing with a popular audience, even if there was little in his words themselves.

But those who heard Gladstone for the first time on Monday night did not hear him at his best. His brief, to use a legal metaphor, was not a strong one, nor could he work himself up to much enthusiasm for his client's cause. Indeed, the defects of his oratory, his love of digressions, his taste for using three words where one would serve the purpose, were palpably conspicuous. Lord Palmerston would have explained the general bearings of the bill and the causes which had induced the Government to recommend it to the House in half an hour. Mr. Gladstone lost two hours and a half or more in doing the same thing. No doubt the feat was a marvellous one, intellectually. There is not another speaker in England who could have spoken for a like period without pausing, explaining details of a most complicated kind, reviewing every argument against or in favor of each item of the bill, and yet producing an essay which, with scarcely an alteration, might have been printed verbatim for publication. But still, if the spectators of Blondin had money depending on his arriving safely from one end of the rope to another, I suppose they would get tired if he insisted on stopping perpetually to throw a somersault in mid-air. Now, the House of Commons had an intense personal interest in learning what the Government did or did not intend to propose; and though at first they marvelled at the dexterity with which the speaker contrived to glide away into some collateral consideration whenever he approached the subject of the intended provisions of the bill, yet they grew weary when this oratorical cleverness was exhibited again and again. And after all this elaborate exordium, the announcement that the Government only proposed to reduce the borough franchise to seven pounds fell singularly flat.

The real triumphs of the debate were with Mr. Lowe and John Bright, in the opinion of many who know the House intimately. Robert Lowe is the oldest of its members. Naturally enough, he has an instinctive dislike of the Chancellor of the Exchequer. Both men had much the same start in life; both were the most distinguished men of their time at Oxford; both had little assistance from wealth and aristocratic birth; both made politics their career, and yet, while Mr. Gladstone has made a brilliant success, Mr. Lowe has made a brilliant failure. Soon after leaving Oxford the former went out to Australia and made a considerable fortune at the colonial bar; but when he came back his rival had got a start which rendered competition impossible. Moreover, the turn of Mr. Gladstone's genius is, I should think, in the Italian phrase, "antipathetic" to Mr. Lowe. His subtle reasonings, his sentimental leanings, his passion for enveloping an idea in words, must all be distasteful to a mind so clear and hard and logical as that of Lord Lansdowne's nominee for the borough of Calne. I once heard Mr. Gladstone's oratory compared, by one who knew him well, to a moral shower-bath; I might say that Mr. Lowe's was like a moral hail-storm. Every sentence is short and clear; every expression tells; every word goes home. During the early part of his parliamentary career, Mr. Lowe had the reputation of an ultra-radical. His Liberalism, however, to those who looked at all below the surface, seemed always of a negative kind. He was a radical because he disliked the aristocracy, the clergy, and the landed gentry—not because he had any sympathy for the people. Somehow or other he never obtained the confidence of the public, whose instincts are generally correct enough, and he never rose higher than to subordinate posts in the Palmerston administration. Driven from office by an outcry raised by the clergymen whom he had mortally offended in his administration of the department of education, he was lukewarmly supported by his colleagues, and has since virtually joined the opposition, though still sitting on the ministerial benches. For some time past he has been laboring to form a coalition between the Tories and the Palmerstonian Whigs, and he took the lead, in consequence, in opposing reform.

The new and last reform bill labors under the defect or merit of being less extensive than any of its predecessors. It leaves the distribution of seats untouched, so that Harwich, with its 5,000 inhabitants and 334 electors, will return as many members as Manchester, with a population of 350,000 and a constituency of 18,334. It reduces the county franchise to £14, and the borough one to £7. It adds 400,000 electors to the constituent body, of whom 150,000, perhaps, will be working-men. As to its chances of being carried I hardly know what to say. Every party is so pledged to reform in the abstract, that finally Parliament may consent to pass this bill for much the same reason as a bankrupt who thinks very likely he can get off without paying his creditors anything will yet offer a composition of a shilling in order to save himself trouble and annoyance. But my own opinion is against its success. Nobody is enthusiastic about it. The Tories dislike all reform; the Whigs approve of reform in the abstract, but dislike

it in the concrete; the Radicals only accept the bill in the hope it may lead to something better. Everything will depend on the manner in which the bill is received in the country. There are a hundred members, at least, on the Liberal side who would be only too glad to throw out the bill if they could do so without the risk of losing their seats in case Parliament is dissolved. They will form their opinion as to the probability of this result by the manifestation of feeling which the next few weeks will bring forth. As yet the bill has produced no excitement whatever.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, March 9, 1866.

THE secret of the authorship of "Héloïse Paranquet," the dramatic success of the season, has been at last revealed, and the Parisians who had settled so decisively in their own minds that this new favorite was the work of the younger Dumas are furious at finding themselves mistaken. The author, M. Deschamel, in the couple of lines he has addressed to the manager of the Gymnase on the subject, thus explains the motive which induced him to offer his play anonymously: "As the three pieces I had already brought out had been unfavorably received, I felt sure that, had I appended my name to 'Héloïse Paranquet,' no manager would have even deigned to read the manuscript. For this reason I deposited my new piece anonymously in your box, leaving it to stand or fall on its own merits. I think that the result has shown that I acted wisely in so doing."

The musical season is sufficiently animated this year. Mozart's masterpiece, "Don Giovanni," is being played both at the Italian Opera, with Patti as *Zerline*, and at the Théâtre Lyrique, with charming Mlle. Nilsson in that part; the dilettante finding a special pleasure in going from one to the other, and studying the different renderings of the two favorite songstresses. It is also to be shortly brought out at the French Opera with a strong cast and new scenery and decorations. Flotow's charming "Marta" is alternating at the Théâtre Lyrique, with Nilsson as its "bright particular star," a new opera from the hand of the same favorite composer being in course of rehearsal at that house. Flotow, an assiduous frequenter of fashionable society and a passionate lover of the chase, writes his musical compositions by fits and starts, as though "possessed," when the harmonious afflatus takes hold of him. On one occasion, when he had thus composed one of his most successful cavatinas, he wrote to St. George, who had furnished the libretto of the opera, "I send you my new song; it has cost me dear—two deer and half-a-dozen pheasants. But I shall be repaid for this sacrifice if you like it, and the public *ditto*." The forthcoming opera has been shrouded in so much mystery that its very name is not known, its authors having determined to stimulate public curiosity by not allowing anything to leak out beforehand in regard to its subject or its music. But who can foresee all the possible crannies through which curiosity may peep? Last week a non-musical friend happened to call on M. Flotow, when, the conversation having naturally turned on the new work, of which the friend expressed the strongest desire to be favored with some scrap, the maestro at last consented, and played one of the airs of the forthcoming work, feeling his secret to be safe with a guest who makes no pretensions to be musical. But what was the composer's amazement and vexation when, on entering the drawing-room of a musical friend next day, his appearance was greeted with the air he had played to his unmusical visitor the day before. The charm of the melody had impressed itself so strongly on the memory of the guest that he was able to recall it exactly, and to hum it over to the other, by whom it was at once written down and communicated to other friends enchanted with the windfall. Its performance on the appearance of the composer had been intended as a compliment; but the latter, unable to give vent to the annoyance which he had so imprudently rendered possible, consoled himself by mentally vowing that he would never again let himself be caught in similar fashion.

Great curiosity is felt by the musical world here on the score of the "Coronation Mass" composed by the great pianist, Liszt (now the Abbé Liszt!), for the consecration of the new cathedral at Prague, where it was recently performed in presence of their Austrian Majesties in most magnificent style, and to be performed, on the 15th inst., at the great church of St. Eustache, under Liszt's superintendence, with the aid of Mme. Caters (Lablache's daughter) and Waut for the solos, and over a hundred of the very first singers and performers of the Conservatoire and the French and Italian operas.

George Sand has just read, in the green-room of the Vaudeville Théâtre, her new three-act comedy, entitled "The Village Don Juan," which is shortly to be produced at that house. We are also threatened with a "Classic Theatre," in which only Greek and Latin authors will be performed—Euripides, Sophocles, Æschylus, Terence, and consorts alone coming in for the honors of a hearing. Three millions of francs, it is said, have already been subscribed toward the new building, whose architect has fully completed his plans for its construction.

Lastly, in the line of theatrical novelties, may be mentioned the amusing biography, just published by Henry Lecomte, of the perennial Déjazet, who, after being the idol of the playgoing world of half a century ago, is now, at sixty-nine, the lessee, manager, and main attraction of the pretty and popular little theatre that bears her name, acting with almost the grace and vivacity of her earliest triumphs, and singing her favorite songs in a voice clear, sweet, and silvery, in defiance of time, and the charm of the "grand style" of theatrical declamation of which she is now almost the last living representative.

A new caterer for a public always hungry after novelties is just now taking Paris by storm. Talrich, the well-known maker of the wonderful anatomical models familiar to surgical professors all over the Continent, as well as at the School of Medicine of this city, has opened on the Boulevard an exhibition of wax figures, grouped together like tableaux vivants, and of most life-like appearance and character. One very striking group is of Rinaldo and Armida; another, a perfect masterpiece of artistic effect, represents Hercules and Omphale, the delicate beauty of the Lydian Queen standing out in marvellous contrast with the brawny strength of the hero of many labors. Another group represents a scene of torture of the Middle Ages, with a horrible vigor of verisimilitude absolutely terrifying. A portrait of the great surgeon Dupuytren, dissecting a body in the scene of his long labors, the amphitheatre of the Paris School of Medicine, surrounded by a group of students, though repulsive, is wonderfully life-like, and seems to exercise a peculiar fascination on the curiosity of the visitors.

The two receptions at the French Academy have been crowded, as usual, by the *élite* of the metropolis. The first—that of M. Camille Doucet, author of "Forbidden Fruit" and other plays of the same calibre of respectable mediocrity—was redeemed from flatness by the brilliant eloquence of Jules Sandeau (of whose name George Sand has borrowed, and kept, the first syllable), who, having to respond to the eulogium pronounced by the new member on the genius of his predecessor, Alfred de Vigny, evoked the memory of the author of "Destinies" with such masterly touches and such wealth of poetic coloring as to merit comparison with Rubens transfiguring with his pencil of fire and his palette of gold the sketches of Jordaens. The second reception, that of M. Prévost-Paradol, had excited public curiosity to an unusual pitch. Every inch of space in the hall of the Academy had been secured three weeks ago by the happy mortals who are on begging terms with the immortals. The *queue* was formed as early as ten o'clock, and when, at one, the doors were opened, the rush was terrific. Little attention was paid to rights—those who squeezed and fought their way in first taking the best places, and generally keeping them, despite the excited complaints of those who found themselves thus unceremoniously dispossessed. The new member's eulogium on his predecessor, M. Ampère, was warmly applauded, and M. Guizot, on whom devolved the task of replying, was received with great cordiality. The affair was, on the whole, the most brilliant that has taken place for some years in the narrow regions of the Paris Olympus. But the fact cannot be disguised that personal and social influences play too active a part in the elections to the vacant armchairs of Richelieu's providing, and Amedée Thierry, who has failed three times in his candidature for a place in the Academy, is not the only one of the solid glories of French literature who is set aside while writers not worthy "to loose the latchet of their shoes" are welcomed with acclamations to a seat among the "Immortal Forty." STELLA.

Correspondence.

GENERAL SHERIDAN DEFENDED.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In your issue of March 29th, an article entitled "Warren and Sheridan at Five Forks," reviewing and endorsing the pamphlet on this subject lately published by General Warren, is unjust to General Sheridan, who is unheard, except through his brief official report of operations in the last campaign. General Sheridan's headquarters are in New Orleans, and he may not see this article, or, if he does, may not feel called upon to produce other reasons than he has already officially furnished for his action in regard to General Warren, as he would doubtless prefer not to enter into a controversy of this sort; nevertheless, the readers of THE NATION, in simple justice to General Sheridan, ought to be allowed to look at both sides of this question.

General Warren's pamphlet, of course, presents his case in the most

favorable light, and no fault is found with THE NATION for sympathizing with him; neither is it now proposed to reply to his pamphlet, but only to dispute, as may fairly be done without prejudice to General Warren, the conclusion of THE NATION that "the question of facts is easily settled against General Sheridan." In doing this it will simplify the matter to take in turn the numbered paragraphs of THE NATION's review.

1. It is true that the night of March 31st–April 1st was dark, and the rough country about Hatcher's Run in a terrible state for army movements, but it was not stormy, in the usual sense of the term. It did not rain, and the state of the country had not, during the day, prevented a large body of the enemy's infantry from repulsing General Warren's corps on the White Oak Road, and then rapidly marching several miles to confront General Sheridan, who fought one of the severest cavalry battles of the war in his successful effort to hold Dinwiddie C. H. against this superior force, all of which movements are detailed in General Grant's official report.

What were "the expectations" of the Lieutenant-General *does* appear on turning to the official report of General Sheridan, to which is attached the despatch of General Grant in relation to the reinforcement ordered to his support at Dinwiddie C. H. This despatch reads as follows:

"DABNEY MILLS, March 31, 1865, 10.05 P.M.

"MAJ.-GEN'L SHERIDAN:

"The 5th Corps has been ordered to your support. Two divisions will go by J. Boisseau's and one down the Boydton road. In addition to this I have sent McKenzie's cavalry, which will reach you by the Vaughan road. All these forces, except the cavalry, should reach you by 12 o'clock to-night. You will assume command of the whole force sent to operate with you, and use it to the best of your ability to destroy the force which your command has fought so gallantly to-day. U. S. GRANT, Lieut.-Gen'l."

It will be seen that his expectations were that General Warren's corps would reach General Sheridan by 12 o'clock that night.

It is a little obscure at what headquarters "it was understood that Sheridan was much more likely to retreat than to hold his ground." Certainly not at General Grant's. Nothing in his action indicates any such understanding, and General Sheridan had written to him, as we find in the official despatch, "I will hold out at Dinwiddie C. H. until I am compelled to leave." General Meade would hardly assume the responsibility of understanding General Sheridan's condition one way or the other. It is not likely that he did more or less than the orders of the Lieutenant-General required, nothing in this instance having been left to his own discretion. And at General Warren's headquarters there could have been no misunderstanding, for General Sheridan, anxiously waiting to hear from him, took the precaution at 3 A.M., on April 1st, as the official report records, to send him orders in regard to the attack to be made at daylight on the enemy's lines in front of Dinwiddie C. H., and, writing from the Court House, added: "Do not fear my leaving here. If the enemy remains I shall fight at daylight."

It will of course not be disputed that General Warren, as soon as ordered to report to General Sheridan, was bound to obey his orders and endeavor to carry out his intentions against the enemy, and, though he were ordered by the Lieutenant-General, through General Meade, "simply to reinforce" General Sheridan, he must reinforce him in such manner as General Sheridan might direct.

In regard to the retreat of the enemy at Five Forks, General Sheridan says, speaking of the battle of Dinwiddie C. H., "The enemy lay on their arms that night, not more than one hundred yards in front of our lines." And again on April 1st: "I moved my cavalry force at daylight against the enemy's lines in front, which gave way rapidly, moving off by the right flank, and crossing Chamberlaine's Creek." Again: "Meantime General Merritt's command continued to press the enemy, and by impetuous charges drove them from two lines of temporary works; * * * about 2 o'clock the enemy was behind his works on the White Oak road (Five Forks), and his skirmish line drawn in." It appears, then, that the enemy did not retreat to Five Forks during the night, but was in position to be attacked at daylight, as General Sheridan had directed. But supposing General Sheridan to be wrong about this—that he did not see the enemy's lines give way when he moved out his cavalry at daylight, certainly, at that time, no portion of General Warren's command was where the enemy *had been*, and, therefore, no person in that command is good authority as to whether the enemy remained or not.

So much as to the bearing of the official orders and despatches upon "the question of facts," and now, perhaps, a temperate reply to the views expressed by THE NATION, in paragraphs two and three of this article, may be permitted.

There is no question between General Sheridan and the division commanders of the 5th Corps, and he does not say anywhere that he found them wanting in soldierly interest and alacrity. No doubt each division commander in the army would freely testify that he had always, under all circumstances, formed his troops with alacrity for battle; but this testimony would not prove that he was always incited to alacrity by the example of his corps commander. He would rather give the impression that he was himself the sole agent in giving life to the movement of his troops in an important crisis. General Warren knows his own thoughts, and if, as THE NATION reports him, he "was delighted and eager to serve under Sheridan," it is unfortunate that on this occasion he did not give evidence of a hearty desire to co-operate in the proposed movements, for it cannot be conceived that General Sheridan could so far mistake delight and eagerness as to be led to say, officially, "his manner gave me the impression that he wished the sun to go down before dispositions for the attack could be completed." There was no agreement to attack at 4 o'clock, and no question of punctuality to that hour. From the moment the cavalry was in position in front of the enemy's works at Five Forks, General Sheridan was eager to get up the 5th Corps for the flank attack. He chafed under the delay, and was waiting, not for an hour, but for the troops, to arrive. Had General Warren mounted his horse, in response to the urgent demands for haste which General Sheridan made, and, riding through his command, urged forward the officers and men; had he busied himself, as without indignity he might have done, in the quick formation of his troops; had he appeared on the field, as General Sheridan did, realizing the opportunity and fired with enthusiasm, showing by his example that he believed in success, and thus inspiring the faltering troops, General Sheridan could have had no motive to relieve General Warren that would not have given way before his admiration of his hearty co-operation. Seeing General Warren's continued apathy after the action had begun, he relieved him from command at the first practicable moment, and, although the nation declines to enter into his motives in so doing, may it not be fairly assumed that, as the facts are not against him, his motives were of the simplest? Not because he doubted General Warren's loyalty or courage, for to doubt either would be ridiculous, as General Sheridan very well knew, but because he found that General Warren, through a natural depression resulting from a recent disaster to his command, or from other causes best known to himself, did not believe in victory, and was not sanguine of complete success in this campaign, and was, therefore, a clog to the impulse which General Sheridan had determined to give to all the force under his control, in the hope and belief that, by so doing, the army would soon be done with war. Is not this view strengthened by the extraordinary fact that the Lieutenant-General sent with General Warren unsought authority to General Sheridan to relieve him from command? "Authority for this action having been sent to me before the battle, unsolicited," General Sheridan officially reports. Does not this remarkable action on the part of General Grant satisfy everybody but unreasonable partizans that General Warren was well known to be in a frame of mind incompatible with the vigor and enthusiasm so vital at this juncture? It is almost needless to add that, although General Warren was assigned by General Grant to other commands, doubtless for good reasons, it is not possible, as THE NATION seems to imply, that the Lieutenant-General was surprised at his removal from the command of the 5th Corps, or that he promptly employed him elsewhere to evince his disapprobation of General Sheridan's action. It is hard to see what unworthy motive could actuate General Sheridan. He had already attained the highest honor the Government could bestow. He had fought through the war, and conducted brilliant campaigns, without robbing his fellow-officers of their just praise, and it is unfortunate that, in the interest of his good name, it is now necessary to disprove a one-sided narration and an assertion that a question of facts is easily settled against him. And it is still more unfortunate that he must be defended from the inference that he deliberately sought to get the credit belonging to a fellow-officer by using his superior authority to disgrace him. As the charge has been made, fairness demands a hearing for the defence, and as to the impartial reader's verdict no doubt is felt by

A STAFF OFFICER.

PHILADELPHIA, March 30th.

A NOTE FROM MR. DICEY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In the letter of the New York correspondent of the *Spectator* of the week before last, I read with astonishment the following statement: "If that were true" (namely, if the Americans were cowards), then indeed would Mr. Dicey's assertion in his "Federal States" also be true, "that 50,000 French troops could march from one end of the country to the other."

I have a fortunate faculty for forgetting what I write myself, and so I turned eagerly to the volume in question, to discover what I could have stated to justify such an assertion. I find, on referring, that in discussing the military organization of the American volunteer armies, in a letter written at the time when McClellan was only just beginning to arrange the unwieldy masses of the Potomac army into something like order and discipline, I used the following words:

"The English officers who came down to Washington to inspect the army were always very confident in their assertions that it would have no chance against a small force of well-trained troops. I agree with them so far that I think it possible that a French army of 50,000 men might march from New York to New Orleans, and defeat any force it met on its path, but when that was done no vital result would be produced; and with 50,000 men it would be impossible to occupy more than a single State."

At the time at which I wrote this letter home, no belief was more popular in England than the idea that, if any great European power chose to interfere in America, it would find no difficulty in imposing its will upon the combatants. It was against this idea that I was arguing, as anybody might see who took the trouble to read the chapter in which the passage quoted occurs.

One of my many heresies is a belief that untrained volunteers are not a match for trained troops, till they have learnt their trade of soldiering by actual experience. I believed then, and I believe still, that in 1862 50,000 French troops would probably have defeated any force that either North or South could have brought against them at one point; and I believe now, as I stated then, that such an intervention would not have affected in any way the final result of the war. How far my statement, as to the possibility of

a trained army marching across the continent, has been borne out by the triumphant march of Sherman's veterans in 1865, is a matter of opinion.

I trust I have said enough to show that I did not indulge—as the correspondent represents—in a silly sneer against the learning of American newsmen. That I was not likely to have done so would, I should have thought, have been known to every one who ever read any of my writings, and to none more than "A Yankee" himself.—I am, sir, your obedient servant,

EDWARD DICEY.

LONDON, March 17.

A NAUTICAL CRITICISM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

Does n't a ship at anchor always bring up with her head to the wind? and if so, how can there (then) be any leeward shrouds?

Yours, CARL BENSON.

[Our correspondent is right in the criticism implied by his questions. We did not state the whole case against the picture mentioned in our last. The essential error was that to which Carl Benson calls attention, the fact that there *was* a leeward and a windward side to a ship riding at anchor. The sea was running high and breaking over the port-bow, the spray driving across the deck, and men the while going aloft by the starboard shrouds; the whole *status* unaccountable while the ship was visibly anchored.—ED. NATION.]

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

THE United States possesses no great national library, and the slow growth and niggardly appropriations for the Library of Congress for many years past have not indicated any prospect that the deficiency would ever be supplied. The reasons are obvious why our national capital cannot be expected to furnish library facilities to the scholars of this country at all comparable to those of London or Paris. Yet there is no reason why Washington should fall behind New York or Boston in its collection of books of practical value, or why our only national library should continue poor in all that relates to the discovery, settlement, and natural and political history of our own country. A legislative body for a great and populous continent like our own should have at command a library filled with all that can illustrate the immense range and diversity of subjects upon which it is called to legislate; and our national library should be a great library of reference, where the men of letters and science of our own and other countries, who visit Washington, should be sure of finding competent aids in their researches. We would not insist that such a library should possess absolutely every American book, though it would ultimately be a highly important service to literature and its history in America to find upon the shelves of some great central library (and what one so proper for the purpose as the Government library at the national capital?) a complete representation of what the country had produced, however valuable or however valueless it might to some appear. As one step in the right direction, we notice that a bill has recently passed the Senate to transfer the custody of the Smithsonian Library at Washington to the Library of Congress. This will enlarge the latter library, as we learn, by some 40,000 volumes, raising it at once to the front rank among American collections, and going far toward completing it in what it is now most deficient in, namely, works devoted to science and the arts. We may before long expect to see the Library of Congress the largest, as it already is one of the most select, in this country, with proper liberality in the Government appropriations, and intelligence in their expenditure for its increase. We can see no good reason for building up two separate large libraries at the seat of Government, and the concentration of these two into one fire-proof building, if properly arranged and intelligently catalogued, must result greatly to the benefit of all who desire to consult books at the national capital.

—Mr. David G. Francis is on the eve of republishing "A Bibliographical and Critical Account of the Rarest Books in the English Language," by J. Payne Collier, F.S.A., a work of which it is not easy to speak too highly. The amount of labor involved in reading the books described in its pages, or in skimming over them sufficiently for ordinary bibliographical purposes, is not large; but the labor which does not appear is immense, extending, as must in such cases, over many years, and calling for as much patience as industry. In regard to the rarity of a volume, for instance, the student frequently finds that he was mistaken, his supposed rare book turning out to be quite well known to scholars. It costs much time and more reading to master even the alphabet of bibliography. Mr. Collier began his bibliographical career about sixty years ago (he is now seventy-nine)—when he became possessed of Wilson's "Art of Logic," printed by Richard Grafton in 1551, from which he ascertained that "Ralph Roister Doister" was older than "Gammer Gurton's Needle," and that its writer was Nicholas Udall—and has continued it ever since, occasionally making literary discoveries, the most important of which is assuredly *not* the famous Perkins folio. Through good and evil report he has pursued his way, and the result of his labors in one direction is the work which Mr. Francis is reprinting. Akin in spirit to the "Censura Literaria," "Restituta," and other publications of Sir Egerton Brydges and his coadjutors, Park and Haslewood, it differs from those works, which are largely taken up with well-known though comparatively rare writers, in that it describes only the rarest—those which are now known to be such, having been unearthed from their ancient hiding-places within the last sixty years by Mr. Collier and other scholars and collectors, with what pains and at what uncounted cost! It also supplements the works mentioned, since it contains entirely new matter, Mr. Collier stating that he has never criticized, scarcely quoted even, a volume mentioned by others. The abundance of the material which he has brought to light is surprising—much more surprising than its literary value, of which, in some cases, the less said the better. He reproduces the "Bridgewater Catalogue," which he prepared about thirty years ago for the first Earl of Ellesmere, the whole impression of which, consisting of only fifty copies, was distributed as presents—a princely but unwise proceeding: unwise as regards the smallness of the edition, which Lord Ellesmere afterwards regretted, authorizing Mr. Collier to reprint the work when he chose. Familiarity with a portion of the ground gone over by Mr. Collier, and a considerable reading of what other bibliographers have written thereon and thereabouts, incline us to place his work at the head of its class in English. The only one which will at all compare with it in cleverness of research is Corser's "Collectanea Anglo-Poetica," and that, which is printed for the Chetham Society and therefore not accessible to ordinary purchasers, is still unfinished; it makes, besides, no claim to the description of rarities exclusively. The original edition of Mr. Collier's book is in two large octavo volumes of between five and six hundred pages each. Mr. Francis's reprint will be in four volumes crown octavo, of between three and four hundred pages each. There is no comparison between the two in the essential of a handsome volume, the English copy being clumsy and not especially well printed, the American almost perfect of its kind. The edition is small, consisting of a limited number of copies of the ordinary size and seventy-five copies on large paper.

—Two new Sanscrit dictionaries have lately been published, one in French, the work of Messrs. Emile Burnouf and L. Leupol, the other in English, a compilation by Theodore Benfey, professor at the University of Göttingen, edited by Max Müller. A great advance has been made in the knowledge of Sanscrit in Europe since Anquetil Duperron first discovered the existence of a Sanscrit dictionary of native origin, and since Sir William Jones revealed the beauties of the ancient Hindu drama to his countrymen through his version of "Sakuntala." Neither of these scholars can be considered profound in Sanscrit. Duperron blundered at the very threshold of the "Amarakosa," of which he could not have known much beyond the name, while Sir William Jones paraphrased rather than translated the sufferings of the noble Hindu maiden. Later came Colebrooke, who published the original text of the "Amarakosa," and an English interpretation of it. The late Horace Hayman Wilson, in the first edition of his dictionary, made some advance on Colebrooke's labors towards making the study of Sanscrit practicable without the aid of native teachers; but in reality accomplished little beyond translating and verifying what had been collected and arranged by learned natives attached to the College at Calcutta, a mass of useful material, no doubt, but not free from the suspicion of having been gathered in the furtherance of special interests. His second edition is but a slight improvement on the first, omitting, as it does, authorities, and containing but little new matter. In fact Sanscrit philology has rather languished in Europe since the death of Eugène Burnouf, who has left no successor worthy of him, except, perhaps, Adolphe Rignier, who is excellent in all that he undertakes. Two good Continental scholars, Messrs Böhtlingk and Roth, are understood to be pursuing Sanscrit studies, as likewise Professor Goldstücker in England, but as their labors have not been given to the public, their value cannot yet be determined. In the meantime the students of Sanscrit literature will have to content themselves with the old authorities, however imperfect, and the two dictionaries mentioned above, the merits of which are rather

comparative than positive, neither thoroughly fulfilling the requisites of a standard Sanscrit dictionary.

—The Emperor Napoleon's "Life of Cæsar" has been productive of numerous *brochures* against him, the latest of which, "L'Histoire du Nouveau César," by P. Vésinier, is having a surreptitious circulation in Paris. Inferior to the famous "Propos de Labienus," it is still a brilliant specimen of invective, the writer never degenerating into dulness, though he is often libellous. He relates many amusing anecdotes of Louis Napoleon's early life, especially in reference to the failures at Strasburg and Boulogne, but he adds so many that evidently were calumnies as to deprive his work of all historical value.

—The Rev. W. W. Shirley has recently issued, through the Clarendon Press, Oxford, "A Catalogue of the Original Works of John Wyclif," his object being to collect information concerning Wyclif's manuscripts, their chronology, or their connection with each other, for the purpose of publishing a satisfactory edition of his works. What Wyclif wrote in Latin seems to be pretty well established, but the greatest confusion exists in regard to his English writings, the very popularity of which, at their time of production, when they circulated in a multitude of forms, has added to the difficulty of subsequent research concerning them. To reduce this chaotic confusion to order, as far as possible, is the motive of the catalogue, which is the result of researches in England, Prague, Vienna, and Paris, and the cause of its publication.

—The deep hold which the ancient myths of Greece have taken in the soil of their nativity, or most favored transplantation, is shown in "The Greek Almanac for 1866," in a translation therein of a privately printed paper by M. Lehon on the mythology of modern Greece. There was formerly a colossal statue of Dêmêter, now at Cambridge, which was reverenced by the modern Eleusinians as Saint Dêmêtra, and, when it was removed, her worshippers grieved sorely, believing that the fruitfulness of the Eleusinian plain had departed with it. Concerning this statue, or rather the saint after whom it was named, who was, of course, a Christianized reminiscence of the goddess Dêmêter, there was a popular legend which M. Lehon heard from a Greek priest, who by his own account was more than one hundred years old, and which was to this effect: Saint Dêmêtra, an old woman of Athens, poor but devout, had a daughter of surpassing beauty, whom a Turkish aga of Epeiros, who was skilled in magic, beheld one day as she was combing her long golden locks. He made fierce love to her, but she repelled all his advances; so on Christmas night he broke into Saint Dêmêtra's house and carried off her daughter on a black horse swift enough to pass in a few minutes from Athens to Epeiros. The afflicted mother wandered about looking for her child, but found no tidings of her until she fell in with a stork from whose nest she had once driven a ravenous bird—a kindly act which was remembered by the grateful bird, who related the manner of her daughter's abduction, and promised to guide her on her journey. They wandered on in the cold wintry weather, and no one would receive them except the wife of the hadji-bashi, or local magistrate, of Eleusis, who gave them help and comfort, while Saint Dêmêtra in return blessed them and promised to make the plain fruitful. Now, this charitable pair had a beautiful and brave son, who volunteered to go in search of the lost maiden provided he might have her for his wife when she was found. He set forth in company with the stork, and after a time saw a great fire where there was a vast pot boiling, surrounded by forty serpents. He lifted the pot with one hand and put it down again, whereupon the serpents told him that he was surely the man to rescue a certain damsel who had been imprisoned by a magician in a tower near by, and whom they had wished in vain to carry off. They took him to the tower, which he ascended by the means of large nails, taking out the lower ones as he rose, lest the serpents should follow him. At the top he beckoned them to follow, and slew them one by one. In the tower he discovered the daughter of Saint Dêmêtra, with whom he fell in love. The aga coming in, the rivals struggled and fought for three days and nights, the magician having the advantage of changing himself into different shapes. At last he killed the youth and cut him into four quarters. The stork, however, who had witnessed the struggle, flew away and returned with a medicinal herb of such power that when it was placed between the lips of the slain man his dissevered body came together, and he arose alive, and renewed his combat with the aga, whom he only overcame after three days more of hard fighting, by vowing to become a monk. The aga was finally overthrown, the stork completing the work by pecking out his eyes and pulling from his black head the single white hair on which his life depended. The maiden was restored to her mother; the young man went into a monastery; and Saint Dêmêtra departed with her child, leaving, as she went, the blessing of fruitfulness on the plains of Eleusis. Such is the form which the old pagan myth of the sowing of corn has assumed in modern Greece, from which it and similar corrupt remembrances of its beautiful early fables are rapidly passing away, living no longer in the hearts of its people, though still "a joy for ever" to the rest of the civilized world in the pages of its immortal poets.

—That "Puck of Commentators," as some one has called him, Stevens, who, to his other accomplishments, is suspected of adding the doubtful one of forging, or causing to be forged, a portrait of Shakespeare, declared of the latter's sonnets that "the strongest act of Parliament that could be framed would fail to compel readers into their service." Not so think his brethren of the present time, who have gone into raptures over them, and devoted volumes to their elucidation, so far, it must be confessed, with no very signal success, and with a singular want of agreement—one maintaining that the lovely youth whom the poet celebrated was his nephew (who, by the way, died at the age of ten, or thereabouts); another, that he was a mythical personage named Hughes; and a third, that he was Queen Elizabeth herself! Mr. Charles Armitage Brown, the friend of Keats in his last days, broached, about thirty years ago, the theory that Mr. W. H., whom the printer Thorpe declared to be the "onlie begettor" of the sonnets, was Mr. William Herbert, afterwards Earl of Pembroke. This theory is now generally acquiesced in, though questioned in France by Philarete Chasles, who has one of his own which we have never been able to understand, and in Germany, where Professor Bodenstedt and others maintain different views. A new claimant for honor in this field of Shakespearian study is Mr. Gerald Massey, one of the minor English poets, who has written a volume which the Longmans are about to publish, under the title of "Shakespeare's Sonnets never before interpreted; his Private Friends identified; together with a recovered Likeness of Himself." We are not fully informed of Mr. Massey's theory, but we understand it to be substantially that of the writer of a paper in the "Quarterly Review" for April, 1864 (who may have been Mr. Massey himself), viz., that the sonnets, instead of shedding any light on the life and feelings of Shakespeare himself, as many suppose, were really written for pay for other people, chiefly for his patron, the Earl of Southampton, in relation to his progress at court and his courtship of Elizabeth Vernon, who afterwards became his countess, much to the dislike of Queen Elizabeth, who had no fancy for seeing her favorites become Benedicts. We shall soon have an opportunity of weighing the arguments, if he offer any, by which Mr. Massey hopes to prove this novel view of the question. In the meantime we hold to the opinion of Mr. Brown, that Mr. W. H. was my Lord Pembroke, whose poems, with others that were not his, were given to the world long after his death by the rather disreputable son of the poet Donne.

—Dr. Whewell, the late Master of Trinity College, was in many respects a remarkable man. Born at Lancaster, towards the close of the last century, the son of a tradesman in that town, he was sent to Trinity in his seventeenth year, a raw country youth, of whom, and his proficiency in his native tongue, a good story is related, to the effect that when he was lounging one day at the college gate he saw a herd of swine driven by, which drew from him the following soliloquy: "They 're a hard thing to drive—very, when there 's many of them—is a pig." Two years later the raw country youth gained the Chancellor's prize of a gold medal for a poem entitled "Boadicea," and in another year he was second wrangler on the mathematical tripos. Fellow and tutor in due time, he was elected professor of mineralogy in 1828, and was an active worker with Peacock, Herschel, and Babbage in the reform of the university mathematics. He wrote largely on mechanics, mathematics, and kindred subjects, beginning with the "Bridgewater Treatise on Astronomy," which was followed by the "History of the Inductive Sciences" and the "Philosophy of the Inductive Sciences," the works by which he is best known. Accepting the professorship of moral philosophy in 1838, he held that office till 1855, becoming, in 1841, Master of Trinity on the resignation of Dr. Wordsworth. He edited Sir James Mackintosh's "Introduction to the Study of Ethical Philosophy," and published a couple of volumes of his own on "Morality;" the "Ethical Dialogues of Plato;" "Lectures on Political Economy;" "Architectural Notes on Churches in France and Germany;" and "Some Specimens of English Hexameters," the last in a volume containing similar efforts by Sir John Herschel, Archdeacon Hare, and Lockhart, the son-in-law and biographer of Scott. Dr. Whewell, in short, was one of those active, restless men who are never happy except when busy, work of some sort being their life. He wrote well on many subjects rather than exhaustively on any one, though he himself would have been the last person to perceive the fact, or to confess the justice of Sydney Smith's gibe, that "science was his forte, and omniscience his foible."

—A satisfactory edition of Chaucer is something to be desired, for since all the early editions, which were printed from corrupt copies, no editor has taken the pains to compare the poet's works with the best manuscripts, and to correct the text accordingly. This is now to be done for an edition in progress—the editor of which, Mr. Richard Morris, follows the London and Oxford manuscripts, Mr. Lumley helping with those at Cambridge, while an experienced copier has been sent to Glasgow to read "The Romaunt of the Rose" with the magnificent copy there. Mr. Bond, of the British Museum, has, in his antiquarian researches, come upon some fresh traces of Chaucer which are soon to be published. Altogether the prospects for a standard edition of "old Dan Chaucer" are favorable.

—The brother of Heine is about to publish in the *Gartenlaube*, a German illustrated paper, a series of letters entitled "Recollections of my Brother Heinrich Heine," a specimen of which has already appeared, and which touches on the relation between the poet and his uncle Solomon, the banker, the richest man in Hamburg. There was a perpetual war between them on the subject of money, which Heine, like the poet that he was, despised, and which his uncle, like the banker that he was, loved and hoarded, which did not, however, prevent him from giving away large sums in charity. He was generous to his brilliant but erratic nephew, though he lectured him on his extravagance, a circumstance which led the former to leave Hamburg as often as he could induce his uncle to give him money to travel with. On one occasion, after he had finished his tragedy of "Radcliff," he found the banker at breakfast, in good humor, and announced to him that he wished to visit the country in which its scenes were laid—England. "Go," said Uncle Solomon. "Ay, but living is dear in England." "You received money not long since." "True, that will do for my expenses; but for the honor of the name I want a decent credit with Rothschild." A letter of credit for ten thousand francs was given him, with the understanding that it was only a matter of form, and was not to be used, his mother having put into his purse one hundred louis d'or. In less than twenty-four hours after his arrival in London, Heine presented the letter to Baron James von Rothschild, who cashed it. A few days later, when Uncle Solomon opened his letters at breakfast, he found one from Baron James, telling him "that he had had the extreme pleasure of making the personal acquaintance of his celebrated, charming nephew, and that he had had the honor to pay four hundred pounds to him." The pipe dropped from the old banker's mouth, he ran up and down the room, cursing at Heine and Rothschild; at last he went to the poet's mother, whom he lectured on the total depravity of her son. She wrote the dear boy by return of post, but neither her letter nor his uncle's anger troubled him. One passage in his answer was substantially as follows: "Old people have caprices; what my uncle gave in a fit of good-humor he might take back in ill-humor. I had to make sure. Who knows but in his next letter he might have written to Rothschild that the letter of credit was only a mere form; there are enough examples of the sort in the annals of rich bankers' offices. Indeed, my dear mother, men must always make sure; would uncle have become so rich if he had not always made sure?" On Heine's return to Hamburg there was, of course, a sermon, to which he listened in silence; when it was finished he said, "The best thing about you, uncle, is that you bear my name," and left the room. They soon made up again, and to the end of his sadly afflicted life Heinrich Heine, poet, had no better friend than Solomon Heine, banker.

—One of the greatest rarities in the collection of the late Mr. George Daniel, of Islington, author of "Merrie England in the Olden Time," "Love's Labor not Lost," and other not very readable works, was a collection of old black-letter ballads, amounting to seventy in all, printed between the years 1559 and 1597, which Mr. Daniel bought at a reasonable rate, as he did most of his curiosities, but which realized £750 at his sale. This collection is about to be reprinted by its purchaser, Mr. Frederick Huth, a well-known collector, as his contribution to the members of the Philobiblion Society, a close corporation of amateurs, whose publications are very limited in impression and only for private distribution.

ARCHITECTURAL REFORM.*

Of all the fine arts architecture is that which has the closest connection with the practical requirements of life. Its very existence is based upon necessity, and therefore wherever men live some form of it must appear, varying in quality according to the conditions of the society in the midst of which it has grown. Its characteristics have been governed by those conditions to such an extent that when we are engaged in archæological research regarding any people, their architectural remains form an important and sometimes the only basis of judgment by which we can arrive at a definite opinion touching the nature of their civilization. A deduction by reason from these primitive types of art to the circumstances of their peculiar development is natural and easy, and the result, in our minds, is intelligible and distinct. We recognize the ancient Egyptian in the temples of the Nile; we know the Greek when we have studied the fragments at Athens and the Greek colonies; the most eloquent type of Roman empire is in the shattered temples, baths, arches, aqueducts, and basilicas of antiquity; and the mediæval mind is present to us intact in the churches, monasteries, castles, and town-halls built from the eleventh to the fourteenth centuries. These impressions are, to a certain extent, spontaneous, but are developed and deepened, not changed, by deliberate analysis.

Now, in the entire absence of a standard of architectural criticism in this country, as applied to our own daily use, it is of the first importance that we should understand how it is that history has expressed itself so plainly and so intelligibly in the architecture of the past. It is evident that the solving of this question involves a theory of architecture capable of application to the most common uses of the art among us—a theory which, when once understood, will enable the public to sympathize with the architect, to relieve him from his isolation, and restore that mutual confidence and interest between them and him without which there can be no real and national art. At present, popular opinion, where there is any at all, is based upon the merest caprice or prejudice; patronage is wofully misbestowed; quacks flourish, and the true architect is misunderstood and neglected. Without the intelligent sympathy of the public this art cannot live and progress; the architect needs to be sustained, protected, encouraged, chastened by the consciousness that the people understand what he is doing. Caprice and fashion, with their infinite and childish vagaries, must give place to a public appreciation of the architectural problem not as a mere matter of taste or even as a question of art—this would be expecting too much for the present—but as a matter of reason and common sense.

One of the first results of a revival of interest in architecture in the Old World, particularly during the last century, was the multiplication of archæological works illustrating certain local or temporary phases of the architecture of the past. Thus, the great architectural writer of Roman antiquity, Vitruvius, was translated, edited, and illustrated by almost innumerable architects from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century; the result was the reproduction throughout Europe during this period of forms borrowed from Rome; it was the period of the Renaissance, a period when all architecture was governed by Vitruvian rules variously interpreted, when nothing was done without a Roman precedent to support it, and everything in art was judged according to Roman authority. Then came writers on Greek art, led by Stuart and Revett, who, on their return from Athens in the last century, gave to the world the results of their accurate admeasurements of the temples and monuments of Greece. In this manner a certain Greek element was introduced into modern architecture. Later the German antiquary, Boiserée, published, at Cologne, his works on mediæval architecture hitherto despised. He was followed by numberless others, copying, editing, and restoring the details of nearly every cathedral in Europe. Thus arose modern mediævalism, and with it an interminable controversy between those who yet clung to the principles of antique architecture, and designed according to Vitruvius and his followers, the Italian masters of the fifteenth century, and those who embraced the new architectural religion revived from the Middle Ages, and built churches and chapels after the manner, but not according to the principles, of the freemasons of feudalism.

This controversy has created a new Babel in modern architecture. There is a confusion of tongues worse than that which interrupted the building of that famous architectural unity on the plains of Shinar. Eclecticism has arisen. Architects, embarrassed by precedent, impeded by their knowledge of the past, have produced an unintelligible polyglot made up of Egyptian, Greek, Roman, Saracenic, Byzantine mediæval types, mixed together in various proportions, which we must distinguish as the architecture of the nineteenth century. It has found its way in a diluted form to the New World, where it has been uttered in town and country with increasing bewilderment to the people.

In the midst of this embarrassing complexity, and in the pressing need to repair once more to the primitive fountains of art for refreshment and inspiration, and for that new knowledge which discusses, analyzes, and compares, a purely literary element has been introduced into modern architecture, with the intention of instituting a careful and philosophical examination into the whole question of the proper use of precedent, of eliminating all the perplexing points of controversy, and thus of arriving at some theory of archi-

* "Entretiens sur l'Architecture, par M. Viollet-le-Duc, Architecte du Gouvernement et Inspecteur Général des Edifices Diocésains." Paris: A. Morel & Cie. 1863.

tecture from which may proceed a new and more wholesome progress, a style peculiar to our time, not an imitation nor a conglomerate, but a logical deduction. This literary element is represented in England by John Ruskin, who, with all his faults, may almost claim to have accomplished, in that country, with his pen that which hitherto in the history of architecture has only been accomplished by the great organic movements or changes of society, a revolution. He, at least, is the most prominent among those who have created the present tendency among English architects to design and build more according to reason and less according to prejudice or fashion. Whatever the result may have been so far, it cannot be justly doubted that for the first time in five centuries there exists in the mother country a theory of architecture which can be applied by architects to practice, and by the intelligent public to criticism. And this is a state of things which is full of promise for the future. However much we may differ from Ruskin in detail, and however much we may distrust his glittering and seductive eloquence, this fact is undeniable—that he has created an atmosphere which is wholesome for art. The mysterious agencies established by the freemasons in Europe during the Middle Ages, by which their various phases of progress from good to better were made simultaneous throughout a continent, is more than equalled by the modern diffusion of books. So we have already experienced in this country somewhat of this new feeling in architecture. We read Ruskin and his followers, and people here begin to take an interest in the subject of which these writers are the ministers. The fundamental result of their teachings, as regards the actual practice of art, is the application of the idea of *truth of expression* to design in the place of that mere correctness of imitation, that servile adherence to archæological precedent and authority, that reproduction of styles which, until now, has held sway in all modern architecture. The most advanced of these teachers hold that architectural precedents are not mere formulæ on which all design must be strictly and correctly modelled, but that they constitute, as it were, a dictionary of phrases, a grammar of form, to be referred to not for its own sake, but to give scope and freedom to the language of art. The problem presented to the architect is simply this: Given a subject, to develop it with all the grace and elegance which a perfect command of language and a complete knowledge of grammar can confer upon the art of composition. This problem accepted, a national path of progress is open to art. Then it is for genius to render the incident of this progress illustrious by great works. Individual genius cannot take all progress upon its shoulders and achieve an era of art. In architecture, as in the other arts, it can only accomplish illustrious results when surrounded by a prevailing atmosphere of intelligent criticism, which sympathizes, encourages, and applauds. The analogy between literature and the fine arts is, in all these respects, complete.

The English mind is not sensitive to the appeals of art; it moves sluggishly in grooves of conventionalism and custom, and is extremely jealous of change or innovations. Mr. Matthew Arnold's charge of Philistinism against the English people is sustained by a study of the development of their arts. No nation has exhibited such a profound respect for the archæological side of architecture, or has transferred precedent to modern uses with such pedantic and unimaginative precision. Foreign influences have been rigorously excluded, save those derived through Italy and Greece from classic antiquity; and even these, before becoming current, have had to pass through the alembic of Sir Christopher Wren or Sir William Chambers. Their modern Gothic has been a bold and unpoetical imitation of their mediæval Gothic, which, for the sake of mechanical convenience, has been artificially divided in their books into Norman, early English, decorated, and perpendicular periods. In short, their architecture has been antiquarianism—nothing more or less; and yet, by the establishment of new schools of architecture, based upon the common-sense principles to which we have referred, there has arisen among them a prevailing sentiment of healthy criticism, the practical results of which we already see in the abandonment, to a great extent, of their late narrow rules and formulæ of design. This new era has already been elegantly illustrated by such buildings as the Oxford Museum and the Assize Courts at Manchester—buildings the design of which has been controlled not by archæology so much as by fundamental principles. Regarding these as types of British progress in architecture, and comparing them with the perpendicular pedantry of the new Houses of Parliament, English architects may at length fairly claim that they at least are no Philistines; that they are discovering other precedents besides English precedents, and, underlying them all, controlling them all, more important than all, a vital principle of art.

The English are instructing us in architecture to this extent. Let us continue to read their new books and watch their new works. Let us profit by their labors and their experience. But there is another field of instruction no less fertile than this, no less fruitful in ideas and examples, though far less familiar. There is an important rational movement in France on this question, into the causes and progress of which it is becoming we should examine with scrupulous care, and which we shall discuss in our next number.

A NEW PHILOSOPHICAL LIGHT.*

The author of the work which bears this portentous title-page informs us that he allows to the world three hundred years rightly to judge and fully to appreciate the value of the doctrines which his book contains. Ih order that the time may be accurately reckoned, he has recorded the date of the issue of the first edition as April 5, 1865. It would have been easier to keep the reckoning if it had been April 1, but four or five days are of little account where the period is so long as three hundred years. One year has expired already. It is somewhat early for a book destined to so long a probation to come under the notice of the reviewer; but we venture to introduce it to the public in a critical way, premising that if our estimate should prove to be incorrect because it is premature, there is ample time for it to be corrected and reversed.

The "Philosophy of the Human Voice," published by the same author in 1827, must have been received with unexpected favor, for he tells us that he gave the world fifty years to become duly sensible of its value. It has become a classic in its way, and has done more than any work of the century to lay a solid foundation for the science and art of elocution, and for an analysis of the products of the human voice. Though pedantic in its nomenclature and positive in its tone, it gives evidence that the author was gifted with a discriminating ear, and that he had applied to all the possible modes of human speech a most careful and patient attention.

The analysis of the human intellect was undertaken much earlier, and has been much longer upon his hands. The promise is very large upon the title-page, to which, however, the performance by no means corresponds. The reason is to be found not in any defect of the power of analysis, but in a defect of method arising from a false fundamental assumption. The *idolon specûs*, which has misled a mind naturally acute and trained under no inferior opportunities, is the notion that the mind must be material in its structure, and can be studied only by the methods that are appropriate to the inspection and analysis of things that can be seen and touched. The "metaphysician" against whose "confusions," "arrangements," and "nomenclature" he enters so earnest and vigorous a protest upon the title-page, is any one who believes in a spiritual essence which is separate from the body and brain of the animal. The author is not content with renouncing the metaphysician and "all his works" by a single emphatic disavowal, but he returns to him on almost every page, as if the lustiest belaboring of the poor unfortunate with blows and kicks of every device could never satisfy his indignant zeal. The only legitimate method of investigating the mind, in the view of the author, is "the physical" as contrasted with the metaphysical. By the physical he does not intend the inductive method as contrasted with the speculative, nor the analytic as distinguished from the fantastic; he does not mean the docile and patient seeking after the facts and laws of the soul, as a constituent part of that great system of physics which we call nature, but he means the assumption, by a kind of dogmatic *coup de main*, that the substance of the soul is itself material. The first proposition which the author lays down is the following: "The human mind is an effect of the organization of the senses and the brain. This mental function is governed by laws similar to those of other physical phenomena." The only evidence which he condescends to furnish is in a few sentences like these: "In this beginning of the history of the material mind, we refer its effects solely to the physical laws of nature. These, as far as we can perceive, produce all their phenomena by the relationships or actions and reactions of matter alone, without the agency of what we call spirit. These laws, *we maintain from analogy*, operating on the senses and the brain also produce the mind in common with their other material effects." "Could a controversial metaphysician bring before *my senses the smallest fraction of the least atom* of an immaterial mind, I might be induced to try an argument about the rest of its atomism," etc. The senses are the only instruments by which we obtain any knowledge of mental phenomena. The suggestion that there may possibly be another means of knowing the soul called consciousness, he rejects as a fiction of metaphysicians, and he accounts for the invention of it by

* "Brief Outline of an Analysis of the Human Intellect: intended to rectify the scholastic and vulgar perversions of the natural purpose and method of thinking, by rejecting altogether the theoretic confusion, the unmeaning arrangement, and indefinite nomenclature of the metaphysician. In two volumes. By James Rush, M.D., author of the 'Philosophy of the Human Voice' and of 'Hamlet,' a dramatic prelude in five acts." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. First edition. April 5, 1865.

supposing that "the enquirer who first turned his attention to the state and action of his own mind and to the effects of mind in others, noticed in himself an act of memory and a comparison of two acts of memory, to which notice he gave the name 'consciousness,' and learned by description that there is the like exercise of consciousness in others. And thus arose the general term for our self-knowledge of part of the phenomena of the mind." "The want of an analytic observation induced a belief of there being something in its condition different in kind from the physical perception of external objects."

When the author comes to those acts in which the organs of sense have no direct share, viz., to the impressions of sense received by memory, he seems to have some faint impression that his theory will fail, but he marches bravely up to the threatened breach with the following argument: The "memorial perceptions" are "perceptions without the presence of their external causative objects." But how can they be material in their character if one of the material co-factors is withdrawn? "*From an analogy that cannot be controverted,* we infer that the memorial perceptions are excited upon some delicate but *un*obvious organization of the brain; and having regarded the primary as physical functions, *we must infer with strong probability* from the homogeneous structure of the sensuous nerves and the brain, and from the correspondence of the images and types with their external things, excepting a fainter degree of the memorial, that, *until the contrary is proved, the memorial* are equally a material process," etc. It will be seen that the conclusion is founded upon analogies piled upon analogies, and that the author rests serenely upon its truth until "*the contrary is proved.*" The contrary, if proved, would be that the phenomena in question are not discernible by the senses. How this can be effected to a mind which denies that anything can be real which is not "discerned by the senses" it is somewhat difficult to conjecture.

The author having surmounted this difficulty, pursues his way bravely on. He disposes of all the phenomena usually called relational under the category of "joint perceptions;" the phenomena of reasoning are assigned to "the conclusive perceptions;" the effect of language is ascribed to "the verbal perceptions;" "the primary," "the memorial," "the joint," "the conclusive," and "the verbal," being made to comprehend all the phenomena of the soul. It is singular to notice how easily he glides over the difficult points of his theory by the help of a word, how he recognizes all the variety of relations in which the perceptions stand to one another when they are joined in the brain, and yet how quietly he asserts that they are all accounted for by the mere fact that the "perceptions" concerned are excited in the brain, as purely material phenomena, at the same instant. It would be an interesting question for him to answer, "How is it that the perceptions concerned are at one moment judged as diverse, or identical as whole and part, as here and there, as near and remote, as substance and attribute, as cause and effect, as means and end?" What special twist, oscillation, vibration of fibres or fibrillæ, or other *un*obvious sensuous changes in the brain, can be conjectured as giving—no, not as giving or being the condition of, but as being themselves the knowledges of—any of these relations? Dr. Rush seems not to desire to evade this question. He recognizes all these relations as actually involved in our "joint perceptions." He dwells upon the necessity of them all in the system of human knowledge, and illustrates their application in forms that are manifold. But he does not flinch in the least from the conclusion to which his assumptions lead him. He boldly affirms "that relationships, when recognized by the senses and the brain, are as truly physical as the things themselves which give rise to them." Surely it would seem that a man in the spirit of a system could go no further than this. But our author seems to proceed to a point beyond. He looks forward with hope to the time when the capacities of light may be so far understood, and the resources of the microscope may be so far developed, as to "render the most delicate structure of the brain and its hidden movements palpable to every enquiry into the physical problem of the human mind." "We leave it to the future discoverers of an enlarged and piercing method of vision, and to the observing, experimenting, and reflective physiologists, not to dodge among cerebral fibres and cells after an invisible and trackless spirit, but to trace and describe the physical forms, motions, successions, and combinations of images and types in the working plan of the brain, thus spreading over the mind a descriptive panorama of its material self." We own that this is something novel, and that it will probably require a portion of the assigned three hundred years to effect this result. The boldness, not to say the audacity, of the proposition is only equalled by the sublime unconsciousness of the author of the irony upon himself contained in the concluding clause: "thus spreading over the mind a descriptive panorama of its material self." What is a "material self," in the theory of the author, but a material organism of the contents of a few cubic inches capable of oscillations or other *un*obvious but presumed sensible affections which, it is conjectured, may in some good time be discerned by the microscope? What possible "descriptive panorama" could there be, except a pictorial representation (enlarged and photographed, perhaps) of these sensuous movements microscopically discerned? But how this representation could be "spread over" the mind it is not at all easy to see, if the mind is but a material self, *i. e.*, an oscillating or throbbing brain. How can you spread upon such a brain a pictorial representation of itself? If the physical philosopher would be so good as to do this, and prove it to our senses, we will renounce the demonstrations of metaphysics for ever. We will, at the end of the first year of the three hundred, accept Dr. Rush as our philosopher and guide.

It is a curious question how came Dr. Rush to adopt the theory which he propounds. We can find no better solution of this question than one which his own theory suggests. In giving the history of the composition of his treatise, he says that the first drafts were written in pencil in "the Nassau Hall position" acquired at Princeton College, where he "learned the common practice there of reading and studying with the feet elevated to the height of a table, a fire-place ledge, or window-shelf, or anything to keep the feet from the floor." This was not "a boorish American vulgarity, but a fashion of classical education." "It has been my manner, therefore, always to think, compose, and first commit to pencil record in the Nassau Hall position," etc.

We would submit the question, with all deference, whether this unfortunate habit does not, on the author's own theory, account for the theory itself. Did he not elevate his feet too high in thinking and composing, and was not the blood driven back upon the upper extremities and made to press too heavily upon the brain? Was there not in consequence induced a general subversion or turning "topsy-turvy" of the whole cerebral apparatus, and is not the theory of the author himself, as a kind of subversion or turning upside down of all the usually received notions, fully accounted for by the unfortunate "Nassau Hall position" carried to excess? It is a pity that science was not in a condition to penetrate into the interior of his brain when this attitude was assumed. The results of a microscopic diagnosis might not only have confirmed the truth of the theory itself, but have gone far towards explaining its origin.

SOUTHERN UNIONISM.*

This book, written by a Northern woman living in the South among the scenes she describes, is published for the purpose of giving facts to show the uncompromising and devoted character of the loyalty of those Southerners who remained true to the country during the war. The truth of the incidents is vouched for, and the characters are drawn from life; the form of a connected story has been chosen to attract and heighten the interest. The facts of themselves—the hunt of Union men with bloodhounds; the refuge in the swamps; the Union speech by Richard Whedden in the secession court-house, ending in his attempted murder, the fight of the hostile parties, and the fall of the crowded court-house floor; Richard Whedden's escape; the heroine's imprisonment and discovery of her lover in a Yankee prisoner; Annie McGowan's revenge, and the fall of Newbern—were events exciting enough to have made the story interesting, if the manner of telling had not rendered them tame. The style varies from an unnatural exaltation to an unnatural depression—often putting a stilted diction in the mouths of persons whose words are meant to move the feelings, not dwelling with sufficient emphasis on the prominent and effective scenes. We mention this in no unnecessarily critical spirit, but as an explanation of the reasons which will prevent the book from attaining that popularity which the author no doubt considered the subject entitled to. Had the treatment been more successful, had the result been more readable, these sufferings of Southern Unionists would have got a larger number of attentive listeners.

There is another reason, however, why the "Eye-witness" fails in a measure of its object, the proof of error in the prevailing opinion at the North, that there is but little Union feeling at the South, and that of rather an equivocal character. The existence at the beginning of the rebellion of a strong Southern party for the Union few people doubt, any more than they do the withdrawal of at least one or two States by mere political trickery; that there was a great deal of stout loyalty in North Carolina during the first year of the war, every one is willing to believe, and will believe more firmly after reading this narrative; but the volume closes with the occupation of the coast by Burnside, while we are chiefly anxious to know the condition of feeling in the State after rather than before his landing. How

* "Eye-Witness; or, Life Scenes in the Old North State, depicting the trials and sufferings of the Unionists during the Rebellion. By A. O. W." Boston: B. B. Russell & Co.; S. S. Boyden, Chicago, Ill. 1865. 12mo, pp. 276.

many Unionists there were during the last three years of fighting, how many were content to remain in the swamps and sacrifice all personal considerations to their love of country when the Confederate power had tightened its grasp, is the information which we should most desire, and it was this information that the author, from the circumstances of the case, could not give. The prevailing opinion at the North is that, as it was natural to expect, when the Confederate authority was fairly established, when the Union began to seem an impossibility, when life and limb were threatened on every side, Southerners began to look upon submission to the powers that were as their only resource, and that, having once come to that point, the loss of brothers, sons, and slaves was sufficient to make the greater part hate the government they wished to love. The frequent reference now in Southern news to the political antecedents of prominent men, who were originally opposed to secession, but afterwards supported it, may show to some extent the truth of this view. We should be glad, indeed, to know otherwise—to have accurate proof that in the summer of 1864, for instance, there was any considerable Union feeling in the rebellious States east of the Mississippi.

But this doubt does not make any less real the heroic fortitude and terrible trials that this eye-witness saw. Northern men and women can have nothing but deep sympathy for those in the South who risked everything to be faithful under the lash of the faithless. They knew war in all its horrors, not in battle, but at home, robbing, persecuting, and killing them at their very doors; they had nowhere to fly, save with snakes to the swamps, or foxes to the mountains; nowhere even to die for their cause unless they rotted in prison, or swung from gallows; they were alone in the midst of their friends, their own kin were their enemies. Yet they hoped and struggled on, where there seemed nothing but despair. If any one doubts this, or has forgotten, let him read the "Eye-witness."

BOOKS RECEIVED.

BROKEN TO HARNESS. A Story of English Domestic Life. By Edmund Yates. Second edition. Loring, Boston. (O. S. Felt, New York.)

CHERRY AND VIOLET. A Tale of the Great Plague. By the author of "Mary Powell." M. W. Dodd, New York.

THE STORY OF KENNETT. By Bayard Taylor. G. P. Putnam; Hurd & Houghton, New York.

ST. MARTIN'S EVE. By Mrs. Henry Wood. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

THE REBEL STATES: THE PRESIDENT AND CONGRESS. Reconstruction, and the Executive Power of Pardon. E. S. Dodge & Co., New York.

THE LOST TALES OF MILETUS. By Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, Bart., M.P.—A TEXT BOOK ON CHEMISTRY. For the use of Schools and Colleges. By Henry Draper, M. D.—WALTER GORING. A Story. By Annie Thomas. Harper & Bros., New York.

AENONE. A Tale of Slave Life in Rome. John Bradburn, New York.

THE HISTORY OF HENRY ESMOND, ESQ. 2 vols.—THE YELLOWPLUSH PAPERS. By William M. Thackeray. Leypoldt & Holt, New York; Bernhard Tauchnitz, Leipzig.

THE REBELLION RECORD. Part LV. D. Van Nostrand, New York.

THE TRAGEDIES OF SOPHOCLES. A New Translation, with a Biographical Essay. By E. H. Plumptre, M.A. 2 vols.—THE WORKMAN AND THE FRANCHISE. Chapters from English History on the Representation and Education of the People. By Frederick Denison Maurice, M.A.—SIX MONTHS AMONG THE CHARITIES OF EUROPE. By John De Liefde. 2 vols.—HOW TO STUDY THE NEW TESTAMENT. The Gospels—the Acts of the Apostles. By Henry Alford, D.D. Alexander Strahan, London and New York.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

THE description of a "Process of Fractional Condensation, applicable to the separation of bodies having small differences between their boiling points," by Mr. C. M. Warren, which was published in this country some months since, in the *American Journal of Science* and elsewhere, is now going the rounds of the European scientific journals. In view of the facts that this process has attracted so much attention abroad, and that it promises to be of great value as a means of scientific research, and perhaps even of direct practical utility in the arts, it deserves to be more generally known to the American public than now appears to be the case. The apparatus employed by Mr. Warren differs from the ordinary distillatory apparatus only in that, between the retort and the condenser, there is inserted an inverted worm. This inverted worm is immersed in a bath of water, or oil, or some fusible metal, so arranged that it can easily be maintained at any desired temperature by means of a special lamp or fire. So long as this bath is kept cold, no vapor can pass through the worm which is immersed in it. Thus, for example, if a mixture of alcohol and water were to be boiled in the retort the vapor would all be condensed in the cold inverted worm, and run back as a liquid to the retort. But when the bath which contains the inverted worm is heated, it is found that vapors can pass through this worm at a temperature which is considerably lower than that at which the mixture in the retort is boiling. Now, since the temperature of the bath is completely under control, it can readily be maintained at such a point that the vapors arising from the retort shall be cooled to the lowest possible limit of temperature which their most volatile portion can bear without suffering condensation. This temperature having first been hit upon by trial, the bath is then regulated so that only a certain small and tolerably definite portion of the vapor shall pass through the inverted worm, the greater part of the vapor which enters the worm being condensed within it and so returned to the retort. In order that the translation of the volatile portion of the vapor shall be continuous, it is only necessary that the temperature of the bath be increased very gradually as fast as the more volatile constituents of the mixture in the retort are taken off; this is easily effected by trimming the flame beneath the bath. It is evident, from the foregoing, that by means of the new process there can be secured, regularly and constantly, a vastly more efficient condensation and separation of the more volatile from the less volatile portions of any vapor than has ever been realized in any of the old processes of fractional distillation. The vapors which have passed through the inverted worm are, of course, led into an ordinary cold condenser, where they are reduced to the liquid state and collected in small successive portions. In this way there is obtained a series of products as pure as can possibly be afforded by a single distillation, and by again repeatedly subjecting these products to the sifting action of the warm inverted worm almost absolutely pure products can be at last obtained.

—The study of the habits of the tape-worm reveals the history of a large number of parasites which infest both man and animals, and sets forth in a clear light the dependence, in certain cases, of one species of animal upon another, of a wholly different kind, for the fostering of its young. To effect this it becomes necessary that the young parasite should perform a series of migrations, the accomplishment of which, under the circumstances, would seem, were it not for the positive evidence to the contrary, a matter of impossibility. A species of tape-worm which infests the intestines of the herons and other shore birds discharges its eggs within the intestine. These are voided by the bird, fall into the water, and are swallowed by the sticklebacks, in whose digestive organs they hatch. The young, however, do not remain here, but, obeying their instinct, bore through the intestinal walls and find their way into the general cavity of the abdomen. Here they grow often, relatively, to an enormous size, but do not reach maturity. So long as the parasite lives in the body of the cold-blooded fish the sexual organs do not appear, and will not, until the host, the stickleback, is swallowed by some water-bird, in whose stomach the fish is digested, and the young tape-worm thus set free. Under the influence of the warmer climate of the bird's body sexual maturity is reached, and the animal is in a condition to lay eggs and thus give birth to a new generation.

The migration of the human tape-worms (there are two species) is not unlike that which has just been described. These worms only become sexually mature in the intestines of man. Each of the joints, which together make up the body of the worm after it has acquired its full size, has both male and female organs, and, as regards the process of reproduction, each joint may be considered a complete animal. There may be several hundred such joints, each producing thousands of eggs. The mature joints detach themselves from the main body, and may lay their eggs either before or after leaving the intestines of their host. Once out of the human body all further development is at an end, and they inevitably perish unless they are swallowed by some other animal. Of such as are used for food by man, the hog is almost the only one into whose stomach they are carried; but for one egg that reaches this destination, hundreds of thousands, perhaps millions, fail. A single joint of a tape-worm, however, contains eggs enough to infest the whole body of the hog. Almost as soon as swallowed, the young parasites are set free by the action of the gastric juice in the hog's stomach. The action of this juice is necessary, since the covering of the egg has such a consistency that the young worm unaided cannot make its way through it. It is on this account that the eggs do not hatch in the intestines, since the fluids of the intestines have no solvent power upon the envelope. As soon as freed the young begin their migration anew, bore through the intestinal walls, and by traversing the tissues or by getting into the vessels, along which they are carried by the blood, they finally reach the muscles, where they for the most part stop. Sometimes, but rarely, they reach the membranes of the brain. The young worm now begins to grow, and develops from its hinder part a sac filled with water, which gave rise to the name of cysticercus or "bladder-worm." When present in large numbers at this stage in hogs' meat they cause the appearance commonly known as "measly pork." In this condition they are sexless, and are also powerless to migrate further and seek the other conditions necessary for their full development

To obtain this development, they must in some way be carried back from the hogs' muscles to man's intestines. If the flesh of the hog is eaten without the parasite having been killed by cooking, which often happens, the circuit is completed and the migration ended. The worm now casts off its bladder, buries its head in the mucous membrane, makes it fast with its crown of hooks, and begins to develop joints and assume the mature condition. Thus it will be seen that the eggs pass from man, are swallowed by the hog, hatch in his stomach, the young migrate to his muscles, and thence pass in food to man's intestines. The adult belongs to man, the "bladder-worm," or the cysticercal stage, to the hog.

Contrary to what has just been stated, the cysticercus has been found, in rare instances, in the human body. This anomaly has been accounted for by supposing that either the eggs have been accidentally swallowed, or as really happened in one case, after obstinate vomiting, they were carried up from the intestine into the stomach, where the young were liberated by the gastric juice, and thence migrated to the muscles as they do in the hog. A cysticercus in the human muscles could never come to maturity unless the infested person were eaten by some animal or by chance fell into the hands of cannibals.

Of all migrating parasites infesting the human body the trichina spiralis is the most formidable, not only on account of their immense numbers, but of the serious and often fatal effects of their march. This pest has been known for thirty years, but it is only quite recently that it has been proved to be the cause of grave disease. In Germany several instances have happened where large numbers of persons have been infected, and of the infected many have died, in some communities giving rise to a general panic. At Hedersleben, in Saxony, a town of two thousand inhabitants, three hundred persons were attacked, and of these it was estimated that about one hundred died.

The worm is of microscopic size, not exceeding the one-fiftieth of an inch in length, and sometimes exists in incredible numbers. Middeldorpf has invented an instrument for extracting portions of muscles in suspected cases, and in some instances a piece of muscle could not be found in any part of the body which did not contain trichinæ. Any one who has seen a piece of infected flesh will not be disposed to doubt that they may fairly be estimated by millions.

The history of the trichinæ has been carefully studied by Leukart and Virchow. In the mature stage their habitat is in the intestinal canal of man and some of the domesticated animals; in the immature or sexless stage, except when migrating, they are confined to the muscular system, and alternate between the intestines of one animal and the muscles of the other. As far as man is concerned, he alternates mostly with the hog in helping to maintain the life of this formidable parasite, though it is probable that in some instances he shares the same responsibility with the rabbit. To follow the worms through their circuit we will suppose a man eats trichinous pork; as soon as the parasites reach the intestines they begin to develop sexual organs, each female worm laying about one hundred eggs; a single ounce of pork has been known to contain thousands of trichinæ, and these, collectively, produce eggs enough to infect the whole body. When the eggs are hatched, the young, under the influence of their migratory instinct, perforate the intestines and disperse in every direction, following the interstices of the organs until they reach the muscular system; here they stop, and soon become invested with a membranous sac, which in course of time may become solidified by a deposit of lime in its substance. This period of their emigration from the intestinal canal is the dangerous one for man. If there are a few only, their presence may not be known; but when they move, as is more commonly the case, in large numbers, the progress of thousands of them eating their way at the same time, in all directions, through the tissues, gives rise to febrile symptoms, intense pain with great tenderness of the abdomen, great prostration and a general typhoid condition, all of which may end in death. If the victim survive this, there is another stage which, though less grave, is seriously troublesome, viz.: that in which the worms establish themselves in the muscles, giving rise to great soreness all over the body, every motion being attended with tormenting pain. This, however, gradually passes away, and the patient recovers, though his body is everywhere filled with the chalky cysts containing the parasites, which sooner or later perish. For here, as in the case of the cysticercus, the only chance for them to come to maturity is in man's being devoured by some animal or by his fellow-man.

From what has been stated it will be seen that the man and the hog play an important part in the life of both the trichinæ and the tape-worm, and it cannot be denied that the flesh of the hog may become a highly dangerous article of food. Fortunately in this country the trichinæ has thus far proved comparatively rare, since the custom of eating uncooked ham or sausages is much less common with us than in the Old World; nevertheless some instances of fatal poisoning by this parasite have occurred, and many other cases have been observed of a less severe character. The only security man can have against the trichinæ is either to abstain from eating the flesh of the hog, or, if he will have it, to make sure that it is thoroughly cooked, in which case the trichinæ will be inevitably killed.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Saturday Evening, March 31, 1866.

The feature of the week has been a decline in exchange to 106 for prime mercantile and 106¼ to 106⅜ for first-class bankers' bills. The decline was caused by the excess of cotton bills offered for sale, combined with the reduced enquiry from importers. Goods are so hard of sale that importers are generally unable to remit; while, on the other hand, the existing firmness of the cotton market abroad, and the uncertainties impending over its future, induce continued shipments to Europe in spite of falling exchange. Simultaneously with this remarkable turn in our foreign exchanges, the gold market has once more been "cornered." A clique of bold and wealthy operators, relying upon the implied promise of Government to sell no more gold before the May interest falls due, have bought up some four to five millions, and locked it up, thus creating an artificial scarcity and compelling the bears either to pay ⅛ or ¼ of 1 per cent. for the use of gold for a day, or to cover their contracts. Under these influences the price was forced up at one time this week to 128½. It closed to-day at 127¾. But for the scarcity, gold might now have been nearer 120 than 125, and there are those who believe that when the clique disgorges its gold the premium will fall lower than it would have gone had no scarcity been created—perhaps below 120. It is an open question among bankers whether or no it will pay to import gold at the present time. In ordinary times, when this country was on a specie basis, it was usually calculated that with bankers' bills at 106½, gold could be imported from London. Just now, however, to make the operation safe, the gold must be sold "short" here the day the exchange is bought and borrowed for the interval to elapse before it can be got from the other side, the sovereigns sent to Philadelphia to be recoined into eagles, and thence returned here. If during this interval gold should be worth ⅛ or even 1-16 a day, the operation would be a losing one. Still, it is likely that some device will be discovered for surmounting this difficulty, and that in the event of a continued depression in the exchange market some parcels of gold will

come from the other side. London bankers will not be slow to discover the profit to be made by sending gold here to be invested in cotton bills.

General business continues depressed, especially in the dry goods trade. Staple and fancy goods, in the auction rooms, do not sell for as much in currency as they cost in gold. Some descriptions do not command enough to pay the duty. A slight improvement is reported in some styles of domestics, but not enough to restore confidence among manufacturers or to put jobbers in spirits again. Buyers are few in number and very cautious in purchasing. Not even the triumph of Mr. Stevens and the paper-money men in Congress suffices to shake the general belief that prices are on the downward turn, and that the less a man buys the better he will be off.

Money is very easy. Call loans are 5 to 6 per cent. First-class short paper is quoted at 7; long paper is not easy of sale. It was rumored some time since that the interest on the temporary deposits in the Sub-Treasury would, on 1st April, be reduced to 5 per cent. No such announcement has yet been made. A heavy failure took place last week in banking circles: Culver, Penn & Co., a house connected with petroleum wells, suspended payment on Wednesday. It is understood that the house had locked up all its available means in building a railroad in the oil region. It is feared that other failures will be likely to follow. During the expansion of the past three years many institutions and firms must necessarily have extended themselves to a degree which may involve danger in the event of continued contraction. With the exception of Governments and the active speculative stocks of the day, there is but a limited market for securities, and a still more limited one for merchandise. Forced liquidation would involve losses which might lead to many suspensions. Prudence dictates the policy of contracting business of all kinds, and allowing no obligations to run which can be extinguished. Those only will grow rich in these days who keep out of debt, live economically, and buy no more than they want from day to day.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets throughout the week:

	March 24.	March 31.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅞	105	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103⅞	104⅛	⅜	...
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103¾	104⅛	⅜	....
10-40 Bonds	90⅝	92⅜	1¾	....
7.30 Notes, second series	100	100⅜	⅜	....
New York Central	92¾	90⅝	....	2⅛
Erie Railway	80⅜	74⅜	....	6
Hudson River	109	108	....	1
Reading Railroad	101⅜	99⅛	....	2¼
Michigan Southern	81½	83½	2	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	79¾	76¾	....	3
Chicago and North-western	27½	26½	....	⅞
" " " Preferred	55⅝	54¼	....	1⅜
Chicago and Rock Island	116	111¼	....	4¾
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	92	88¾ ex. d.	....	3¼
Canton	47	47	....	....
Cumberland	44¼	43	....	1¼
Mariposa	12	11⅜	....	⅝
American Gold	125	127¾	2¾	....
Bankers' Bills on London	107¾	107	....	¾
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

One feature of the week has been a general though slight advance in Governments of all descriptions. These securities are in growing demand both at home and abroad. Recent advices from Germany state that as the United States currency improves and the gold price of the bonds rises, the German consumption will increase instead of declining. Dutch bankers who bought 5-20s at 35 to 40 in gold are buying again at 72 to 73, instead of realizing the profit on their previous investment. And here, at home, many persons, dreading the uncertainties of the future and disgusted by the rogueries of railway managers, are selling their railroad securities and putting the proceeds in Governments. The 10-40 bonds have been in especial demand during the week, and many seem to expect that they will gradually approximate to par.

On the railway list depression has been the rule, with one solitary exception—Michigan Southern. This stock is firmly held by the clique which has it in hand, and has sold as high as 84¼. To maintain the price in the teeth of a declining market, the clique have been compelled to buy all the stock offered, and as few speculators venture to sell it short, in the present condition of the stock, they will have a pleasant time when they propose to realize. It was rumored that the directors would declare a dividend at the meeting on the 27th. But whether the board had not the courage to do so in view of the fact that the company has not yet been able to repay the money it borrowed of Mr. Henry Keep for the dividend of March, 1865, or whether a majority of the board are not interested in the present clique movement, the meeting adjourned without fulfilling the predictions of speculators. There is every reason to believe that the company is earning little or nothing over and above expenses and interest. But the clique may, nevertheless, put up the price to 90 or 100 if the bears sell the stock short. The famous Rock Island clique, disgusted by the declaration of a dividend of 5 per cent. only, tried to sell their stock on the 28th inst., and in about an hour the price ran down from 116 to 110¼. Had the clique continued to press stock upon the market the price would have gone to par before the adjournment. Alarmed by the utter absence of enquiry for the property, they stopped selling, and enjoined the directors against the declaration of so small a dividend. This legal proceeding will, of course, prove a farce. The Erie director has at length shown his hand, and has sold down the stock to 74½, against 85 three weeks ago. His losses in the recent campaign must have been excessive; it remains to be seen whether he can make them up on the bear side. His friends predict that the stock will sell at 60 before midsummer. New York Central shows signs of weakness, the Albany bill being by no means what the company wanted. There is a heavy block of this stock to be sold when the fate of the measure is finally determined. As a general rule, the public continue to be entirely indifferent to the fluctuations in railway shares. No one is buying, and, from present appearances, prices will have to decline much more before a consumptive demand arises.

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Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

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AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.
CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

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ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - - - 1,500,000 00

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CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - 275,353

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CHARTERED 1850.
Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.
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1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...	$11,799,414 68

RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.

For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48

Disbursements as follows:		
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40	
Paid Annuities	10,242 55	
Paid Taxes	38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:		
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25	
Real Estate	782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85
Add:		
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR		$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

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OF THE

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

Income for 1865, ...	$715,899 15
Paid Losses by 35 Deaths, ...	99,900 00
Paid Dividends—return premiums, ...	69,160 67

Assets, Jan. 1, 1866, $1,530,877 17.

The comparative growth of this Company is shown by its increased receipts during the past four years, ending 1st November. From

	For premiums.	*For interest.*
November, '61, to November '62	$150,927 18	$35,319 52
November, '62, to November, '63	198,202 68	38,628 50
November, '63, to November, '64	300,196 85	51,768 75
November, '64, to November, '65	551,571 47	67,854 87

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS,

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775).	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost		$4,881,919 70
(Market value, $5,018,449 06.) Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., } Medical Examiners.
GEORGE WILKES, M.D., }
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

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which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that ALL their patrons may reap its benefits.

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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 41. THURSDAY, APRIL 12, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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JOSEPH H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER, 130 NASSAU STREET, N. Y.

The Week.

THE civil rights bill has been passed in the Senate, and is, we believe at this writing, sure of being passed in the House over the veto. The New York *Times* is, as far as we know, the only one of the Republican or quasi-Republican journals which even professes to regret it. Those which were heartiest in their approval of the veto of the Freedmen's Bureau bill, confess that in the passage of the civil rights bill a great right has been done. Good faith, as Mr. Johnson in earlier and apparently better days acknowledged, demanded this much; the claims of justice as well as of decency would not have been satisfied with less. How could any Secretary of State have dared to remonstrate with any foreign power for maltreating a colored citizen of the United States, bearing the national passport, if our Government permitted the States of the Union to do the same thing not as something rare and abnormal, but under the sanction of law? When Mr. Johnson gravely argued in a state paper against giving the negroes those common rights without which it is a mockery to call a man free, on the ground that to term them "citizens" would annoy the newly arrived Irish and Germans, he destroyed what respect for his head still lingered in the public mind. There are probably few thinking men who are not now satisfied that the whole veto message would have been just as powerful, logically, as it was if it had consisted simply of the sentence—"If I know myself, I have no prejudices; but I do hate a nigger."

THE declaration wrung from Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, that, if the Freedmen's Bureau bill and civil rights bill were passed, "he was henceforth the enemy of *your* Government, and would devote the feeble remnants of his life in efforts to overthrow it," is, of course, what Capt. Marryatt called "flapdoodle." He will probably pass the "feeble remnants" of his life as he has passed the last year; but the mere fact that the feelings of such a man as Mr. Davis—a man of unusually conservative character, and who has never been guilty of any overt act of disloyalty—should prompt him to make such a speech on such an occasion, is perhaps the best proof that has been yet afforded of the wisdom of the hesitation Congress has shown in re-admitting Southern representatives. Not a man of them would be even as loyal as Mr. Davis, their oath to the contrary notwithstanding; and yet he regards the Government of the United States as not his, but a foreign government, and he vows he will pass his old age in trying to upset it. And for what? Because it has disfranchised any of its citizens? Because it taxes people without their consent? Because it quarters soldiers in private houses? Because it inflicts cruel and unusual punishments? Because it bridles the press—abolishes trial by jury—governs by proclamations—makes arbitrary arrests? None of these things. Its fault, in Mr. Davis's eyes, posterity will learn with some astonishment, is that it gives one-third of the Southern population the same rights that are enjoyed by the Irish peasantry—that is, the right of getting the same law dealt out to them in courts of justice as to everybody else, upon payment of the legal fees. We see, too, in this incident the old hatred of the rule of the majority which brought on the rebellion, and which, whenever it pervades any considerable portion of the population, eats out the vitals of a republic.

THE Connecticut election had probably much to do with strengthening Congress on the civil rights bill. But the majority was miserably small. Who would have believed two years ago that a soldier of Hawley's standing could be run so closely by one of the most prominent Copperheads of 1863?

ALEXANDER H. STEPHENS, according to the Washington correspondent of the New York *Times*, has propounded the doctrine that Mr. Johnson's plan of reconstruction was part and parcel of the military convention under which the South laid down its arms, and that Congress has, therefore, no more right to meddle with the arrangement than with the terms of surrender at Vicksburg. The "war power" is every day now receiving a touch from either secessionists or conservatives which promises, before they have done with it, to make it the greatest power ever wielded by a Christian ruler; and what is most significant about it is, that amongst the most ardent advocates of its extension now are many of those who two years ago denied its existence. According to Mr. Stephens's theory, if Mr. Johnson had chosen to agree to restore slavery, or to exempt the South from taxation, or to permit it to exclude all Northern men from Southern soil, the legislature of the country would have been compelled to concur. Commanders-in-chief are, in the eyes of these new expounders and defenders of the Constitution, wonderful fellows. George the Second might, under their ruling, have agreed to share his throne with the Pretender after Culloden in defiance of Parliament. If a constitutional convention is again called, one of its first duties should be to define the "war power," in the interest of freedom and common sense.

THE bolting members of the Tennessee Legislature who blocked the machinery of government by making a quorum impossible, have just been re-elected in almost every instance and by large majorities. So the situation is virtually unchanged, and sooner than allow the passage of any act discriminating against the disloyal, these men will probably repeat the manœuvre by which they threw upon Governor Brownlow the charge of supporting the State convicts and the inmates of the State asylums. He for his part has threatened, in that case, to let loose the criminal and the idiotic upon the community which refuses to feed them. Such a procedure would be sufficiently calamitous; but it may be doubted if the State would suffer so much from it as it would from relaxing the present restrictions upon the rebellious, and permitting them to regain their lost control of politics and society. As for the admission of Tennessee into the Union, we do not see that it has been advanced by this latest evidence of the temper of her people.

THOSE whom business called below the City Hall Park on Friday last must have been impressed with the urgent need not only of relieving Broadway, but also those narrow and most inadequate thor-

oughfares which flank it on either side. Into these the necessities of the fire department had turned the innumerable host of stages, with other vehicles of all descriptions, to test the patience of drivers and passengers, and to delay and imperil pedestrians—especially those who were seeking the ferries, on which depended their reaching home or journeying to other parts. This latter annoyance was only an exaggeration of what is experienced every day; and unless with the renovation of our piers there is effected a widening of the streets between the North River and Broadway, the suburban population of New York will soon be inclined to make their wills before venturing into the city, as the Roman soldiers used to do on the eve of a battle.

The street-cleaning contractors complain of being harassed and annoyed by the Board of Health; but as the result of this irritation seems to have been that they carted from the city forty thousand more loads of dirt than were ever before removed in the month of March, we hope the Board will continue to remind them of their engagement. "We have found ourselves," they say pathetically, "pretty much in the situation of Balaam's ass—the more we endeavor to please, the more we are satisfied that it is impossible to do so." The public are not far from their way of thinking; but the "impossible" pertains to the contractors, not to the job itself.

With the thirty-fifth letter of our Southern correspondent we close the transcript of the condition of the late Confederacy for which his nine months' journey was undertaken. We can confidently refer to the contents of this interesting record in justification of the title which we have uniformly prefixed to it—"The South as It Is." Our correspondent has all along given intrinsic evidence of his faithfulness as a reporter, neither adding to nor subtracting from what he heard and saw and noted. His letters have been absolutely free from the charge of exaggeration, and in this is the secret of the weight which we believe they have had with every thoughtful reader. We leave it to others to award the praise due them for their style of composition, which has been, we may be permitted to remark, in striking contrast with that of the common run of newspaper correspondence during the past five years.

The New York *Times* takes alarm at the smallness of the minority in Congress, and thinks a strong minority greatly needed. We do not quarrel with this opinion. There cannot be a question that a compact, clear-headed, patriotic, even if mistaken, opposition would improve the character of our national legislation, by compelling every project, resolution, bill, or amendment to undergo the most searching scrutiny and the most intelligent debate. Such a minority, if it had existed during the war, and made its loyalty transparent, might have saved us from a good many precedents of the abuse of power for which we are now paying dearly. The trouble was and is, that the minority (which is none the less the minority because the President is at its head) has neither virtue nor principle, nor any decent claim upon the public respect. The only real strength which minorities or majorities can have lies in a consistent attachment to our republican polity and the spirit which makes it vital. The fatal blunder of the opposition in the four years of battle was not in denying the legitimacy of the means but in denouncing the end, which was the forcible suppression of revolt. The blunder of Messrs. Garrett Davis, Reverdy Johnson, Rogers, and their associates is again in opposing the sacred object of the nation to protect its inhabitants in the enjoyment of impartial rights. The President errs with them. If the *Times* also finds itself in their company, it is not because it is driven there; but its accession will not make the minority a strong one.

The *World*, recovering its breath after the passage of the civil rights bill, returns to its old query—"Is the Rump a Congress?" Mr. Johnson had suggested that it was not—at least for the purpose of legislating for the South; but he failed to justify his own boasted approval of bills which bear upon all parts of the common domain. The *World* apologizes for him, as it were, by saying that "so long as Congress confined itself to ordinary and necessary legislation, and passed no laws for which it had not some color of competency," it was "prudent not to raise the question of authority." As if Congress were not the sole judge both of its own competency and of what is or is not "necessary legislation." The laughable portion of the *World's* argument is that in which it cites the words of the Constitution—"No State without its consent shall be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate." If the seceded States did not voluntarily relinquish their representation in the Senate, we should like to know under what circumstances a State can do so. But will the *World* please tell us whether New Jersey is just now "deprived of its equal suffrage" by its own consent?

Mr. Scovel's character has not emerged from the cloud under which it labored when we last examined it. He forced the New Jersey Legislature to adjourn last week without filling Mr. Stockton's place in the United States Senate; but as he did not succeed in filling it himself, and was expelled from the Union League of Camden, and has utterly destroyed all future chances of preferment with the Republican party, it seems to us that the balance is against him.

"Admiral" Semmes has been released from custody unconditionally, the case against him, for having made his escape on board the *Deerhound*, having broken down utterly when submitted to a board of naval officers, as we predicted it would. How anybody ever got it into his head that a man could be tried by an enemy's court-martial, after the war was over, for having made his escape when a prisoner of war, it is difficult to understand.

The New York *Times* has at last discovered that there is some necessity for the civil rights bill. A good deal of ingenuity is still expended by its enemies in discovering horrible consequences likely to result from it—such as the probability of "genteel" congregations having to sell pews to negroes. Then there always remains that most horrible contingency of all—of white women having to marry negroes. Already in Richmond they have got to advertising the marriages of blacks in the same column with those of whites.

General Burnside met no serious opposition in the Rhode Island election last week. The number of generals who are becoming governors of loyal States ought to cause a little reflection in those who recommend the President to attempt a *coup d'état*.

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, presented to the Senate the painful alternative of believing either that the civil rights bill was unconstitutional, "or that some five-and-twenty years' diligent study of the law had availed him nothing."

Our Paris correspondent describes the circumstances which marked the first performance of M. Augier's rather ominously named play, "Contagion," at the Odéon. The Latin Quarter was in full force, as lately at the summons of "pipe-en-bois"—in the streets, blocking the progress of the Emperor and Empress, amid cries of "Vive le Luxembourg!" "Vive Glais-Bizoin!"—in the theatre, applauding every passage of the play that might have a political significance. Especially was the sentiment, "There comes a day when despised truths assert themselves with thunder-claps," received with appropriate noisiness of approval. Out of this affair has arisen the gravest rumors of state changes: one, that a military ministry will be established; another, that the Emperor, by a plebiscitum, will fundamentally alter the institutions of France, and turn the legislative assembly into a close corporation. Shrewd observers regard these speculations and the causes of them as symptoms—the Emperor understands of what.

The orators who were brought out to celebrate Washington's birthday have not been approved abroad. Mr. Bancroft, at Washington, is accused of a want of courtesy; but President King, at Rome, was courteous to excess, delivering, it is said, a panegyric on Pio IX. "Strange," says an Italian journal, "how these young republicans and democrats praise the government of the Pope while they denounce Maximilian's as dreadful, and while Russia breaks off intercourse with the Pope!"

A DEFECT in the Italian law concerning marriage has been revealed at Florence, where a priest married a young couple without ascertaining if they had first been joined by a magistrate. For whatever reason, the bridegroom presently sent his wife home to her parents, and refused to obtain the legal confirmation of their union. The law, which does not recognize his having been married, of course does not hold him guilty of any offence. These knaveries are avoided in France by prohibiting the intervention of priests till the civil ceremony has been performed.

M. ROGEARD finds no rest outside of his lost paradise, Belgium. At Prague he secured a publisher for a new work giving the history of his famous "Labienus" pamphlet. But, spite of the apothegm of the Imperial author of the "Life of Cæsar," that "historic truth ought to be no less sacred than religion," the book has been confiscated at the instigation of the French embassy.

THE obliging inhabitants of Tashkend—Russia's latest conquest in Khokand—have abolished slavery, say advices from St. Petersburg, "out of deference to the Emperor."

IN Italy they have a printing telegraphic machine that works between Milan and Neufchâtel—forty miles—at the rate of twenty words in twenty seconds. This is the joint invention of Bonelli and Hipp. Between Paris and Marseilles they use the Caselli apparatus, which reproduces the autograph of the person transmitting the despatch.

NAPOLEON has replied to the address of the Corps Législatif. He complains of the "fardel of government," which only "a sense of duty and the consciousness of a mission to be fulfilled" persuade him to endure. He does not propose, however, to share this burthen with the deputies of the people; but, with all his cares, is evidently of the temper of Tiberius when he affected to avoid inheriting the supreme authority, and was asked by an imprudent senator, "What part will you take, Cæsar?"

AUSTRIA and Prussia remain, as the foreign journals say, in a state of extreme "tension." A rumor has circulated and been contradicted of a warning note to Bismark from Lord Clarendon. War is freely spoken of as inevitable, and at all events arming goes on.

MINISTER ROUHER told the French deputies that they had, in abundance, the right of questioning Government, and that the entire session had been but a protracted interrogation. It was an ingenious assumption of virtue in a case of self-evident necessity. The "right" was in fact only a privilege; but an extorted privilege is next door to a right.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, April 7, 1866.

THE week has been signalized by the repassing of the civil rights bill in the Senate over the President's veto. As this is the only instance in our legislative history, save one, where such a result has followed the veto of a bill, it marks the more emphatically the strength of the great cause of which the present Congress claims to be the exponent. The opposition had rallied all their forces to the defeat of this measure, and confidently expected to make it share the fate of the Freedmen's Bureau bill. After three days of extremely ardent debate, signalized by a speech of singular cogency and power from Senator Trumbull, the father of the bill, the vote was reached at about seven o'clock on Friday evening. The customary throng of auditors which attends the Senate on every occasion of public interest, crowded the galleries. Among them were some hundreds of men of color (always of late a regular element in the audience which watches the deliberations of Congress), whose dusky but earnest faces were bent upon the fate of the bill which embodied the last hope of their race from the protecting hand of the nation. The shaded jets of gas, shining through the armorial bearings of the States emblazoned upon the glass ceiling of the Senate chamber, threw a soft light over the scene, which was watched with eager interest by multitudes who saw in it an epochal event, the influence of which would far outlive the hour. The last words of debate had fallen from Senator McDougall, of California, and the roll was called amid a hush of which the previous buzz and excitement had given little token. The senators answered to their names with an emphasis that was unusual, and all felt that the issue was one far transcending in importance any that had yet been determined by the vote of the Senate. Although the majority was well ascertained to be over two-thirds, should senators vote in accordance with their convictions of what was right on the first passage of the bill, yet such had been the defection upon the veto of the Freedmen's Bureau bill that it was felt to be doubtful whether even a single vote might not turn the scale. When the loud "aye!" of Senator Morgan had decided the doubt, an irrepressible enthusiasm of applause burst from Senate floor and galleries, in which the usually stately and placid Governor Morgan was actually seen to join (doubtless unconsciously to himself), and when the end of the roll was reached, and Vice-President Foster announced the result, nearly the whole Senate and auditory were carried off their feet, and joined in a tumultuous outburst of cheering such as was never heard within those walls before! A few feeble hisses from dissentient "Copperheads" only added emphasis to the triumph. In spite of the grave breach of decorum, no one seemed to feel that it ought to be helped, and the immediate adjournment of the Senate rendered the order to "clear the galleries" superfluous.

The House has now to act upon the measure, and its action is not doubtful. The moral effect of this radical success cannot now be accurately predicted, but there are not wanting those who presage not only a more bitter and irreconcilable warfare between Congress and the Executive than before, but an absolute "secession" of the latter to the side of that party which opposed the war, and which now demands that all the fruits of the war be surrendered by the victorious party.

It is barely possible that a common ground may yet be discovered on which the different branches of the Government may work together. Senator Stewart is pressing his scheme of restoration for an early vote, in the hope that Congress will adopt it or modify it so as to present some complete scheme to the country on which the Union party can stand. Senator Lane, of Kansas, on the other hand, has a scheme which he claims (by what authority does not yet appear) will be accepted by the President, the noteworthy feature of which is a qualified suffrage conferred upon the negroes and the immediate admission of loyal representatives to Congress.

DIARY.

Monday, April 2, 1866.—In the Senate, a message was received from the President with a memorial from the Legislature of Alabama asking extension of time for completing railroads which had received land grants from Congress. Printed and referred. Numerous petitions for an increased protective tariff were presented, also for amendments of the Constitution. Mr. Wilson reported a new bill for the equalization of bounties. Mr. Fessenden reported the House loan bill, without amendment. A bill granting lands to aid the Iron Mountain Railroad of Missouri was passed; also a bill to define the powers of the District of Columbia Supreme Court. The bill to re-organize the judiciary of the United States was discussed.

In the House, Mr. Shellabarger offered a bill to protect citizens of the United States in their privileges and immunities in the several States. Mr. Pike offered a resolution that the Secretary of the Navy send a naval force to the fishing grounds of the British Provinces to protect the rights of American fishermen. Referred. Mr. Raymond offered a resolution that the President appoint a commission to report upon the necessity of aid from the Government of the United States in improving the means of transportation between the Western and Eastern States. Laid over. Mr. Schenck reported the army bill from the Committee on Military Affairs. Made a special order for April 12. On motion of Mr. Grinnell the Committee on Printing were instructed to enquire what reforms are needed in the Government printing. Mr. Ashley offered a resolution looking to a legal provision to supply any vacancy in the office of Clerk of the House by death or disability. Referred. Senate bill to punish counterfeiting of United States securities was passed; also, Senate bill to transfer the custody of the library of the Smithsonian Institution to the Library of Congress; also, Senate bill granting lands to Michigan for a ship-canal to connect Green Bay with Lake Michigan was passed.

April 3.—In the Senate, Mr. Sumner offered a resolution requesting the Secretary of the Treasury and Postmaster-General to report whether any officers have been permitted to take office under their departments since December last without taking the test oath. Adopted—yeas, 25; nays, 9. A bill authorizing the President to sell a gunboat to the Government of Liberia was passed. Several bills relating to the local affairs of the District of Columbia were passed. The bill to re organize the judiciary of the United States was discussed and laid over. The Finance Committee reported adversely on the House resolution to extend for two months the time for collecting the income tax of 1865. Laid over.

In the House, bills were passed to regulate the appointment of rear-admirals in the navy; to organize the pay department of the navy; and to reimburse losses to naval officers. The Committee on Naval Affairs reported a bill in favor of League Island, in the Delaware, as a site for a naval depot. Laid over. The rest of the day was spent in discussing the Brooks and Dodge contested election case.

April 4.—In the Senate, a communication was received from the Postmaster-General stating that no persons had been permitted to take office under that department without taking the test oath. Several petitions were presented praying for adequate securities against disloyal States, for an increase of the tariff, and for an international copyright. A joint resolution, providing for burial of soldiers who died in the military service, was passed. Mr. Stewart called up his resolutions setting forth conditions on which the rebellious States may be restored to representation in Congress. He said the time had arrived when Congress must choose between the President's plan of restoration and anarchy, unless it was ready to adopt a plan of its own. The whole country was in confusion, and Congress had adopted no platform. Pending Mr. Stewart's speech, the special order, being the President's veto message, was taken up, when Mr. Trumbull spoke three hours, defending the civil rights bill against the objections of the President. The bill to re-organize the judiciary of the United States was passed—yeas, 23; nays, 6. (This bill abolishes the circuit courts of the United States, gives the district courts original jurisdiction of all cases now tried in circuit, and establishes a court of appeals in each existing circuit, to consist of the justice of the Supreme Court assigned to that circuit and of the several district judges composing the circuit. This court is to have appellate jurisdiction only, and its decisions are final upon all questions of fact; but an appeal on questions of law may be taken to the Supreme Court of the United States when the matter in controversy exceeds $10,000.)

In the House, a message was received from the President, recommending that Alabama and the other Southern States be allowed to assume and pay their proportion of the direct tax of 1861, and enclosing a letter from the Governor of Alabama asking that that State be allowed to pay said tax in State bonds. Referred. The contested election case of Brooks and Dodge again consumed the day.

April 5.—In the Senate, George F. Edmunds was sworn in as a senator from Vermont, to succeed Senator Foot. A joint resolution was passed guaranteeing bounties to certain colored soldiers and pensions to their heirs. The veto message was discussed by Messrs. Johnson and Cowan in its favor, and by Messrs. Trumbull, Stewart, and Wade on the other side.

In the House, Mr. Schenck reported a bill to give three months' extra pay to all army officers below the grade of brigadier-general who were in service March 3, 1865. Passed. The contested election case of Brooks *vs.* Dodge again occupied the day.

April 6.—In the Senate, Mr. Lane, of Kansas, offered a joint resolution providing for the admission into Congress of senators and representatives from any rebellious State upon the adoption by such State of the following measures: 1, Nullifying the ordinances of secession; 2, Ratifying the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery; 3, Repudiating all rebel debts and recognizing the debts of the United States; 4, Extending the elective franchise to all men of color over twenty-one who can read and write and to all who own real estate to the value of $250. Mr. Lane defended this scheme of reconstruction and attacked Mr. Wade for an assault upon the President for his veto of the civil rights bill. Mr. Wade replied with great warmth, denouncing the "treachery" of the President. Mr. Doolittle defended the President, and gave his reasons for disregarding the instructions of the Wisconsin Legislature to vote for the civil rights bill notwithstanding the veto. Messrs. Davis, Saulsbury, and McDougall spoke against the bill. The question was then taken upon the civil rights bill, and it was passed over the veto of the President by a vote of 33 yeas to 15 nays, being one more than the requisite constitutional majority. A message was received from the President recommending a modification of the test oath in the case of United States officers in the Southern States. Referred. Adjourned to April 9.

In the House, several private bills were acted upon, after which Mr. Dawes, chairman of the Committee on Elections, closed the debate in the case of Dodge *vs.* Brooks, the former contesting the seat of the latter as a representative from the eighth New York district. Mr. Garfield moved to recommit the case to the Committee of Elections to take additional testimony. Lost—yeas, 53; nays, 80. The House voted—yeas, 84; nays, 45—that Hon. James Brooks is not entitled to the seat, and then decided—yeas, 72; nays, 52—that William E. Dodge is entitled to represent the eighth district of New York. Mr. Wilson reported from the Judiciary Committee the Senate bill to re-organize the judiciary of the United States.

April 7.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Hogan, Baldwin, Harding (of Ill.), Lawrence, Le Blond, and Clarke (of Kansas). Adjourned to April 9.

THE FREEDMEN.

The agitation on the Sea Islands concerning the distribution of lands is subsiding, and the freed people are beginning to make contracts more freely. In the Charleston District "nine-tenths of all able-bodied men have entered into contracts and are laboring creditably." The report from Greenville C. H. District, however, is not very encouraging. Instances of personal violence against the freed people are of not uncommon occurrence. One person had made the boast to a prominent citizen that he had shot twenty-eight negroes since "the surrender." A colored man, who had been a soldier, on returning to his home near Greenville C. H., was deliberately shot, in the presence of other freed people, and then, as the wound was only slight, a rope was placed about his neck and he was choked to death.

A State official, writing from Annapolis, says that rowdies are continually abusing and maltreating the freed people, and that it is difficult to find a jury that will convict a white man for an outrage upon a colored person. The feeling against colored schools in Maryland is very bitter. Teachers have been stoned and driven away, and indignation meetings have been held and resolutions passed to allow no teachers of colored people to live among them.

Several cases of petty larceny, by freed people, have been turned over to the civil courts of North Carolina—the sentence for which has generally been the old and barbarous mode of whipping. Col. Whittlesey, the assistant commissioner, says the negro has little chance of justice before civil tribunals in that State yet.

Reports from Texas show a continued improvement in that State of the condition of the freed people, though there are no indications of an increase of loyal sentiment toward the Government. The large numbers of Germans in Texas are employing the freedmen freely, and generally paying them good wages. There are twenty-eight day-schools and eight night-schools for colored people reported, with a total attendance of twenty-four hundred and forty pupils.

"Almost without an exception," says General Sprague, in his report of affairs in Arkansas, "the planters report that the freedmen are working to their entire satisfaction." During the month of February 5,068 white persons were fed and 567 colored.

Colonel Thomas reports, from Mississippi, that the schools are increasing and in a flourishing condition; that there is a great demand for labor. "Neighbors, in their eagerness, sometimes quarrel over the freedmen, who are benefited by such differences to the extent of being able to choose between the contestants for their services, and thus secure liberal contracts. The freed people are getting an average of $15 per month and board.

The chief medical officer of the Bureau states that ten per cent. of all cases of sickness reported, in charge of the Bureau, are small-pox cases.

Brevet Major-General J. B. Kiddoo has been ordered to Texas to relieve General Gregory as assistant commissioner.

The efficient and devoted State Superintendent of Education in South Carolina, Mr. Reuben Tomlinson, makes a highly interesting report to Gen. Scott, the assistant commissioner, under date of March 15. It appears that the number of registered pupils is 7,998, and the average attendance 5,149—or about 64 per cent. (This may be compared with the per-centage of attendance in California during the past year, which was 59; or with that of Calvert Co., Md., the only one given in Superintendent Van Bokkelen's otherwise very instructive report, which was 56.) Of boys there are 3,732, and of girls, 4,266. There are 1,325 over 16 years of age, and 691 under 6. Learning the alphabet, 1,550; number who read and spell, 6,448; who study mental arithmetic, 2,910; written arithmetic, 736; geography, 1,180; who write on slates, 3,137; in books, 1,058. Of mixed blood, 2,153; pure blacks, 5,845; free before the war, 491. There are 136 teachers, of whom 41 are native, and 36 colored. The remainder are from the North, under the auspices of the various freedmen's societies, or (12) of the United States Tax Commissioners, or (1) of a private person. Rev. F. L. Cardoza, principal of the "Saxton school" in Charleston, reports that, at the end of the present term, 30 boys and 70 girls will be prepared to become primary teachers. He says:

"This Normal feature of our school bids fair to be a complete success. I have a class of three boys who have advanced so rapidly in their English studies, and have shown such talents and industry, that I thought it advisable to teach them Latin in connection with their English studies. I have been teaching them now for about two months, and their progress justifies the step I have taken. These boys look forward to a profession, if they can obtain a collegiate education. They are from the class known before the war as the 'free colored people,' who enjoyed more or less educational advantages."

Besides the schools already enumerated, there are twenty others regularly established, with thirty teachers; but they have made no accurate returns. Mr. Tomlinson states that there are numerous volunteer schools all over the State, taught mainly by colored men and women who can read and write, and which deserve to be fostered for the gratifying spirit which is evidenced by them. Unfortunately they are scantily supplied with books, and the superintendent cannot help them. He urges their case upon the freedmen's societies of the North.

The pupils of these schools, in connection with those regularly appointed, make the total for the entire State at least twelve thousand school children.

—The colored citizens of Richmond celebrated the 3d inst. as the anniversary of their actual emancipation with banners and a procession and public exercises. Notwithstanding the threats and forebodings of their enemies their deportment was unexceptionable, and the peace of the city was never less disturbed. General Terry did not allow himself to be argued or bullied into a panic, and consequently the country has not been deprived of the righteous spectacle of an observance of the overthrow of the Confederacy in its capital—of the rebellion in its last stronghold.

Minor Topics.

A VERY vigorous and very amusing discussion has been raging between the *Times* and *Tribune* during the past week as to the propriety of calling people "liars" in the columns of newspapers. Mr. Greeley's tendency to indulge in the use of this epithet has long been the occasion of complaint on the part of his contemporaries of the press, but the more they remonstrate, the more tenaciously he clings to it. He defends himself always by the allegation that it is the people who lie who are to blame, and not he, for anything impolite or barbarous there may be in the making of the charge. If anybody finds fault with him for calling Smith a "scoundrelly liar," he simply replies that Smith did lie, and that all liars are *ex vi termini* "scoundrelly." The trouble with Mr. Greeley really is, that he cannot be persuaded of the difficulty there is in proving that a man has lied on any particular occasion. Lying consists not simply in making a false statement, but in making it knowing it to be false, a fact of which editors are often forgetful, as is shown by the charge which one occasionally reads in newspapers made against people of "having lied, knowing it to be a lie." A man never lies unless he knows he lies, and the cases are very few in which this knowledge can be predicated with certainty of any utterer of falsehoods. If one says that he went to Albany yesterday when he really did not go, he clearly lies; but if he says that Mr. Greeley was engaged during the war in treasonable negotiations with Jefferson Davis, he does not clearly lie, for he may possibly believe it. It seems as if there could hardly be any distinction plainer than this, and yet controversial writers and speakers seem constantly to forget it. Nearly every one who is very warmly enlisted in a cause, and whose mind is not exceedingly well disciplined, is apt to imagine that his opponents are all immoral persons, capable of almost any enormity which does not expose them to the state prison. Few men have done good causes greater service than Mr. Greeley, but he has in serving them come to look on difference of opinion as in some sense an indication of depravity. He is not by any means peculiar in this. It was the fashion in England during the earlier part of our war to talk of protectionists as if they were pickpockets. The devotion, real or supposed, of the Northern States to the doctrines of this school of economists was treated, even by such democrats as Miss Martineau, as proof of downright villany, such as deprived them of all claim to English sympathy, though only fifteen years previously nearly the whole of the English gentry were rabid protectionists. Mr. Greeley, on the other hand, is equally satisfied of the depravity of free-traders; would hardly venture, if one may judge from his language, to leave one alone in the room with his silver spoons, and seems firmly persuaded that habitual lying is the least of their vices. All this, though amusing, is melancholy. Some people think that there is something peculiarly horrible in the notion that political questions are questions of expediency; that if you deny that the tariff or the suffrage or the merits of a well-meaning book may be seen from different points of view by good men, there is no knowing when you may rob a church. And yet there is nothing more certain than that political as well as all other progress has increased in the direct ratio of the toleration for differences of opinion. There will come a time here—and we hope Mr. Greeley will live to see it—when sincere and earnest men will think calling political opponents "liars" and "knaves" the very feeblest weapons that can be used against them. How near we are to that point already is shown by the comfort which the people denounced in newspapers as "liars" and "knaves" continue to enjoy. Their friends, who if they believed the charges against them would close their doors upon them, are as kind and cordial as ever, their wives just as faithful, their children just as affectionate, their creditors just as easy in their minds. How many of those whom Mr. Greeley, or any other editor, has during the last fifteen years treated to these epithets, have suffered from it either in mind, body, or estate? Whose word is doubted because he is accused in an editorial of cheating, lying, and defrauding? Do not the public laugh over talk of this kind just as they laugh over the vituperation of two bellicose ragpickers in the public streets? And might not the public fairly expect that editors would give up this mode of warfare for their own sakes?

WHEN a great robbery has been committed, which is about once a week at present, a reward is offered for the return of the property stolen, sometimes openly with the advertisement that no questions will be asked, and nearly always with an understanding to that effect. Diamonds are carried off from a gentleman's house, and the thief, after a diplomatic exchange of letters, hands back the precious stones and pockets more than he could have got for them from a receiver. A man is arrested by certain detectives with some of the Exchange Place bonds in his possession; and certain other detectives complain bitterly that this officious interference has broken up an arrangement they had made with this rogue to get all the bonds together, and return them for a share of the reward. And the newspapers echo their lamentations and sneer at the officiousness, or greediness, or stupidity of the parties who made the arrest. It would be well for those who have been robbed and for the detectives they employ to turn to Vol. II. of the Revised Statutes, and to read the section concerning compounding of felonies. The gentlemen who promise to ask no questions will find that they are placing themselves side by side with the thief; and the officers who track him to secure his plunder and not his person, may see that they also are criminals liable to arrest and punishment. There is no more law for the imprisonment of thieves than there is for the imprisonment of compounders. The penalty for this offense, it may be useful to mention, is state prison for a term not to exceed three years, or the county jail for six months in mild cases. This provision of the statute against compounders rests upon sound sense. The State arrests a thief and punishes him to put a stop to his depredations, and to deter others by fear from committing them. Its object is to protect its citizens. Those who allow the rogue to escape for their own profit, whether private individuals or policemen, defeat the ends of justice and injure the public. The public has no particular interest in the return of property to the careless people who allow it to be taken from them; their loss is a secondary consideration—the interest of the public is that the thief should not be allowed to escape punishment. This system of rewards and settlements not only turns him loose but encourages him to try again. It is a premium on dishonesty. The diamond man carried off as much as a hard-working laborer can hope to lay up in a lifetime; and if the ingenious person who took the tin box in Exchange Place gets half of the reward said to have been offered, he becomes a man of fortune. Who will dig when robbery is not only profitable but safe? The rogue runs no risk unless he is caught in the act. If he secures his booty, he can make his own terms, and retire from the closing interview with dignity and *with his own money*. The same principle applies to compounders of felonies as to receivers of stolen goods. "The receiver is as bad as the thief," because he offers him facilities to dispose of his spoils, and makes robbery easier and more profitable. The compounder does the same thing, and in the eye of the law is also as bad as the thief. It would be well if the District Attorney would turn his attention to this matter, and put a stop to a practice which is making robbery one of the easiest, safest, and most remunerative of professions.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE DELAYS OF CONGRESS.

WE have heretofore given a plain expression to our anxiety that Congress should mature and bring forward a comprehensive plan of reconstruction, so that there may be a distinct Congressional policy which the country may compare with that of the President. We retract nothing of this, believing that the times demand positive declarations of principle from those who claim the support of the people, and that mere negations will not suffice for statesmanship.

Nevertheless, what we have said upon this side of the question has been intended rather to urge Congress to perform its duty than to excite the discontent of the people with their representatives. And as persistent efforts have been made to kindle such feelings and to destroy the confidence of the people in those whom they elected for legislators, by exaggerating the delay of Congress to agree upon a general policy, it is only just that we should point out some of the difficulties which it has encountered, and show how far such delays are inevitable.

It is obvious that, other things being equal, a single despot can fix upon a policy and devise a plan much sooner than a constitutional assembly, numbering hundreds of members, all anxious to satisfy each other, and their constituents as well as themselves. The decisions of a republic cannot possibly be as prompt as those of an emperor, consulting only his own will, and subject to no limitations except in his purse. Dilatoriness is a part of the price which we must pay for free government. Sometimes it is an expensive burthen; sometimes it proves an actual advantage. In any case, it is clearly unavoidable.

No one who has not taken part in, or been at least a diligent attendant upon, the proceedings of a legislative body, has any adequate conception of the amount of labor which is expended upon the enactment of a bill, however limited may be its scope or unobjectionable its purpose. The average length of time required by the Legislature of this State to pass an unopposed bill of half-a-dozen sections is at least six weeks. A standing rule of both houses makes it practically impossible for any measure, introduced within less than four weeks from the end of the session, to receive any consideration, unless it has powerful interests at work for it. In Congress the delay is naturally still greater, owing to the magnitude of the interests involved, the larger number of members, and the absence of limit to the duration of the sessions.

But we have thus far made no allowance for debate, a branch of legislative duty which is often spoken of with contempt and impatience, but which Mr. Mill has wisely shown to be the best part of a legislator's work. The "speeches" which are read from manuscript night after night in Congress do not come under this head. They are a perversion of legislative oratory, not intended to affect the hearers, nor expected to have the least influence upon the course of affairs in the house in which they are uttered, but simply brought out for the benefit of constituencies. Under the present convenient but somewhat ludicrous arrangement by which these speeches are delivered to empty houses, while sensible members are working on committees or taking rest, the real business of Congress has not been materially delayed by appeals to buncombe. But every step toward reconstruction has given rise to *real* debate, such as the speeches of Messrs. Deming, Kelley, Shellabarger, Raymond, and Hale, in the House, and of Messrs. Trumbull, Fessenden, and Doolittle in the Senate, which have had a genuine influence upon the bodies to which they were addressed. Every such speech delays legislation in proportion to its power and cogency. An effective speech against a bill hinders its progress, for reasons obvious to the dullest mind; but a speech equally forcible in favor of a bill arouses the antagonism of its predetermined opponents, compels them to reply, and intensifies their resolution to contest every inch of ground.

These considerations apply to every legislative body, and experience has shown that they are universally true. The Parliament of Great Britain is no less slow in its operations than Congress. The present Parliament met in February, and has only passed two bills of public interest, both under the influence of a species of panic. The reform bill received its first reading on March 12, and will not be read a second time until April 12. If not then rejected, as it seems likely to be, there would not be the least expectation of its final passage before August.

The past history of Congress, moreover, shows that no great measures were ever pushed through in the early period of a session. The tariff bills of 1842, 1846, 1857, and 1861, the internal revenue bills of later years, and, in fact, all important laws for at least twenty years past, were enacted at the latter part of a session, and generally at an advanced period of summer. The compromise measures of 1850 were enacted in September, and the Kansas-Nebraska bill of 1854, though pushed through by whip and spur, was not passed until the middle of May.

The present Congress has encountered obstacles of an extremely unusual nature. It has been compelled to bear the heavy burthen of an Executive nominally in sympathy with it but actually opposed to all its wishes. It has not been at liberty to act upon its own sense of justice or its belief as to the will of the people, but has been constantly hampered by the fear of a veto. It has sought to bring forward first projects upon which the dominant party were supposed to be unanimous, and to test the President's views upon the mildest measures. It has received such rebuffs as prove that it would have been hopeless to attempt to reconcile the views of the President with those of Congress upon the broad question of reconstruction. As long as there was any hope of agreement between the two branches of the Government, it surely would not have been wise for Congress to destroy this hope by committing itself to a definite policy, without knowing whether it would be acceptable or not. If, as is *now* certain, *any* measure of reconstruction to which Congress could possibly assent was sure to be vetoed, then it might be unwise to make concessions which would be useless and might be misconstrued. If, as at one time seemed probable, some compromise was possible, then it would have been highly injudicious to have insisted upon all that might be deemed abstractly just and proper, and needlessly to have sacrificed the partial good that was attainable. In dealing with such a compound of fickleness and obstinacy as now occupies the White House, it was necessary to proceed tentatively; and although it has finally become clear that conciliation is wasted, and that no measure short of allowing unrestricted and exclusive sway to traitors will meet with the approval of the great man who claims to embody the whole United States in himself, yet surely Congress is not to be blamed for hoping to the last against the existence of such arrogance and bad faith.

Nor would it have been right for Congress to adopt a comprehensive policy without having taken and examined a reasonable amount of testimony upon the condition of the South. This task has not yet been fully completed, and it is not easy to prove that it could have been materially hastened. Already the charge is made that not enough testimony has been received, and this will be repeated and amplified on every occasion. Mr. Johnson's superior wisdom was satisfied by a few telegrams from senators elect and a few deputations of reconstructed rebels, but a less gifted Congress needs somewhat fuller evidence than this.

We might enlarge upon this view of the subject, but have said enough to show that Congress could scarcely be expected to have reached a fixed determination by this time, and that the people should be patient with their representatives. But we beg Congress not to accept this view as an excuse for procrastination. The time has arrived at which it must visibly *begin* to shape a policy. The people are not always as patient as they should be. They want some tangible proposition. Congress can agree upon some plan now with a clear understanding that it will be vetoed. If it can be passed over the veto, well; but if not, let it be something upon which we can go to the country with firmness and confidence.

CONTRACTION IN PRIVATE LIFE.

General Grant has said, when praised for his ability and that of his officers in bringing the war to its termination: "It was the men in the ranks who ended the war; all we could do was to bring them in contact with the enemy. It was the weight of their patriotism, their character, their spirit of subordination and self-sacrifice, which turned the scale. They must in the end have succeeded had we never been born." So it will be in the great economic war we are now called upon to wage. Congress can do much and Mr. McCulloch can lead with ability and conscientiousness; but in the end it must be the sober determination and the resolute persistency of each individual citizen which will bring us to that national solvency without which honor and honesty and virtue cannot permanently survive in the nation; without which a nation had better not be; without which to have preserved it was an error of our sons and our brothers. If it can be said of us that we, a republic born of such noble men and now regenerated by their equals, cannot show the necessary courage, self-sacrifice, and self-denial, cannot develop enough of wisdom and common sense to place that republic on a par with other nations in its economic interests, to give it the position which, without reference to other nations, it ought of right to occupy, then farewell to all hope of equal government based on the principle of voluntary duty.

It becomes then a matter of the utmost importance that we should rightly understand what our plain duty is in this matter, so that no man may err from ignorance. The question is one of great difficulty on account of its wide extent and the magnitude of the interests involved. Expediency becomes an unsafe guide when each man may be drawn by it in a different direction according to his interest, and it is unworthy, too, of what we have already done. Let us rather go back to principles, and to first principles. Let each man lay for himself some plan which shall have an element of duty in it, in which some patriotic principle shall be contained. Much has been accomplished when we have put the interest of the hour behind us and have fallen back on the absolute right.

We speak of the expansion of our currency and the inflation of our system. The real trouble is that we are expanded ourselves. Each man is on a paper basis, and is under bonds that the currency shall not be improved. This is our great danger. Correct this and there is no longer anything to be apprehended from the currency. The excess of it will then be useless and will contract itself. What we need is to prepare ourselves for contraction so as to make it possible. Our luxury, our ostentation, our speculation, these are the real elements of our expansion, and no one will undertake to say he cannot correct these if the welfare of our country depends upon it. These a contraction will, indeed, sweep away; but how well we shall be without them! And how much will remain if, not waiting for the inevitable day, we discard them now in the midst of our prosperity and strength. Courage will remain and independence and work. We shall no longer be lingering round the stock list, or the petroleum list, or the copper list, to see whether our fortunes have been made or marred by the miscarriages of other men whose actions are to us mere accidents; but we shall be getting a day's pay for a day's honest work somehow, whatever becomes of the currency. We shall leave the profits of petroleum or copper to those who do the work in petroleum or copper, and we shall take the profit of the work we do, sure and honest and sweet. How different a thing it is to *earn* a living from what it is to *make* a fortune; for a living is truly what we live by, it is work concentrated into life, but fortune is a gift of Fortuna, or chance—it cannot be made. How homely used to seem to us the terms "reckon" and "calculate," but how much more honest they are than "speculate!" What is speculation but guess-work—by the side of which reckoning and calculation are honorable terms? Let us away with all this froth and foam which have accumulated around the activity of each one of us. Let us pay our debts, mark off our losses, and turn over our outside concerns to those who understand them, to whom they are not outside. Let there be a general realizing, and let us all turn sturdily back to the work we understand and in which we can be usefully employed, usefully to ourselves and to the state. Then extravagance will leave us in the train of speculation; we shall become more courageous, more honest, and more happy; we shall no longer be *afraid* to wish for better times nor to *demand* from our legislators better laws than we now dare even hope for. Then, when we look at the old torn jacket in the closet, hanging there with the worn belt and cartridge-box, and think how cheerfully he who wore them had received his poor depreciated eleven dollars in the currency of his country—then the tears will come into our eyes to think how sad and unworthy have been our fancied trials, how inadequate our sacrifices by the side of his. Happy if we can then say, *Nec immemor tui hoc feci.*

FREE SPEECH AND THE EMPIRE.

The French Emperor seems to be, just now, somewhat in the predicament of the fisherman in the "Arabian Nights," when he opened the casket sealed with the signet of Solomon that he had caught in his nets, and found he had let loose a mighty spirit that threatened to kill him. By the decree of the 24th of November, he set free the omnipotent genius of political discussion in the Corps Législatif, and it is not slow to make use of its liberty. Whether the Emperor regards its manifestations as dangerous to his dynasty or not, at any rate he showed himself, in his speech to the Chambers, as desirous as was the fisherman to make this mighty power restrain itself within its former limits. "The country is tired of political theories. Let us throw them aside and occupy ourselves with promoting the welfare of the people." The right of free discussion was to be a gift something like that of their guineas to the Vicar of Wakefield's daughters, on condition that they never used them. But the spirit of free discussion, once at large, was not so simple as the genius with which the Arabian fisherman had to do, and it obstinately refused to be conjured back again into its old confinement, at least with its own consent. Indeed, the opposition seem to think that they can do nothing more effectual for the public good than to let it have full sway as long as they may.

The speech of M. Thiers on the 26th of February was one of the most significant utterances that have been heard in France since Bonaparte built his throne on the ruins of the Republic. It shows that he at least means to make use of his tongue, now that it is untied, to tell truths that, though trite, unhappily now have the force of novelty to French ears. Under the cover of perfect external respect *au personnage auguste* in whose hands the powers of the state were concentrated by the *coup d'état* of 1851, he makes a most scathing exposure of the crimes against liberty of which the Empire is the embodiment, and of its failure to accomplish the great design which it has undertaken to carry through to justify its existence. In repeating the list of fundamental liberties—"*les libertés nécessaires*"—he recites the catalogue of those which France once possessed, but which she has no longer: 1. Personal liberty, or the right to be free from arbitrary arrests, and to prosecute any official illegally interfering with it. 2. The liberty of the press, which, by its very terms, excludes the idea of a censorship. 3. The freedom of elections, including the right of the people to assemble and discuss the merits of candidates, and to exercise their right of suffrage without injury to their private interests. 4. The right of the legislative body, when elected, to discuss all questions affecting the interests of the nation, and not to be confined to simple remonstrance, or, as M. Thiers epigrammatically puts it, "*à déplorer les fautes commises et les payer*"—to deplore blunders and pay for them. He briefly shows the process of constitutional government with responsible ministers, and affirms that to make power dependent on the votes of the representatives of the people, is not to destroy it, but to establish it in its true strength. He recites the political tendency in all parts of continental Europe towards constitutional governments. Prussia, Denmark, Sweden, Italy, and even Austria and Russia, are all in possession of constitutional governments or on the way to have them. France, to whose example all these political regenerations are due, has but the mockery of a free government. For M. Thiers, being a Frenchman, can see no other source of political ameliorations than the French Revolution. We think that our own preceded in point of time that great upheaving, and was not without its result of constitutional government. And we acknowledge that our Revolution

was the legitimate descendant of those of 1642 and 1688 in England. But let that pass.

France having lost the exercise of these rights which she enjoyed under the Restoration and under Louis Philippe, what compensation has the Empire made to her for the sacrifice? Let us see, says he, from the things done since 1852 whether political liberty be useless and hurtful. The Empire has tried to strengthen itself by flattering the idea, born of the Revolution, that France is to give liberty to the nations of the earth. Hence the Italian war, the expeditions to China, Cochin-China, Syria, and finally to Mexico. The Italian war was popular, in a degree, but would it have been undertaken had the country had a voice in the matter? It was waged to establish the unity of Italy. Is it done when the Italian people refuse to pay the taxes that are its price? If the Italian unity fail, it is damaging to the home politics of the Empire. If it succeed, it will have created a nation of twenty-six millions ready to join hands with forty millions of Germans as against France, in case of need. Would France have done this had she been asked? Is France to abandon Italy, which is her own creation, or the Papacy, which is the creation of a thousand years? The dilemma is serious. And Poland! In 1863 France endeavored to negotiate in favor of Poland, and where is Poland now? What remained of her was destroyed without the conquerors of the Crimea even being listened to by the power they had conquered. And so of the distant expeditions; if the interference of the people could have hindered these, would the Government itself be very sorry for it now? Then the laboring class was to be helped. Its wages have been raised, but such has been the policy of the Government that bread is dearest when wheat is cheapest, so that the gain is only apparent. Then, was it necessary for this purpose to destroy cities in order to build them up again, swelling the budget to two *milliards?* And when the cities are finished, what is to be done with the laborers who have been thus factitiously accumulated within them? None of these things would have been done under constitutional government. True, liberty does not consist in this or that feature of national institutions. It is not decentralization, or else the nations of the Middle Ages had been free. It is not free trade, or Turkey were the freest of nations and America the least free. It is not even universal suffrage; for England is incontestably a free nation without it. "*True liberty is that which gives a nation the control of its own destinies.*" Nations may make mistakes, but not so many as a single man. He may act in haste; they must wait and consider. A free nation, then, is one which is obliged to reflect before it acts.

It is very possible that these voices in the air may be of warning to Bonaparte and so of service to the French people. He watches the signs of the times diligently, and obeys them when they are not to be mistaken. He has shown himself wise in his generation, and may not be unmindful of the meaning words which he has permitted to be uttered. His opinion of the French people is clearly that entertained by Galba of the Romans, that they are men "*qui nec totam servitutem pati possunt, nec totam libertatem,*" who could not bear either to be entirely slaves or entirely free. What liberty they are resolved to have he will graciously accord to them as the price of the remains of servitude that they are content to bear. Such words as these of M. Thiers must have a wide and deep effect on the general mind of France, and may compel a larger concession of rights than the Emperor imagined would be the logical consequence of his decree of November. Bonaparte is resolved that the Empire shall last his time, even though the deluge should come after it. And it may be that by a timely lightening of the yoke he may make it more tolerable for the French people, under his son, than the alternative of a revolution. He and France have been told how it can be done, if at all. France, we may be sure, has heard and marked the words: we shall soon know whether he has as well.

WHY GOVERNMENT ENGRAVING SHOULD BE THROWN OPEN.

So much time has elapsed since Government inaugurated the experiment of engraving and printing the bonds and other evidences of debt to be issued upon the pledge of its faith, that a correct judgment of the experiment can now be formed. We have refrained heretofore from commenting upon the subject from a desire to see the plan allowed full opportunity to develop itself.

The art of engraving is as much an art as painting, and the printing required for producing impressions of engraving has, on account of the difficulty and skill which have been brought to it of late years, become a part of that art, if it has not elevated itself into an independent one. There can be no monopoly of genius, and without genius there can be no art. There may be things resembling or suggestive of art and genius; there may be a long row of men set at work with the graver in their hand and the glass at their eye, and *something* may be the result of all this industry; but it will not be an achievement of genius.

There is a stern necessity that the issue of Government bonds should be protected against counterfeiting, reduplication, and over-issue, by the most stringent arrangements as to the system of provings and checks, and by the most abstract and powerful barriers of art. The need of this in our country is much greater than in any European country.

The European loans are often taken in one line by a single banking house, and seldom bring more than a few subscribers in immediate connection with the Government issuing the loan. The bonds for an entire loan can all be prepared and examined and counted, to see that they are just right, and not over-issued, before any are delivered. These bonds not unfrequently remain until maturity in possession of the very house or family which first received them from the Government. They are generally only transferable in writing, and every transfer adds to the guaranty that they are not counterfeits or over-issues. They are generally written all over with signatures—each a veritable pen-and-ink autograph of some functionary—put on in different stages of their preparation, and the omission of any one of which vitiates the whole. They are sometimes surrendered and cancelled, in order to be transferred, just as our railroad stocks are, and each new transferee receives directly from the proper office the bond which he thereupon knows to be genuine. Sometimes no bond at all is issued, but the person is simply recorded as being the creditor of the Government by a specified sum, and his signature and description are retained in order to identify him when coming to draw his interest.

Who does not see that none of these conditions can exist in our country? There are in Europe some so-called popular loans, but they are insignificant in amount as well as in the time during which their issuance continues. They are nothing in comparison with our loans in either of these respects, and both of these are sources of danger to the purity of the issue. The magnitude of our loans does not shake our confidence in them; on the contrary, it increases it, for the greater the issue, the greater the number of the people determined to have the loan paid at the proper time. Proportionately greater, therefore, becomes the duty of the Government to adopt those measures which will best secure the genuineness and unalterableness of its issues, in a form transferable by delivery without the necessity of endorsement.

Let us admit that the force of all these considerations is felt by the Secretary of the Treasury and that his aim is to pursue the policy which will best protect the issues of public stocks. Does the present plan, adopted by his predecessor, do it? Omitting for the moment the economical view of the question, we reply that the plan has swept away an entire system of checks against over-issues; which is not a very desirable beginning. No matter through how many different hands in his own employ the secretary may cause the bonds to pass before issue, the whole of them together only constitute one guaranty of the correctness of their issue—the guaranty of his own office. Heretofore, in addition to this, the public has had the assurance of a private guaranty, independent of the control of the Treasury, in the examinations and accounts rendered by the individual artists or engraving companies that have prepared the bonds. The paper which was used was patented, in the first place, and of the most endurable and satisfactory quality; every sheet of it was carefully counted by the manufacturer before delivery to the engravers, who counted it upon receiving it, and again when printing it, and again when delivering the bonds to the Government. In this manner every sheet of paper, suitable for the work, was distinctly traced and accounted for before it reached the hands of the Government. There the impressions were counted again, had the private marks or stamp of the department put upon them, and, when issued, were recorded; and thus every one of them was distinctly traceable, and was traced and accounted for. The engraving firms were required to give large bonds for the faithful performance of their contracts, and the impressions of the bonds were not allowed to accumulate in their hands, but were delivered so frequently that it would have been impossible for them to swindle the Government to any great amount, even if they desired to do so contrary alike to their duty and their interest—their bonds and their reputation being staked not only on their honesty, but also on their correctness. Now, this system of proving the issues of bonds is, by the present method, done away with altogether. Before, if the contracting engravers over-issued bonds, by counterfeiting on otherwise genuine impressions the marks or signatures reserved to be put on at the Treasury, and disposed of them, no officer of Government having received the proceeds, they, and not the Government, would be bound to redeem them. As it is, if an over-issue should be made of bonds genuine in all particulars, the loss would fall on the Treasury, while the facility for making such an over-issue is greatly enhanced. This is both unjust to the Treasury and to the un-

fortunate victims who may find themselves with such bonds on hand. The case of Whittlesy, recently convicted in Washington for abstracting some two hundred of the thousand dollar bonds prepared in the department, is a case in point; and there are rumors that much more serious things than that have occurred, the perpetrators of which have escaped detection.

The Government plan has also effectually stopped the progress of the art towards absolute security against counterfeiting. Heretofore each new advance has balked or at least delayed the counterfeiters, tasking their ingenuity to overcome it. Thus, the new green colors, which refused to be photographed, suspended for a long time this most successful mode of counterfeiting; and after that came indestructible colors, which so entered into the paper on which they were printed that they refused to be altered without destroying the paper itself. Genius, if allowed a fair inducement, will find other as important improvements as these, which are now as little dreamed of as these were before they were made. But this inducement is taken away by the present method. Most of the persons connected with the Bureau of Engraving and Printing are pensioned politicians, destitute of any artistic qualifications. The chief of the bureau, formerly the head of an unsuccessful flour firm in this city, was, in the early stages of the war, reported by a Congressional committee for disloyalty. The bureau has filled some of the Treasury chambers with a quantity of presses which cost a handsome figure, but which cannot be and are not used, as they are of a pattern which the engravers abandoned fifteen years ago. It has used an ink loudly heralded as being gold and indestructible, and which turned out bronze, and can be taken off with ease by our artists or altered in any way they please. It has used a patent paper that was to surpass anything ever dreamed of, and private skill has split it, so that the fractional currency can be genuinely duplicated. It has produced bonds that distress the eye, are disagreeable to handle, and worse to smell; and it has carried impudence to the sublime in disfiguring its fractional issues with the portrait of the man who has done these things. But more than this, it has removed from the engraver all incentive to strive constantly to surpass himself, by paying him not according to the quality of his work, but according to the number of hours daily for which he is engaged.

The experiment has cost at least four times what it would have cost for better work if the work had been advertised and given by contract to the best bidders. We know the figures can be so stated as to show great savings to the Treasury; but they will be none the less erroneous. They cannot reverse the fact that the expenses of engraving and printing were reduced to the minimum by the engravers of the country, and that they then were only respectably paid for their time, skill, services, and expenditures. It is notorious that one of the recent jobs of the bureau was the production of seven millions of bonds which were a *mistake*, and were destroyed, or reported to be destroyed, upon the order of a single person—an enormous transaction, which should have been ordered by Congress and superintended by a committee of that body. Now that the needs of the country no longer require the issuing of bonds by the hundreds of millions, there is no *honest* employment left for this immense bureau, and the salaries paid for idleness are justly chargeable in the cost of producing the bonds and notes heretofore issued. We leave the subject, expressing our conviction that public economy, as well as a due regard to the confidence that must be fostered in behalf of the public loans, suggests the wisdom of abandoning the policy of engraving by the Government and of throwing the matter once more open to the skill, the art, the ingenuity, and the competition of the country.

THE AMERICAN LECTURESHIP AT CAMBRIDGE, ENGLAND.

The university at Cambridge in England has lately been the scene of a curious incident, which, not only on account of its connection with American interests, but also because it illustrates the influences which prevail at that ancient seat of learning, is worthy of the attention of our readers.

In December, 1864, Mr. Henry Yates Thompson, scholar of Trinity College, Cambridge, a man of wealth and intelligence, having lately returned from a visit to America, addressed a letter to Mr. Everett in which he said:

"Since returning to England I have been more than ever impressed with the want of information existing among our people, and *especially among the upper classes of them*, about your country and all belonging to it. I trust to you to pardon my asking your advice and help in regard to a scheme which has occurred to me, and which, if feasible, would be, I think, a step towards mending this state of things.

"My wish is to endow a lectureship at Harvard University, its object being the delivery of a biennial course of twelve lectures during a residence of one term at Cambridge, in England, on the 'History and Political Institutions of the United States of America;' such reader to be appointed biennially by the president and fellows of Harvard University (subject to the veto in each case of the vice-chancellor of Cambridge), and his sole qualifications to be American citizenship and the opinion of his appointers that he is a fit person to deliver such a course of lectures."

After providing in a suitable manner for the stipend of the lecturer, Mr. Thompson proceeded:

"It may be asked why I do not make my application to my own university before writing to America. The fact is, that the very idea of a foreign readership, such as this would technically be, is entirely novel, and if proposed to our authorities at Cambridge by an individual member of the university, it might possibly not receive that serious consideration which I conceive it to deserve, and which it would surely get if backed by the approval of a great American university. It is further probable that the need of some measure of this sort is not so fully recognized by our authorities at Cambridge as it is by educated men in the United States, and by Englishmen who have mixed with them."

The letter from which these extracts are made reached Mr. Everett but a short time before his death, and was not answered by him. Mr. Thompson thereupon sent a copy of it to Dr. Hill, president of Harvard University, and in compliance with Mr. Thompson's desire, Dr. Hill, under date of May 8, 1865, addressed a letter to the vice-chancellor of the university at Cambridge, in which, after recapitulating Mr. Thompson's proposal, he continued with the following excellent words:

"In endeavoring to judge whether this proposition would be agreeable to your university, we have supposed the case of an offer being made to us to have courses of lectures on English history and English institutions delivered here by persons appointed by an English university. We should welcome such courses as an enlargement of our opportunities of education, and as giving us English views of English things more accurately than we could attain them in any other way. And it seems to us desirable to promote an intelligent appreciation of the character and institutions of each country by the educated men of the other."

The decision as to the acceptance or rejection by the English university of Mr. Thompson's proposal did not lie with the vice-chancellor, but with the senate of the university, and it came before that body only in February last, when the proposal was rejected by a vote of 105 to 73.

The question seems to have been discussed with spirit, in open debate, as well as in printed manifestoes, by the friends and opponents of the plan. The "fly-sheets" form a series of instructive documents, and enable us to judge somewhat of the tone of thought and the style of controversy at the university. The first in order of those which we have seen is that by the Rev. Charles Kingsley, whose position as professor of modern history gave importance to his opinion. He expressed himself strongly in favor of the plan, declaring with a remarkable frankness of confession that, "when I did myself the honor of lecturing in this university on the history of the United States, I became painfully aware how little was known, and how little could then be known, on the subject." Had Professor Kingsley said "how little I knew," he would, indeed, have come nearer the truth, for at the very time when he was lecturing, and was showing his ignorance of the subject and his deficiency in historical insight by his warmly expressed sympathy with the rebel cause, Professor Goldwin Smith and Professor Cairnes were proving by their works and words how much "*could* then be known" by historical students who pursued their investigations with a sincere desire to attain the truth. Mr. Kingsley goes on to say: "This great want [the imaginary want, we suppose, of the means of correct knowledge] has been since supplied by a large addition to the university library of American literature. I think it most important that it should be still further removed by the residence among us of an American gentleman." He then furnishes an illustration of the importance of increasing at least his own knowledge concerning America by the following argument, which affords a striking illustration of what seems the fact, that to be in error in regard to American affairs is the normal condition of the educated Englishman. He says:

"If there should be, in any minds, the fear that this university should be 'Americanized' or 'democratized,' they should remember that this proposal comes from the representatives of that class in America which regards England most with love and respect; which feels itself in increas-

ing danger of being swamped by the lower elements of a vast democracy; which has of late years withdrawn more and more from public life, in order to preserve its own purity and self-respect; which now holds out the right hand of fellowship to us, as to one of the most conservative bodies in this country, because it feels itself a conservative element in its own country, and looks to us for just recognition in that character."

Truly Harvard University is a conservative body, as every other institution of learning is conservative, but it would find it difficult to recognize itself under the mask which it wears in Mr. Kingsley's imagination. It will hardly admit that it can properly serve as an argument against democratic and in favor of aristocratic institutions. The men who govern it and the men whom it sends forth into the world are not generally supposed to be alarmed at the prospects of being swamped by the lower elements of our democracy, nor do they compose that wretched class of *fainéants* and *dilettante*, ruined by European associations and traditions, who withdraw themselves from public life "in order to preserve their purity and self-respect," or, as we should say, to nurse their vanity and indulge their fastidiousness. Mr. Adams represents Harvard University in England; Mr. Everett's name has been known there; and Mr. Kingsley might have paused before committing himself to insinuations against the purity and self-respect of such men as these. Nor does Harvard University require "a just recognition" from Cambridge in any spirit of solicitant humility. She is a little too old to be patronizingly patted on the head. "It is," adds Mr. Kingsley, "morally impossible that such men should go out of their way to become propagandists of those very revolutionary principles against which they are honorably struggling at home." We know not to what revolutionary principles Mr. Kingsley refers, but if he simply meant that no gentleman appointed to lecture would make himself obnoxious as a propagandist of republicanism or of democracy, he was undoubtedly right; if, however, he meant to gain favor for the scheme by suggesting that Cambridge would find the Harvard lecturer a man eager to assert the superior advantages of the Old World and likely to present a deterring picture of the New, he was as much mistaken in his supposition as in his facts.

In conclusion, Mr. Kingsley said:

"May I allude to one argument which would, of course, have no weight with the university in a question of right and wrong, but which may have weight in one like the present, of expediency? If we decline this offer, I fear that we shall give offense not of course to gentlemen like the rulers of Harvard, but to thousands who care as little for Harvard as they do for our own Cambridge. A sensitive people like the Americans, instinct with rational feeling, among whom news spreads far more rapidly than in England, will be but too likely to take up our refusal as a national insult. The lower portion of the American press will be but too likely to misrepresent and vilify our motives," etc., etc.

In this passage Mr. Kingley again shows so forcibly his need of an instructor from whom he might learn of American affairs and the conditions of American thought and feeling, that could we imagine this deficiency to have been as clearly recognized by those to whom his words were addressed as it is by us, there would have been little occasion for further argument on the importance of the proposed lectureship. The professor might have defied all opposition by placing himself firmly on the ground of his own ignorance. His syllogism was complete. "Behold, gentlemen," he might have said, "how ignorant is your professor of modern history; how much more ignorant must be my pupils; do not deny to them the opportunity of learning more than he can teach them!"

It is the more creditable to Professor Kingsley that, having so little real acquaintance with his subject, he at least recognized its importance so far as to say: "Of the general importance of the scheme, of the great necessity that our young men should know as much as possible of a country destined to be the greatest in the world, I shall say little."

Mr. Kingsley's fly-sheet was scarcely issued before Mr. E. H. Perowne, of Corpus Christi College, published an eager and ill-mannered reply to it. He regarded the scheme as "a proposal to send once in two years a stipendiary missionary to Cambridge, whose business it shall be not to propagandize (republicans never do that), but to acquaint our students with republican principles and their practical working in the American States. It is an arrangement by which (to adopt the felicitous phrase of an eminent member of the senate) we shall be favored with a biennial flash of transatlantic darkness." Growing warm with the ardor of controversy, he earnestly hopes "that such degradation may be averted from a university which was venerable centuries before the American colonies threw off their allegiance to the British crown." What, have a lecturer come to us from our revolted colonies to teach us revolution! Heaven forbid! And, worse still, "we have no guarantee that the lecturer who is to come here to teach us shall be (I say not a member of the Episcopal Church of America, but) a Christian at all. For aught we know they may send us a Mormon, a Spiritualist, or even a Socinian!"

The *odium theologicum* being thus dexterously aroused, Mr. Perowne returns to his first and favorite bugbear. It is not only in his eyes a rank political offence to hold republican principles, but an immorality to express them, and an immorality which is combined with ignorance and want of breeding in all Americans. "Professor Kingsley," he says, "tells us, in ambiguous phraseology, that 'it is morally impossible that such men' (as the American promoters of the scheme) 'should go out of their way to become propagandists of those very revolutionary principles against which they are honorably struggling at home.' But he must know" [and here let the reader observe Mr. Perowne's courtesy, so characteristic of aristocratic breeding and the culture of a dignified university] "that it is morally (or otherwise) possible for American republicans to become propagandists of republican principles to the utmost of their power, and not only possible, but probable—but certain—that they will become so." In Mr. Perowne's heated vision he beholds the lecturer, like the tempter at the ear of Eve, instilling the dangerous words of seductive democracy into the hearts of the rising aristocracy, or like the "Young Columbian," who has lately served such good purpose in the *Spectator*, waving the flag of his country in the eyes of the British lion and challenging him to come forth to the contest. It is not strange that Mr. Perowne, with such a vision before him, should close his address with words that sound like the far-off confused echo of some remembered eloquence. As we read them we fancy Mr. Perowne the Chatham of his college: "For the welfare of our students, for the dignity of our beloved and venerable university, for the sake of avoiding a pernicious precedent in the interests of order, loyalty, and religion, I protest against the adoption of the proposed American lectureship."

Mr. Perowne's condition of mind is truly pitiable. He appears to be one of Sidney Smith's "ancient women, whether in or out of breeches, who are dreadfully afraid of America."

To Mr. Perowne's arguments Professor Kingsley briefly replied. He did not attempt to combat them in detail; but he drew the conclusion from some of Mr. Perowne's remarks "that they are fresh proofs of the necessity of an American gentleman coming hither to enlighten the members of our senate on the great question whether all Americans are or are not like the mythic down-wester, 'half buffalo, half alligator, with a streak of thunder and lightning.'" Under this sarcasm poor Mr. Perowne could not remain quiet. It stung him to a retort, which he closed with the words, "And this brings me to the question which alone has induced me to return to the subject: Is it not notorious that Harvard College is a stronghold of that form of infidelity commonly called Socinianism?"

The fray now became animated, and the next knight who appeared in the lists was Mr. Sedley Taylor, of Trinity College. He succeeded in unhorsing Mr. Perowne, and left him helpless on the field. "Mr. Perowne," he said, "feels certain that the lecturer will become a propagandist of republican principles to the utmost of his power. While I believe that there are strong reasons for thinking that he will *not*, I fully admit that many points must be touched on in his lectures on which an American and an Englishman would probably form different conclusions. But to dread the temperate expression of opposite opinion is, in the words of Professor Thompson, to betray an uneasy suspicion that our admiration of our own constitution is based on ignorance of all other forms of government."

In dashed Mr. A. Long, of King's College, full armed with "reasons for saying *non placet*" to the proposed scheme.

The third of these "reasons" was one of high philanthropy: "Because to give the rulers of Harvard University, and North Americans in general, the idea that we have no one who can undertake the task, is simply, at one and the same time, to cast a slur upon ourselves and pander to that which is perhaps the worst vice inherent in North American character, namely—SELF-CONCEIT." And this generous and lofty consideration is enforced by the sixth "reason," in which Mr. Long shows conclusively that he at least stands in no need of instruction concerning America: "That if the lecturer, in dealing with the character of his fellow-countrymen, should faithfully describe a North American of the true type 'clear grit,' then the sum and substance of what he would have to tell us face to face would be—however adroitly put—that the '*notions*' and '*intentions*' and '*duty*' and '*destiny*' of 'them everlasting Yankees' are 'to whip the Britishers' and eventually to 'cata-wampously chaw up creation, stock, lock, and barrel.'" And again, "Because, if the lecturer should proceed to speak of the process whereby the '*high-minded and highly educated class*' to which he belongs has been ejected from public life, and the motives which have led that class to submit so meekly to the ejectment—thereon the position of both parties, lecturer alike and listener, would become painful in the extreme, for the confession if garbled would be worthless, if open, humiliating."

With such reasons as these against the scheme, reasons so weighty, urged so ably, and with a candor and dignity so worthy of the great and venerable university, it would seem as if there had been no need of further protest. But another champion of religion, morals, order, and government against the insidious or open attacks of the prospective Harvard lecturer appeared in the person of Mr. H. R. Bailey, M.A. With great dexterity, and the skill of an accomplished *matador*, he waved the red flag of religious bigotry full in the eyes of the university bull.

"It is a painful thing," said he, "to write controversially on the most vital subject of all, religion. But are the members of the senate aware that Harvard University, as far as it professes any form of religion, is distinctly Socinian, or, if Americans prefer the term, Unitarian." . . . "Are we then prepared to ally ourselves with a university such as this? Can we be justified in placing a nominee of such a body in a position of authority and influence in our midst? [*sic.*] I shall hardly be told that I am arguing the case on a collateral or incidental issue; I hold this issue to be vital and fundamental. How can we expect soundness of thought or of teaching from one who is unsound on the most vital and central truth of all? How can there be right views of history or of Divine Providence when His authority is depreciated to whom 'all power is given in Heaven and in earth?' how a just estimate of institutions, when the church, the highest institution of all, is despised? or how can there be any correct or worthy criticism of literature, when intellect is unduly exalted, human pride ministered to, and reason made to hold a place for which it was never meant?"

The lectureship against which Mr. Bailey protested in these dark terms, terms worthy of the darkest age of intellectual weakness and moral decrepitude, having been rejected, it remains for him to get a vote carried that henceforth no text-books be used in the university but such as may be written by members of the Church of England; that for Plato shall be substituted Mansell; for Aristotle, Whewell; for Homer, Keble; and that Newton, Leibnitz, and Laplace be all banished from the curriculum. What an ideal university might be made on this system! How certain its attainment of truth! How happily limited its range of thought! Here should philosophy be kept alive by professors and tutors wise as Mr. Long, liberal as Mr. Bailey, and humble as Mr. Perowne. Here all vanity, all self-righteousness, all pride, should become extinct, and at length the type of the sectarian religionist should be complete. Even now Mr. Bailey seems to have come pretty near perfection, and he recalls to us the story told by "a don," in his recent entertaining book on the university, of one of the Fellows reminding a Cambridge man of the claims of the outer world to the common rights of humanity with the words "But I also am a Christian."

Mr. Edward Dodel followed up the lines opened by Mr. Bailey and Mr. Long, but the matter was settled. The danger to the church and to the state was too great. The lectureship might undermine each alike. Loyalty and religion, or what pass for such at Cambridge, were alarmed. The Queen and the bishops were in peril. Who could count on the permanent security of the British constitution if this revolutionary idea were carried out?

And so, spite of the remonstrances of the ablest men, spite of the votes of all the men whose names are known outside of the university, spite of the votes of Whewell, then Master of Trinity; of Thompson, his successor in this position of highest university dignity; of Bateson, Master of St. John's; of Clark, the public orator; of Kingsley and Lightfoot, and others of the same stamp, Mr. Thompson's proposition was rejected, and Cambridge remains free from the contamination of a transatlantic lecturer.

THE TRYST.

SOMEWHERE thou awaitest;
And I, with lips unkissed,
Weep, that thus to latest
Thou puttest off our tryst!

The golden bowls are broken;
The silver cords untwine;
Almond flowers in token
Have bloomed—that I am thine!

Others, who would fly thee
In cowardly alarms,
Who hate thee and deny thee,
Thou foldest in thine arms!

How shall I entreat thee
No longer to withhold?
I dare not go to meet thee,
Oh, lover, far and cold!

Oh, lover, whose lips chilling
So many lips have kissed,
Come—even if unwilling—
And keep thy solemn tryst!

H. H.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

XXXV.

BOSTON, April 3, 1866.

IN coming home from my long journey in the South, I travelled by rail through Connecticut, and it happened that for several hours my seat was shared with a merchant from Rhode Island. I expressed to him my pleasure at sight of a country so different from that with which the last eight months had made me familiar, and contrasted the pretty villages and busy, prosperous towns which we were passing, the trim fences, the neat dwellings, the frequent school-houses and churches, the carefully cultivated farms, and all the other evidences of intelligence and industrious thrift, with the dreary region I had just left, thinly peopled, full of uncleared forests and undrained swamps and sandy levels, the wretched railways and worse roads, the slovenly plantations with their mean houses, the hovels of the laborers with their degraded population, and the disorderly towns. Even in my seat-mate I found a striking contrast with a person whom he recalled to my mind, and whom I look upon as being in many respects a typical Southern man. I found that the merchant had cut from a newspaper, and had preserved with great care, a copy of the official telegram which announced the death of Mr. Lincoln—"the President," as he still called him—"Abraham Lincoln died this morning at twenty-two minutes past seven o'clock." The South Carolina planter, I recollected, had his memento also. In a fight with a marauding party of negro troops or camp-followers he and his neighbors had been easily victorious. He was willing to keep on his piazza floor, and I saw them there, the bleached skulls of the two men whom he had killed with his hands.

My companion questioned me about the Southern country and people. I had been for some time endeavoring to generalize from the mass of facts which I had collected. On some points my mind was made up, and on others I was still in doubt. Many of my conclusions, whether correct or incorrect, answered questions which I was aware were not of general interest. Therefore, when I fell into this gentleman's company, I took note of those questions which he seemed to think most important, and resolved to let them guide me in the preparation of this paper.

In his first question he asked for my opinion of the loyalty of the South.

I left New York at the end of June last, and before the steamer had reached Virginia began conversing with Southern men; and I remained in the late Confederacy until the beginning of March. During July and August I was in Virginia, and often talked with people of all classes, and heard them talking among themselves. It is commonly said that the Virginians were then more loyal than they are now; but this, in my opinion, is a mistake. By loyalty I understand fidelity to the Union and love for it. The vast majority of the people were as disloyal at that time as we may suppose them to have been in 1862. I very seldom found a man who thought that his State had done wrong in seceding, or that he had done anything but right in following her fortunes. Many men were ready enough to call secession a great mistake, and I heard more than one wish that Roger A. Pryor had been hung. Lincoln, it was said, would probably never have harmed the South if she had not seceded, and, of course, that policy must have been a bad one which needlessly provoked so disastrous a war. But it was not a wrong thing that had been done; only an inexpedient thing. To be sure, the South had been dreadfully defeated by the overwhelming hosts of their enemies—mercenaries from Europe and Yankees and negroes outnumbering General Lee's army in the proportion of five to one. But the South had been in the right. The first Southerner with whom I talked said that "anyhow, the war was all a d—d foolish piece of business, he supposed. Still, his State went out, and if she was to go again he 'd go with her." He was travelling on the steamer with me, and of him and his companions I said: "Rebels, I suppose, they may fairly be called, for those with whom I have talked, while ready enough to admit themselves conquered, still declare that it is only because their country is subjugated that they now pay obedience to the United States." A few days afterwards, another gentleman whom I met upheld strenuously the doctrine of State sovereignty and the right of States to secede. Coercion was tyranny, he said, and "he believed all Southerners felt so. From the meanest private in the army up to the highest men in the land, up to General Lee, all felt that the South had been most deeply injured." This same gentleman, in speaking of the likelihood that the freed people would be oppressed by State legislation, said that "the remedy for the evil would be found in requiring the States to take such action as should be satisfactory to the general Government. The general Government seemed to be doing what it liked." And this remark of his brings me to another statement which I would make n reference to the feelings of the Virginians at that time. They had never n all their lives been loyal as we understand loyalty, and they hated the federal Government with a hate that had been growing for four years amid the passions of war and the humiliation of defeat; but the power of the Government they feared, and they respected its authority. Pardoning had hardly begun; the country was full of soldiers. President Johnson, it was generally said among these people, was a bloodthirsty, narrow-minded, demagogical "poor white," who would wreak vengeance on the Southern aristocracy, which he had once envied and which was now in his power. So I used to hear Mr. Lincoln mentioned with respect and his death was regretted. The Virginians seemed ready to accept whatever conditions it might please the North to impose, and to look on all favors conferred upon them as concessions of the conqueror and not as rights to be demanded. This was the feeling among the mass of the people. It seemed to me that they recognized the fact that whatever the war may have been at the beginning, however technical may have been the questions then involved in it, it had grown to be before its end a struggle for mastery between contradictory social and political principles. Perhaps most Northern men had accustomed themselves to look upon the rebellion as a work of destruction merely, a movement designed to effect only negative results. As a nation the Confederacy, we thought, even if it conquered its independence, could live but a short life; its great work would be the disruption of the American Union. But the Southern people believed their success would mean not that alone, much as that was to be desired. It would mean, also, the maintenance of a peculiar social system, the establishment of a government with certain very positive and admirable characteristics. Naturally enough, then, and logically, they saw in the defeat of Lee the defeat of the principles he represented. Their army and all their cause was lost. Then, too, so very many Southern men knew almost nothing and were not given to close thinking. They had been beaten, they knew, and they expected to take the law from their conqueror. This was far from being the view of the politicians, though, as they were for the most part unpardoned, they were saying less then than afterwards, and it may have been a very incorrect view, but I think it was the one generally prevalent. Then, better than at any other time, the North might have reaped the fruits of the war. Even universal suffrage the Southern people would have accepted. Not willingly, more unwillingly, probably, than they accepted the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery, but with far less resistance than would be opposed to it now.

The Union men at that time were rejoicing, but they rejoiced in secret, for they had served a long and hard apprenticeship to humility and every species of prudential dissimulation, and they knew that they still lived among rebels, though rebels without arms in their hands. I knew several men of this class, and before the middle of August they were beginning to doubt if they had not been too hasty in rejoicing at all, and to wonder and fear if the secessionists were not more powerful at Washington and more in favor than the Unionists. Without any exceptions, they disbelieved utterly in the loyalty and good faith of their secessionist neighbors.

As the fall passed away and the winter began I travelled southward. In North Carolina, and only in that State, I found native Southerners in whose eyes it was a recommendation of a man that he was from the North. For it was true that the Northerners had beaten their secessionist neighbors and set free their slaves, and might perhaps confiscate their property and punish them for driving poor men into the woods; and they, if they did not love the Union much, hated their secessionist neighbors perfectly. But even there such people were not in a majority. On the edge of that district I even found one man who was in favor of equal suffrage for whites and blacks. As he told me so he lowered his voice and looked carefully to the fastening of the door. If the fact was known, his village would be no place for him, he said; he intended to leave it. In North Carolina there is more of the soil in which true loyalty may yet grow than in any other Southern State that I have visited. But even in that State Jonathan Worth was elected governor over William Holden, because Holden was opposed to the payment of the debt incurred to support the rebellion.

As I went on from North Carolina to the Mississippi, seeing much of the people everywhere, I concluded that they were but little inclined to accept what may be called the natural results of the war. And by that phrase I mean that the war seems to have settled that the political and social condition of the South is eventually to be the same with that of the North. The Southerners saw that slavery was destroyed, and in their conventions they were forced to say so and to ratify the Constitutional Amendment. Their conventions were also willing to rescind the ordinances of secession, and in the case of North Carolina, after a long debate, the secession ordinance was even declared to have always been null and void. It is my belief that when the States are left to untrammelled action it will be found that these enforced and reluctant admissions, and the further admission that in one civil war the South has been overpowered by the North, and in another civil war probably would be overpowered, are all that the South of to-day will concede. I am convinced that in all those cases in which the consent of the South to the demands of the country has not been so expressed as to be irrevocable, there is great danger that its consent will be revoked. For I could not see that, as regards loyalty, the South was different in any important respects from what it was during the war. The people were sorry for nothing but their ill-success, and they had more curses for the men who led them badly during the war than for the men who led them into the war. If their feelings and opinions in 1863 were such as the country then condemned, it seemed to me that the country could not help condemning them to-day. In 1863, to be sure, they backed their opinions by bayonets, and there is little danger that they would again choose to make war upon the North. They seem to be thoroughly convinced that the North is an overmatch for them. But what was worth fighting for through so many years must have been dear to them, and what remains of it is worth voting for. What harm they can do the Union by political action I do not know; but whatever harm they can do will, I think, be done.

For some time to come the South will be a unit on all questions of Federal politics. If the few Union men in each State had been supported by all the might and influence of the general Government, if treason had been made odious, the Union party might, perhaps, have gathered to itself all that class of doubtful and wavering men that exists in every community, and so have made some head against its opponents. But that opportunity has been lost.

I was constantly hearing abuse of the North and of Northerners. Yankees were stigmatized as cowards, robbers of women and children, vandals, braggarts, low fellows, avaricious, cruel, and mean. Not that every Southern man and woman talks in this way, and that every Southern child is brought up to despise Northerners; but a Northern man travelling in the South is continually made uncomfortable by such insulting language, and is never safe from it for two days together. If he hears nothing of it in the railroad car to-day, to-morrow he may be shut up in a stage with people who entertain him with nothing else. It is perhaps excusable in the mouths of a defeated people, but it does nothing to convince those who hear it that the victorious people are well liked.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 24, 1866.

THIS morning London was awake and stirring before daylight. The great Oxford and Cambridge boat-race has to-day been rowed for and won. Within the last few years this race—to use the phraseology of the sporting papers—has become "the aquatic event of the year." Owing to the state of the tides, the race had to be rowed at the unnatural hour of 7.30 A.M. We live hard in London; we—and by that plural pronoun I mean the metropolitan public who have any direct interest in the national universities—get up late, and go to bed still later; but yet on this one day of the year we were all up before the workmen and the housemaids. It is natural enough that old university men like myself should forego our usual number of hours' sleep in order to be present at the great race, in which the honor of the two rival universities is in some sense implicated. But it is more extraordinary that the great outside public should take the trouble to go down to Putney or Hammersmith in order to see eight Oxford lads rowing against the same number of Cambridge undergraduates. Yet, of the hundreds of thousands who crowded down to the Thames this morning, a very small proportion indeed can have had any direct or indirect connection with the universities. From London to Hammersmith must be a distance of at least five miles; but the whole of the road leading there was crowded at seven this morning with a dense line of carriages, while the footpaths were crowded with an endless throng, trudging manfully down to the river side. Take it altogether, I think the extraordinary interest created by these annual contests is a healthy sign of public feeling. I am by no means a believer in the "muscular Christianity" faith, and I do not hold that the spectacle of sixteen high-bred youths, straining every muscle for dear life in order to place one boat's nose a couple of yards before another, is the noblest spectacle on which the Creator of the universe had occasion to gaze upon the present day. But still, without exaggeration, it is, I think, a good thing that some couple of hundred thousand Londoners of all classes should get up before daybreak, and take a very long and wearisome trip, in order to be spectators of a boat-race not rowed for money, and on whose issue no great amount of money really depended. In its own way, however, the sight was one which could not have been matched elsewhere. The broad reach of the Thames near Mortlake was covered with a flotilla of pleasure-boats, dense masses of people lined the banks on either side of the stream, and the morning was bright and sunny for the first time for many weeks.

The race, as was expected, ended in the victory of Oxford. For nearly four miles the two wager boats struggled neck by neck, sometimes one drawing a few feet in advance, sometimes the other, amidst the hoarse shouts of the partizans of either crew; but at the finish the superior strength of the Oxford men enabled them to carry their boat in a winner. This is the sixth successive year during which Oxford has won the contest. My own belief is, that so long as rowing is so much the fashion as it is now at both universities, Oxford must always win, as the Isis is a river on which rowing can really be learnt, while the "reedy Cam" is little better than a ditch. Some years ago the Oxford undergraduates cared more for cricketing than they did for boating, and then Cambridge won the race for I forget how many years in succession. Of late years, too, drilling for volunteers has been the peculiar hobby of the Cambridge lads; and the interests of rowing have suffered in consequence.

Which will win, the dark blue or the light, has been the question of the week, and for one person who has talked about the reform bill, there have been twenty, in London at any rate, who have talked of nothing but the boat-race. Another of the intervening weeks between the first and second reading of the bill has passed away, and there has not been any indication whatever of popular excitement. At Leicester alone has there been a public meeting held in its support; and at this town the sitting members, who are Liberals of the most advanced character, declined to attend the meeting, probably because they felt the gathering was not likely to be an influential one. The partizans of the measure congratulate themselves on the fact that there was no indication of public excitement about the reform bill of 1832 till some time after its introduction; but it seems to me that in politics as well as in the atmosphere a dead calm is not invariably followed by a tempest. Meanwhile, the persons who have most interest in forming a right estimate are convinced that the public apathy is genuine, and not merely apparent. As I have before told you, there are a very large number of Palmerstonian Liberals who would be only too glad to vote against a reform bill, if they were not afraid their votes might entail the loss of their seats in the event of an appeal to the country. As the days go by, and the out-door public continues to express no interest about reform one way or the other, the faint-hearted Liberals are beginning to speak out more boldly. And at last what is commonly regarded as the death-blow to the bill has been dealt by the hand of a Whig of the Whigs. Early this week notice was given by Earl Grosvenor that, on the second reading of the bill, he should move a resolution that the question of lowering the franchise must not be dealt with separately from that of the re-distribution of seats. The resolution, which is said to have been drawn up by Mr. Disraeli, and which is to be seconded by Lord Stanley, is ingeniously framed. The most ardent professed Liberal might declare that re-distribution and enfranchisement should go together without explicitly breaking any pledge he may have given to support reform. Yet the passing of this resolution will be as fatal to the bill as if it was directly thrown out upon a vote of want of confidence. Moreover, the standing and position of the mover of the resolution give it peculiar significance. Lord Grosvenor is the eldest son of the Marquis of Westminster, the richest and, next to the Duke of Bedford, the most powerful of the great Whig nobles. The whole of Belgravia pretty well belongs to the house of Westminster. Every year the leases on this estate are falling in, and the marquis re-enters on the possession of the innumerable mansions for which hitherto he received only a ground-rent. Some years ago his income was estimated at a thousand pounds sterling a day, and, as the Grosvenor family are celebrated for economy, the annual increase of the rental must be something stupendous. There are at least a dozen seats in the House the elections for which can be decided more or less completely by the Grosvenor influence; and even the great historic borough of Westminster is yearly falling more and more under the influence of the Grosvenors. Then, too, it is absolutely certain that Lord Grosvenor has not resolved to detach himself from the ministerial cause without consultation with the class to which he belongs. This defection means the defection of the Whig aristocracy; and, as such, is a terrible blow to the Ministry. Every day some fresh deserter from the Government benches announces that he cannot find it consistent with his principles to support the bill; and last night being the last night before the recess, Mr. Disraeli resumed once more the old tone of insolent triumph which he has laid aside so long, but which he always adopts when he feels he is fighting a winning battle. Englishmen bet about everything, and since the announcement of the Grosvenor resolution the odds against the passing of the bill are quoted at about ten to one, taken freely.

Every day, almost, Cabinet councils are being held, and the Government is utterly at its wits' end what to do in the face of a hostile Parliament and an indifferent public. There is said to be a division of opinion about the course which ought to be adopted. The Duke of Somerset, Lord Granville, and others would, it is supposed, advise the withdrawal of the bill on the understanding that next session the Government should pledge itself, in obedience to the wishes of the House, to bring in a complete and comprehensive bill. On the other hand, Earl Russell and Mr. Gladstone are opposed to any compromise, and are so far firm in their resolution to fight the bill against all and every opposition. Of course the friends of the Government declare that, in the case of a ministerial defeat, the Premier will ask the Queen's permission to dissolve Parliament. The threat of so doing is the most powerful weapon the Ministry can use to keep their followers together. But if the occasion should actually arise, I suspect the question of dissolution or no dissolution will be decided by the extent of the majority against the bill and the manner in which its virtual rejection is received by the country.

Personally, I do not think the probable rejection of the bill is any great public misfortune. I am one of the few English Liberals who have the courage to own that I distinctly wish the government of the country to be made more democratic. And this end will be brought about more surely, I fancy, by the failure of the Government measure than by its success. After such a fiasco, we shall probably hear no more of reform for some time to come; but the masses will learn from its failure that they will never obtain political power without agitation; and, whenever a period of distress and discontent arises, we shall have a popular outcry for a measure which will alter the whole character of our representation. Moreover, I confess to a sense of poetical justice being satisfied by the downfall of this reform movement. During the whole of the period of the English fashionable pro-Southern sympathies, I wearied myself with trying to convince my Liberal friends that they were undermining their own cause. For four years our leading Liberal politicians and journals preached constant homilies upon the horrors of democracy and the downfall of democratic institutions; and now they are astonished because their lessons have taken effect and the public are not enthusiastic about a reform which, if it has any meaning at all, means a movement towards democracy. I have seen it often stated in the *Star* that the triumph of the Union has given an immense impetus to the progress of democratic principles in England. In the long run I believe this statement will be found to be true, but

t is not so for the present. The English mind does not take in new ideas readily, and the fact that the Union is really restored has hardly worked its way to popular English perceptions. For the present, I believe, we are still under the influence of the "conservative reaction" created by the American war.

To-night is Mr. Jefferson's last appearance at the Adelphi in the character of *Rip Van Winkle*, after a run of one hundred and seventy-four nights. He goes into the provinces, and returns after some weeks' absence to come out in a new play. Altogether, his success in this country has been the most brilliant that has happened for many years in the London theatrical world.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, March 20, 1866.

A SINGULAR event took place not long ago which is creating considerable sensation in our fashionable circles. However improbable the story may seem, I am assured of its authenticity, and give you here the true version of it. Near the Palais de l'Industrie in the Champs Elysées is the stall of a woman who deals in maccaroons. This stall is the centre of attraction for nurse-girls and school-boys, who come and stake their *sous* at a species of *rouge-et-noir* table. The winner gets his cakes for nothing, whilst the loser forfeits the amount staked. Not long ago two gentlemen on horseback, followed by their grooms, stopped opposite this stall, where they dismounted and, going up to the small table, began the following conversation in French, although with an accent which left no doubt as to their transatlantic origin:

"It is understood then, J——, that you take the black?"

"Perfectly."

"For my own part I have a predilection for red."

"How many times shall we throw?"

"Ten."

"Madam," said Mr. J——, "I will begin. You hear that I have chosen the red. Have the kindness to keep account and tell us the result of the game." The game commenced. Mr. J—— won twice and lost eight times. The other won seven times and lost three.

The poor woman was at first terrified at her great loss; but what was her surprise when the two gentlemen threw each a five-franc piece upon the table and, without waiting either for change or cakes, left the spot!

This scene was renewed nine successive days with the same result as to the game. On the tenth day our two Americans again appeared at about the same hour.

"I presume," said Mr. J——, "that you have kept an account of the result of our nine days' meeting?"

"Certainly," replied his antagonist.

"How do we stand?"

"Strange to say, we have both won and lost the same number of times. Does your account tally with mine?"

"Perfectly."

"Then to-day's play decides the question?"

"Exactly. Will you begin?"

"You are very kind; I will follow you."

In spite of the courtesy of this dialogue, the bystanders who had been attracted to the spot by the singular scene fancied they noticed a bitterness in the tone in which the words were uttered. The two players were as pale as death, and, although the weather was cold, drops of perspiration stood upon their foreheads.

Mr. J—— played, and lost seven times. His companion won twice and lost eight times.

"I have lost," said the latter, "and you shall be satisfied."

They then paid the woman as liberally as before, and, bowing politely to each other, left the spot.

Four days after this the following paragraph appeared in the daily papers:

"A suicide committed under the most inexplicable circumstances has just thrown an air of sadness over one of the most aristocratic quarters of Paris. A young foreigner, Mr. ———, endowed with every gift of fortune, was found dead in his bedroom yesterday morning, a bullet having passed through his brain. All enquiries as to the cause of this unhappy suicide have proved fruitless, and it is supposed that the young gentleman committed the act whilst in a state of mental aberration."

This was all the light that was thrown upon the circumstance at the time, but since the following details have transpired. These young gentlemen, Americans, came into joint possession of an immense fortune by the death of a distant relative. They agreed to come to Paris together and enjoy life. On arriving here they put up at the same hotel and lived for some time together. After a while, however, a coldness sprang up between them and they eventually quarrelled. The quarrel led to the singular scene described above, and the sad catastrophe which followed it.

A very curious and somewhat mysterious marriage took place in one of our *mairies* a few days back. A most elegantly dressed and highly aristocratic English lady, aged twenty-two, was married before one of our mayors to a French gentleman the other side of sixty. After the ceremony the English lady stepped into a magnificent carriage drawn by four *alezans* and, with her *femme de chambre*, drove off to the station of the Northern Railway. The gentleman returned to his modest lodging on a fifth floor, carrying in his pocket an *inscription de rente* in the French funds for £50 a year. This extraordinary event has given rise to a great many surmises as to the lady's name and her motive for contracting such a singular marriage. As you may suppose, the lady has been the object of many uncharitable remarks.

One of the celebrities of the day, General Jusuf, knight of the Legion of Honor, has died at Cannes. The early life of this remarkable personage belongs rather to fable than to history. It is said that he was born in the Isle of Elba. He entered the French army when only twenty-two years of age, at which time he was a great favorite of the Bey. As in the story in the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments," the humble slave raised his eyes to the Princess Kabousah, daughter of Bey Hussein, and Kabousah, like the princess in the same story, deigned to look upon him with favor. Unfortunately, there were many obstacles to their union. One day the lovers were betrayed by a slave, who, however, paid dearly for his imprudence. Passing Jusuf's door, on his way from the Bey, Jusuf dragged him into his room. Two hours afterwards the princess received a basket of flowers, and on removing the flowers found underneath them a human hand, a tongue, and an eye, with a note containing the words, "I send you the eye that watched us, the tongue that betrayed us, and the hand that denounced us." Jusuf had to flee while waiting for the princess's reply. Since that time he has distinguished himself in many remarkable engagements, and, by his bravery and intelligence, attained the rank of general, together with numerous other distinctions. His death is deeply regretted by all who knew him.

An incident occurred night before last at the opera, which brought the performance of "La Juive" to a somewhat stormy close. It appears that M. Villaret had sent word to say that, owing to sudden indisposition, he would be unable to take his part in the opera that evening. M. Perrin replaced Villaret by M. Mathieu, who had long solicited an engagement. M. Mathieu had already appeared as *primo tenore* upon many of our provincial stages, but it appeared that he was unequal to the boards of the grand opera; above all, he had to labor under the great disadvantage of not having gone through a rehearsal or tried his voice in the orchestra. It is difficult to say whether M. Mathieu is deficient in talent or not; but this much is certain, he is not deficient in courage. Laboring under the disadvantages already mentioned and the emotion naturally felt at appearing before a Parisian audience, M. Mathieu broke down in the fourth act, and the curtain fell amid a storm of hisses and other expressions of disapproval. The curtain rose for the fifth act, but the uproar was so great that the performance could not go on. At shouts of "*A la porte les claqueurs*," the claqueurs left the house, and the director appeared and was received with shouts of "Return the money!" The money, however, was not returned, and Halévy's immortal *chef d'œuvre* was wound up with the "Femme à barbe," sung in chorus by the more turbulent of the spectators.

Speaking of *chefs d'œuvre* reminds me of an anecdote I heard to-day. Rossini was at his piano, evidently engaged in deciphering the "Tannhäuser." A visitor arrived and seated himself behind the composer.

"Maestro!" exclaims the visitor, "you have got the work upside down."

"Yes," good-humoredly replied the author of "Guillaume Tell," "I tried it the other way, but that would n't do."

Victor Hugo's new novel, "Les Travailleurs de la Mer," has appeared, and is a great success. Five thousand copies of the work were sold on Tuesday and Wednesday alone by the publishers, Messrs. Lacroix & Verboeckhoven. The price is eighteen francs, consequently the publishers have already received 90,000 francs. The copyright for ten years was purchased for 120,000 francs. Contracts have been made for translating it into ten languages.

In the musical world the celebrated Abbé Liszt is the lion of the day, and no fashionable circle is considered complete without his presence. On Friday he was at Prince Metternich's, who, by the way, proved himself recently to be a first-class pianist. Liszt was asked to seat himself at the piano; but it was a long time before he could be induced to do so, and then only on condition that he should not be asked to play a note of his own music. He confined himself to merely accompanying Leonard, the famou

violinist, in the execution of one of Schumann's pieces. The abbé's musical mass was executed at the church of St. Eustache on Thursday. An hour before the mass began every seat in the church was filled. This mass was performed for the first time at Pesth about eight years ago, on the occasion of a great solemnity at which the Emperor and Empress of Austria were present. The abbé himself played the organ several times on Thursday, and executed, among other pieces, Mendelssohn's triumphal march. Among the distinguished persons present I noticed M. Auber, General Mellinet, M. Berlioz, and M. Duruy, our Minister of Public Instruction.

Mademoiselle Patti is to appear this week for the first time in the "Elisir d'Amore." Every place at the Italiens is already secured. Faure, our celebrated baritone, has accepted an engagement for five years at the Imperial opera for a sum of 90,000 francs a year. One of the conditions of the engagement is that he shall not play in London during that time.

We are threatened with a complete inundation of new pieces at our various theatres. The favorite of the day, however, seems to be Don Juan, as our "well-known hero" is about to figure at no less than four of our theatres. Among them we are to have a "Don Juan du Village," by Madame George Sand, at the Vaudeville.

The Odéon presented a very brilliant appearance on Saturday, when Emile Augier's new piece, "La Contagion," was performed for the first time. The theatre was filled with all our great celebrities in art, literature, and politics. Time will not allow me to give you a sketch of this curious piece, but I will do so in my next. The Emperor and Empress were present. Their arrival was hailed with the usual enthusiastic shouts, mingled with cries of "*Vive le Luxembourg!*"

Our artists are working the flesh off their bones in order to have their pieces ready in time for this year's exhibition. To-morrow is the last day for sending them in. Not a painter or sculptor has been seen on the Boulevard before dusk for several days. They are all shut up in their *ateliers*, preparing for the 20th. One of our famous painters suddenly disappeared a short time back, and has not been seen or heard of since. I am told that he has yet a ticket upon his door with the following inscription: "I am not in."

A journalist and great collector, M. Cheron de Villiers, the author of an important work on Charlotte Corday, has just discovered twenty-eight autograph letters of that famous lady. They were written between the years 1790 and 1793, and are addressed to her friends. They all pertain to historical and political questions.

The following was recently discovered, and as I have been fortunate enough to pick it up before any of the French papers have got hold of it, I send it you. The name of Fouquier Tinville, the famous public procurator of the revolutionary tribunal in 1793, and who was one of those who signed Louis XVI.'s death-warrant, is familiar to every one. But few are aware that when the treaty of peace with England was signed by that unhappy monarch, Fouquier addressed eulogistic verses to the king, and that these verses still exist. They read as follows:

"D'une profonde paix nous goutions les douceurs,
Même au milieu des fureurs de la guerre,
Louis sut en touts temps la donner à nos cœurs!
En l'accordant à la fière Angleterre
Louis admet ses ennemis
Au rang de ses enfants chéris.
Sous l'autorité paternelle.
De ce prince ami de la paix
La France a pris une splendeur nouvelle
Et notre amour égale ses bienfaits!"

Fancy such lines from such a man!

Correspondence.

TOWLE'S HENRY V.

To the Editor of The Nation:

I am grateful to your critic for the courteous and kindly manner in which he has received "Henry the Fifth." The weight which his review will justly carry with it, by reason of its evidence of ripe scholarship and of its spirit of fairness, induces me to notice one or two points which he has made. And first, in justice both to him and to the public, I am constrained to acknowledge several errors in the book which his sagacity has discovered and pointed out; which I do the more readily as he has not repelled admissions by that undignified discourtesy of tone by which would-be critics strive to build up a reputation; he has rather invited them by a spirit of fairness and kindly frankness which befits the capable censor of literature.

Henry the Fourth did, as he says, base his claim to the crown upon a pretended descent from an elder brother of Edward the *First*, and not, as incorrectly stated in the history, from an elder brother of Edward the *Second*. Mary de Bohun was, as he says, born in 1394, and I have given this date correctly on page 160 and incorrectly (1404) on page 161. Joan of Navarre was not, as he has truly indicated, a daughter of the King of Aragon, and she married Henry the Fourth in 1402, not in 1405, as I have stated. These are all the errors in dates, I believe, which he has pointed out, and I now admit them with a view to making reparation, merely saying that the difficulties of getting every date right, when there are so many to look after, are greater than those who have not written upon matters of history imagine.

But I would, in the same kindly spirit which pervades his review, call attention to two points which he has made, and justify the position of the history in regard to them. The critic says:

"Mr. Towle starts with an error on his very title-page. Henry the Fifth was not 'heir of France,' as Mr. Towle himself is at particular pains to show." "The only reasons for calling Henry the Fifth 'heir of France' are to be found in the arrangement that was made that he should succeed Charles the Sixth as king of that country, which came to nothing, and depended for its worth upon the event of the war."

I have, indeed, endeavored to show that Henry had no real claim upon the French crown. But I think that my calling him "heir of France" is to be justified, and upon this ground: Henry succeeded in conquering the French armies and in making a treaty with Burgundy, Isabella, and Charles. In that treaty, called the treaty of Arras, the fifth and sixth provisions explicitly stipulated that Henry should be *regent* of France during Charles's lifetime, and that upon Charles's decease *he should succeed to the French crown, and his heirs for ever*. Was he not thus recognized as *heir* of France by the French themselves? Did he not enter Paris by the side of the French sovereigns, the acknowledged heir to the crown, and absolutely administer the government as regent? And was he not so recognized by the court and the parliament of Paris from that time (December, 1419) up to the day of his death (August, 1422)? Was he not then really "heir of France," not so merely by the record of the privy council, but also by the express confirmation of the French and by his practical assumption of the duties of regent? Herein lies the difference between his case and those alluded to by the critic, of the modern kings of England and Sardinia.

Again, the critic says the Wars of the Roses "never would have taken place had John of Gaunt been the second or even the *third* son of Edward the Third. Had he been the third son he would have been the heir presumptive of Richard the Second, and his son, Henry of Bolingbroke, would have succeeded to the place, and would have been entitled to the crown, failing heirs of Richard the Second."

Is this so?

John of Gaunt was, indeed, strictly speaking, the *fourth* son of Edward the Third; but he was, as far as the events of history were concerned, his *third* son. The sons of Edward were Edward, Lionel, William, John of Gaunt, as your critic says; but William, dying in childhood, left no children, and made no mark whatever on the events of his time or family, and by his early death he left John of Gaunt practically the third son. Supposing William had never been born (for his existence had no effect on the dynasty whatever), then John of Gaunt would have been the third son. In that case, would he have been heir presumptive of Richard? Does not the critic overlook the fact that the heirs of Lionel, the second son, lived, and were Richard's heirs? Is it not apparent that John of Gaunt, if he had been really the third son, as he was to all intents and purposes, would no more have been heir presumptive than if he was the fourth son? For the descendants of Lionel would in either case come in before him and his descendants. The critic, then, it seems to me, has made an error in saying that had John been the third son the Wars of the Roses would not have ensued. He was practically the third son, and Hume (Vol. 2, p. 266) calls him so, on the ground that the son who died in infancy, having no influence upon the dynasty, need not be counted. The Wars of the Roses were kindled by the heirs of Lionel, Edward's second son, against the usurping Lancasters, who were descended of John of Gaunt, to all interests and purposes his third son.

By giving a place to this in your columns, you will aid us in arriving at the real historical facts; and historical truth, I believe, both your able critic and myself are sincerely desirous to establish.

Yours, very truly,

George M. Towle.

Boston, March 26th.

[There are but few points in Mr. Towle's letter which call for reply. We adhere to our opinion that Henry the Fifth was not "heir of France." The arrangement made that he should succeed Charles the

Sixth only provided that he should be Charles's *successor*—which, in fact as well as in law, is a very different thing from heir; and the fact in this case depended for its practical usefulness upon the event of war. It was beyond the power of Charles the Sixth to make Henry the Fifth "heir of France." Such an arrangement was forbidden by the fundamental law of the French monarchy, which was appealed to by French statesmen three centuries later, at the time the Spanish succession was under discussion; and there was not a publicist in Europe at the beginning of the eighteenth century who believed that Philip of Anjou would refrain from pressing his right to the French crown were that prince to die young who subsequently became Louis XV. The question was one which the sword alone could decide, and no renunciation of his birthright by Philip could have been of any avail. If such was the fact with regard to an arrangement to which Philip was a party, how much stronger was the case with regard to that arrangement which was made by Charles the Sixth and Henry the Fifth, and to which the legal heir to the French throne was not only not a party, but which he was in arms to resist, and did resist until he had regained his inheritance, making good by force what was his legally and morally—becoming king *de facto* as long before he had been king *de jure?* That Henry would have become *king* of France, had he lived, under the terms of the treaty of Troyes, is highly probable; but that that treaty depended for its practical value upon the course of military events, is a point which cannot reasonably be disputed. How far the military situation was from being entirely favorable to the arrangement made at Troyes, appears from the utter defeat of Henry's party at the battle of Beaugé, one of the most spirited and bloody actions of that warlike time. That battle was fought almost a year after the treaty of Troyes had been agreed upon. Other successes had attended the resistance of the French, and the issue was yet uncertain when Henry was removed from the great scene by death; and those who succeeded to his power were unable to do his work, though it has always seemed to us that his brother John, Duke of Bedford, was an abler man than the king. But even had there been no resistance made to Henry's claim to reign after Charles the Sixth's death, and the Troyes arrangement had been satisfactory to all parties, the English monarch would not have been "heir of France." Henry the Fifth then would have become Charles the Sixth's successor, or devisee, nothing more. It is a very ancient maxim that an heir can be made only by God.

Mr. Towle questions the correctness of our assertion that John of Gaunt would have been Richard the Second's heir presumptive had he (John of Gaunt) been "even the third son of Edward the Third," and points to the circumstance that heirs of Lionel, an elder brother of John of Gaunt, were living, and had superior claims to those of the Duke of Lancaster. There would be force in what he says had John of Gaunt been Edward the Third's third son, as in that case he would have stood above Lionel, Duke of Clarence. John of Gaunt *was* the fourth son of Edward the Third, and all our remarks on this part of the subject were based on the admission of what is a well-known historical fact. William, second son of Edward the Third, has a place in history, though his life was a brief one; and we could cite from twenty standard historians to show that John of Gaunt is spoken of as the fourth son of his renowned parents by those who are authorities on the subject. As our remarks showed, we had the Clarence claim in our mind when we wrote on that entangled point of history, the respective claims of the houses of York and Lancaster to the English royal succession. This matter is one of fact and not of opinion, and not even so able a man as Hume—who cannot be named as an authority for facts—can be permitted to set aside the commonplaces of history. If we were to admit that such changes ought to be made, we should have the right to demand that they be so made that all shall recognize them. Mr. Towle looks upon John of Gaunt as having been, practically, the third son of Edward the Third, and therefore thinks he has discovered an error of fact in our observations. We hold that he was his father's fourth son—and even Mr. Towle admits that he had three brothers older than himself—and therefore believe we were guilty of no error of fact. We are satisfied with our position, and we presume that he is satisfied with his. Were we capable of making the gross mistake he attributes to us, we think we should have sufficient modesty not to speak of any less striking errors into which he has fallen. To us Mr. Towle's view seems to be as unfounded as Henry the Fourth's claim to the English throne because of his descent from an elder brother of Edward the First.

We sympathize with Mr. Towle in what he says about the difficulties of getting all dates right, and how easy it is for a writer to make a slip is proved by a mistake he falls into in his letter. He represents us as saying that Mary de Bohun was "born in 1394." We said that she died in that year. She was Henry the Fifth's mother, and is of no importance in history; but if her death had not taken place until 1404, it is quite probable that she would have become an historical personage of some note; and the circumstance that her husband sought one woman in marriage in or near 1399, and married another in 1402, made it proper to set the fact right.—Ed. Nation.]

MR. DICEY'S 50,000 FRENCHMEN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

In a letter published in The Nation of last week Mr. Edward Dicey explains an observation of his in his "Federal States," of which I made passing mention in the London *Spectator*, that "a French army of 50,000 men might march from New York to New Orleans and defeat any force it met on its path." Mr. Dicey's desire to relieve himself from the position in which he is apparently placed by this assertion is certainly natural, considering his good sense and the opportunity he has had since he was here for reflection and observation upon the subjects of his book in question, which, it gives me pleasure to say, is written with a nearer approach to perfect candor and accuracy than any modern book of travel in this country that I have met with. Mr. Dicey, however, does not, it seems to me, at all do away with the point, such as it was, that I made in regard to his statement. For he repeats in his letter, "I believed then, and I believe still, that in 1862 50,000 French troops would probably have defeated any force that either North or South could have brought against them at one point." Now I did not presume, and do not presume, to say that they could not. I only said that in that case we had one reason to be glad that they would now probably not attempt to do so. As to Mr. Dicey's plea that his remark rested upon his "belief that untrained volunteers are not a match for trained troops," he surely does not need to be told that that belief is universal here among all people who have even a modicum of common sense. And as to the support which he implies is given to his opinion "by the triumphant march of Sherman's veterans in 1865," that march would have supported Mr. Dicey if Sherman had been resisted, or if there had been enough men left upon his route to organize themselves into a body sufficiently strong to make a passable show of resistance. This, as we all know, was not attempted. It does not need one to rise from the dead, or to come from England, to tell us that 50,000 Frenchmen, or 50,000 Chinese, could march from New York to New Orleans if their march was not contested.

Let me correct for Mr. Dicey a strange typographical error in his letter as it appeared both in The Nation and the *Spectator*. He is made to say that he did not mean to indulge in "a silly sneer against the *learning* of American *newsmen*." This staggered me for a moment, until I saw very plainly that Mr. Dicey had written "against the *courage* of our American *kinsmen*."

A Yankee.

New York, April 6th.

[How the error occurred in The Nation as well as in the *Spectator* is explained by the fact that Mr. Dicey forwarded us the body of his letter in the print of that journal, with merely formal alterations.—Ed. Nation.]

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

The late George L. Duyckinck, known in American letters by the "Cyclopædia of American Literature," which he edited in connection with his brother, Mr. Evert Duyckinck, and by a "Life of George Herbert," edited an edition of Shakespeare, which is now on the eve of publication in Philadelphia by a firm which is new to us, Messrs. Davis, Porter & Coates. It will make an imperial octavo of eleven hundred pages, which will be illustrated by the Droeshout portrait, the one of all others which has the greatest claim to authenticity, besides the endorsement of Ben Jonson, a view of Stratford, and a full-page illustration to each play, engraved from designs by T. H.

Nicholson, and printed in tints. Mr. Duyckinck's editorial labors consist of a new life of the poet, a history of the stage, introductions to the different plays, and a selection of notes and references from previous editors and commentators. The best feature of the edition is its presentation of the different readings of corrupt passages from the early folio and quarto copies, the blunders of which sometimes help the reader to the poet's meaning when it is not perceived by his editors. The work is to be published by subscription.

—Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have in preparation a volume of Arctic explorations by Dr. Isaac I. Hayes, commander of the expedition in 1860–61, which is likely, when published, to attract a great deal of attention. If we knew the present condition of that very changeable chameleon, public curiosity—whether or no it was still interested in Polar discoveries—we might venture a prediction on the success of Dr. Hayes's work, which ought to be as widely read as was in its day the kindred work of the late Dr. Kane, who left a daring successor behind him in Dr. Hayes, to whom must be awarded the palm of going further north than any other known explorer. His volume, which will be about the size of Dr. Kane's, is to be illustrated from designs by some of our best artists, notably by Church and Darley. We have seen two illustrations by the latter—a party of explorers attacked by white bears, and another party in a boat, in a sea of ice, surrounded by swimming seals—and can praise them heartily. Effective like most that Darley does, they are well thought out and drawn with great care and spirit.

—The circulation of books of a certain class, mostly bearing upon the late war, exceeds anything ever before witnessed in this country, with the exception of "Uncle Tom's Cabin," and a few of our most popular school-books. One of these publications, the scribblement of a woman who, we believe, was a hospital nurse, or something of the sort, has already netted a large fortune for its publisher, who circulated it through women agents. We forget the exact circulation of Mr. Greeley's unfinished work on the war, but it was very large. Of two later works which, like that, are sold only by subscription, "Sherman's Campaigns" and Coppée's "Life of Grant," it is within our knowledge that fifty thousand copies of the former were sold in four months, and twenty thousand of the latter in about half that time, which suggests the reflection that the next best thing to being a military hero is to be the publisher of his exploits. It would be curious to trace the sale of such works, since it would enable us to form an estimate of the mental proclivities of the people of the different States. That they circulate but little in our great seaboard cities we take for granted, from the fact that the matter they contain was long since made known to us by the papers of the day and the bulletins of the hour; besides, we are tired of wars and rumors of wars, and seek forgetfulness and amusement, some in the last new novel, others in magazines and periodicals, and others at the theatre and the opera. In the country, where these things are not, it is different. The interior of New York is said to be a rich field for peripatetic venders of war-books; also the region west of the Alleghanies. They are, likewise, beginning to venture a little in the South, chiefly along the edges of the border States.

—Messrs. Scribner & Co. have not been idle during the dearth which has crept over the trade for the past three months, as may be seen by their announcement of books in press, which is the largest that we have to chronicle at present for any one house in the city. It embraces four new works and three instalments of works already in progress, viz.: "Short Sermons to Newsboys, with a History of the Formation of the Newsboys' Lodging-House," by C. L. Brace, 1 vol. 16mo; "Temperance Recollections, Labors, Defeats, and Triumphs, an Autobiography," by the Rev. John Marsh, D.D., Secretary to the three first National Temperance Conventions, and thirty years Corresponding Secretary and Editor of the American Temperance Union, 1 vol. 12mo; "Patriotic Eloquence: Being Selections from One Hundred Years of National Literature, Compiled for the Use of Schools in Reading and Speaking," by the late Mrs. C. M. Kirkland, 1 vol. 12mo; "Life of Benjamin Silliman, M.D., LL.D., late Professor of Chemistry, Geology, and Mineralogy in Yale College, Founder and Editor of the 'American Journal of Science and Arts,' etc.," by George P. Fisher, professor in Yale College, 2 vols. crown 8vo, with a portrait and other illustrations; the "Second Volume of Lange's Commentary," containing Mark, edited by the Rev. W. G. T. Shedd, and Luke, edited by the Rev. C. C. Starbuck; the fifth and sixth volumes of Froude's "History of England, from the Fall of Wolsey to the Death of Elizabeth," crown 8vo; and part second of Stanley's "Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church, from Samuel to the Captivity," 1 vol. 8vo.

—Mr. S. P. Avery, at No. 695 Broadway, will shortly publish a valuable architectural monograph. Architectural monographs have been rare in this country, as have books of any kind treating of architecture, and with good reason. The partial completion of so important a building as that of the Academy of Design is fitly marked by the appearance of this work. The title describes the book: "National Academy of Design—Photographs of the New Building, with an introductory essay and descriptions by P. B. Wight, architect." There are fifteen very beautiful photographs, one of the whole building, and the others of details, principally of the exterior carving. The book is a thin folio; the photographs are taken by Mr. Stadtfeldt, the letter-press is Alvord's, and it is bound in half morocco. The edition is limited to one hundred copies.

—The South, we are happy to perceive, is turning its attention to letters, if only in a small way; if it had published more, and talked politics less, for the last thirty years, it would have been better for all parties. We note, therefore, a couple of new publications by Wm. B. Smith & Co., of Raleigh, N. C.: "Mosses from a Rolling Stone," by Tenella (Mary Bayard Clarke), author of "Reminiscences of Cuba," "Wood Notes," "Translations of Marguerite," "Lady Tartuffe," etc., and "Nameless: A Novel," by Fanny Murdaugh Downing. The first of these volumes, which is a collection of verse, is described by one of our contemporaries, not remarkable for critical acumen, as "characterized by a graceful and flowing versification, a pleasing play of fancy, a beautiful and tender sentiment;" of the second the same authority says: "The characters of the story are clearly individualized, and their varying fortunes are often illustrated with passages of thrilling interest."

—The fame of Shakespeare is greater, if possible, in Germany than in England, the writers of the former country, from Goethe to Gervinus, displaying, with an equal knowledge of his text, a profounder analysis of his motives and characters. The Tercentenary Celebration, for instance, which in England accomplished nothing, but which here and in Germany was productive of solid results, has established there a Shakespeare Society, supported by scholars and critics, who are pledged to furnish yearly one volume devoted to the treatment of Shakespearian themes. The first of these "Year-books" contains several papers of special interest, the editor, F. Bodenstedt, discussing Chapman's relations to Shakespeare, while those of Marlow are considered by Ulrici. Delius subjects the enigmatical sonnets to a close analysis, and arrives at the conclusion that they possess no biographical value; Dr. Koberstein traces the history of Shakespeare in Germany; M. Bernays attacks and carries Rio's unsubstantial notion that Shakespeare was a Roman Catholic; Karl Elze handles the French translations of Hamlet; F. A. Leo discusses some of the proposed emendations of the text; and A. Cohn furnishes a Shakespearian bibliography for the last two years, which includes papers in the reviews, and even slight communications in magazines and journals. Altogether, the German Shakespeare Society has begun well.

—No book of European translation has ever been so popular in China as that of "Euclid's Elements," the first six books of which were done into Chinese by the Jesuit missionary Matteo Ricci, with the help of a native convert, named Seu Kwang-ke, and published in 1608. The science was new to the Celestials, although they had studied, and written largely upon, astronomy and kindred subjects; the title of the work, "Ke hô guên"—in English, "the science of so much"—could have conveyed no clear idea of its purport to them, though it has since been so naturalized that it is now readily understood, even in their literary writings. It passed through a number of editions—two in the lifetime of Seu, who, in the second, expressed his regret that it was incomplete, and a hope that the remaining books would be added, a labor which seems to have engaged the attention of Father Ricci, who, in another work, quotes from the eleventh and twelfth books; his death, however, in 1610, prevented its completion. The want of the remaining nine books was felt at a later period by Mei Wuh-gan, a noted Chinese mathematician, who endeavored to supply the deficiency from his own powers, and published a "Supplementary Treatise on Geometry," "Trigonometrical Demonstration of the Elements of Geometry," and "Important Selections of Geometry." A contemporary, Mei Urh-soo, published a "Systematic Investigation of Geometry." Later, in 1631, Jules Aleni, a Jesuit missionary, published "Essentials of Geometry;" he was followed by T'ang Wei-pih, with a "Summary of Geometry," and by Too Twan-foo, in an "Abridgment of Geometry." At the beginning of the last century the general principles of plain and solid geometry were given in what may be called an Imperial Cyclopædia, with a section containing the most important problems of the seventh, eighth, and ninth books of Euclid; an abridged edition of this treatise was issued some fifty years later, under the title of "Main Points of the Elements of Geometry." There was no complete Euclid, however, in Chinese, no translation of the much needed nine books, until 1858, when they were undertaken by Mr. A. Wylie, who was assisted by a native scholar, like Father Ricci before him. A few copies of his trans-

lation were printed from the blocks, when the house was destroyed by the rebels—which circumstance, joined to the death of its proprietor, delayed the work until recently, when it was published by Tsang Kwo-fan, the Viceroy of Keang-sov, Keang-se, and Gan-hurey.

—While on the subject of Chinese literature, we must mention the translations, by Dr. James Legge of the London Missionary Society, of "The Chinese Classics," the third volume of which, a thick quarto, of between seven and eight hundred pages, was recently issued at Hong Kong. Few students of Chinese are unacquainted with the translations of Dr. Legge, whose labors are second only to those of Morrison in the translation of his great dictionary, which they surpass in some respects, being, mentally, of a higher order. Dr. Legge's third volume contains the first parts of the "Shoo King," viz., the books of Fang, of Yu, of Hea, and of Shang, with a prolegomena, and the fifth book of the "Shoo King" or the books of Chow. The prolegomena is especially well done, its deep and toilsome research entitling it to rank among the masterpieces of German scholars on the Greek and Latin poets. Dr. Legge has ransacked all authorities for facts in regard to this ancient Chinese record, tracing the sources whence it sprang, the history of its transmission to our times, in spite of the burning of the books, and the history of the principal commentary upon it. He analyzes the Bamboo Books, the earliest records of China, and gives a comprehensive sketch of the origin of the Chinese race. Thus much concerning Dr. Legge's labors on the "Shoo King." For the collection of which it forms a part, we are glad to announce that an American edition of it is in preparation, under the editorial care of Mr. Baker, of the Public Library, Worcester, Mass. The first volume, which will contain the "Confucian Analects," "The Great Learning," and "The Doctrine of the Mean," is to be published during the present month. The text followed is, of course, that of Dr. Legge.

—Among Oriental works whose loss scholars have deplored was one by Masoudi, the Arab historian, "Akhbar-az-zeman" ("News of the Times"), of which only a few fragments, and a summary made by Masoudi himself, were known to exist, under the title of "Muroudj-ez-zeheb" ("Golden Prairies"). In the latter work Masoudi constantly refers to the former, particularly on important matters as being there discussed at length—a circumstance which has piqued the curiosity of his readers and set them upon the trail of his missing volume, hitherto without success. We are now told, however, that M. Charles Ganneau, the editor of the philological department of the "Revue de l'Instruction Publique," has made the discovery that a perfect manuscript copy of it still exists in a library attached to the mosque of Mohammed the Second. Such being the case, it will not be long before it is translated into some of the languages of Europe, probably into French, since it is to a Frenchman that the discovery is due. What may be looked for in the "News of the Times," which were those of the tenth century, can only be conjectured, but, considering that Masoudi made extensive voyages to Persia, India, Ceylon, on the borders of the Caspian Sea, in Armenia, Spain, Africa, Madagascar, in China and the Eastern Archipelago, it can hardly fail to possess considerable interest for travellers and geographers.

—The third and fourth volumes of a French work bearing upon the early history of Canada have lately been published in Paris, both being reprints of old works published two centuries ago, and written by the same author, F. Gabriel Sagard Theodat, a French missionary of the Order of St. Francis, whose business it was to convert the Hurons and other aboriginal infidels. The first of these volumes, which was issued by Brother Gabriel in 1632, is an account of the voyage made by the missionaries from France to the Huron country. The second, which was published four years later, is a history of Canada and subsequent voyages thither for the same laudable purpose. Like most of the writings of the early Catholic missionaries, who, as a class, were as simple as they were shrewd, they contain a deal of odd and curious matter, a portion of which is of a character to make one smile.

—Lord Derby's translation of Homer seems to have incited the Greek scholars of England, some to present versions of their own, and others to the task of re-editing the Father of Poets. Among these last is Mr. Henry Hayman, B.D., who has just published the first volume of "The Odyssey," containing the first six books, with marginal references, various readings, notes, and appendixes. He has evidently studied the literature of his subject thoroughly, not only in the principal editions, which he could not help knowing, but in separate papers, tracts, and monograms, by foreign scholars, bearing on special points of criticism, of many of which he might well be ignorant, since their number is so large. He gives also an account of the old editors of and commentators on Homer, besides a list of the manuscripts of "The Odyssey," and their scholia. As regards the language of Homer, and the substantial integrity in which it appears to have descended to us, he believes that it was transmitted orally through generations of rhapsodists, and was written down at last rather as a help to their memories than to supply the supposed demand of a reading public, the existence of which at that early period is doubtful. That lines may have been interpolated he believes probable, holding that the structure of the Homeric sentences is such that the insertion or extension of a supernumerary clause *ad libitum* is a complement which they often bear gracefully, running, as they do, like the heroic chariot-team, loosely and at large; at the same time he thinks that it is hardly worth while to trouble himself, or his readers, with conjectures on such questions. Mr. Hayman's essays on the personages of Homer show him to advantage as a critic of ideal characters. The best of them is probably that on Pallas Athene, whom he describes as a character in the plot of both "The Iliad" and "The Odyssey," inseparable from their texture, and similar in its relation to the dramatic element to that of Mephistopheles in the first part of "Faust." "Her character," he says, "is without tenderness, or tie of any sort; it never owns obligation, it never feels pain or privation; it is pitiless, with no gross appetite—even that of sacrifice, conventionally necessary to a god, is minimized in it—its activity is busy and restless, its partizanship unscrupulous, its policy astute, and discrimination profound. It is keenly satirical, crafty, bantering; whispering base motives of the good, not afraid to speak evil of dignitaries, beating down the strong, mocking the weak, and exulting in her own easy superiority over them; heartless as regards true and tender affection, yet staunch to a comrade, touched by a sense of liking for its like, of admiration for its own faculties reflected, of truth to its party, ready to prompt and back its friend through every hazard—the divinity of human society, in short, a closer impersonation of 'the world' than any Christian (not to mention heathen) poet has ever produced."

VICTOR HUGO'S LAST NOVEL.*

"Religion, society, and nature," says M. Victor Hugo in his preface, "such are the three struggles of man. . . . Man deals with difficulty under the form superstition, under the form prejudice, and under the form element. A triple *anankè* weighs upon us: the *anankè* of dogmas, the *anankè* of laws, the *anankè* of things. In 'Notre Dame de Paris' the author has denounced the first; in 'Les Misérables' he has pointed out the second; in the present work he indicates the third."

Great programmes and intentions, even though they be *à posteriori*, are one of M. Victor Hugo's liveliest characteristics. It will, therefore, not surprise any of his old readers to find him calling what a writer less fond of magnificent generalizations would have been content to describe as "a tale of the sea," a picture of "the *anankè* of things." But M. Victor Hugo is a poet, and he embarks upon the deep in a very different spirit from the late Captain Marryatt. He carries with him provisions for a voyage all but interminable; he touches at foreign lands whose existence has never been suspected; and he makes discoveries of almost fabulous importance.

The scene of "Les Travailleurs de la Mer" is laid in M. Hugo's adopted home of Guernsey, or rather in great part in—yes, literally *in*—the circumjacent ocean. The story is a very small one in spite of its enormous distensions and inflations. An inhabitant of the island, the proprietor of a very pretty niece, becomes also proprietor, in the early days of the invention, of a very pretty steamer, with which he establishes communication with the coast of France. He employs as captain one Sieur Clubin, a man long noted on the island for his exquisite probity and virtue. One of his chief recommendations to the esteem of his employer is the fact that in former years, when the latter had admitted to partnership a person of doubtful antecedents, by name Rantaine, he had, out of the fulness of his integrity, divined this gentleman's rascality, and had forewarned his master that some fine day Rantaine would decamp with the cash-box. This catastrophe is, indeed, not slow in happening. Rantaine suddenly departs for regions unknown, taking with him fifty thousand francs more than his share of the capital. These three persons, Lethierry, the proprietor of the steamer, Rantaine, and the captain, Clubin, are all described with a minuteness very disproportionate to any part they play in the story. But when M. Victor Hugo picks up a supernumerary he is not wont to set him down until he has bedecked him with more epigrams, anecdotes, formulas, and similes than would furnish forth a dozen ordinary heroes. Lethierry is famous for his alacrity in rescuing the victims of shipwrecks. In heavy weather he paces the shore, scanning the horizon, and if he descries a craft of any species or degree in need of assistance, he is soon seen from afar "upright on the vessel, dripping with rain, mingled with the lightning, with the face of a lion who should have a mane of sea foam." After a day spent in this exercise, he goes home and knits a pair of stockings. He was a savage, says the author, but he had his ele-

* "Les Travailleurs de la Mer. Par Victor Hugo. A. Lacroix, Verboeckhoven et Cie., Bruxelles; F. W. Christern, New York. 1866."

gances. The chief of these is that he is very fastidious about women's hands. The reason that he had never married was probably that he had never found a pretty enough pair of hands in his own station of life. He brings up his niece, Déruchette, to take care, above all things, of her hands. About this young lady M. Hugo says an enormous number of extravagant and pretty things. We all know what to expect, however, when M. Hugo enters upon the chapter *jeune fille*. "To have a smile," he says at the close of a rhapsody on this subject, "which, one knows not how, lightens the weight of the enormous chain dragged in common by all the living, is—what else can I call it but divine? Déruchette had this smile. We will say more. Déruchette *was* this smile." Rantaine, the villain, is a most formidable creature. He is a mass of incongruities. He has been everywhere and everything. "He was capable of all things, and of worse." "He had passed his life in making eclipses—appearing, disappearing, re-appearing. He was a rascal with a revolving light." "He used to say, '*Je suis pour les mœurs*' —I go in for morals." Sieur Clubin is the reverse of Rantaine. His life is all above-board. He is piety, honesty, decency incarnate. To suspect him is to make one's self suspected. He is like the ermine; he would die of a stain. As we have said, he sails the little steamer from Guernsey to Saint Malo. One of his idiosyncrasies is never to forget a face he has seen. At the latter place, accordingly, he recognizes after a number of years the *ci-devant* humbug, Rantaine. He procures a revolver, surprises him on the cliff, just after (unfortunately, as you might say) he has confirmed his identity by pushing a coast-guard over into the sea; he faces him, and coolly demands a restitution of the fifty thousand francs. Such is his address that the formidable Rantaine complies like a child, and hands over the little box containing the money. Finding a surplus of ten thousand francs, Clubin returns them, pockets the balance, and dismisses the criminal. All that Clubin desires is to restore to his impoverished employer his dues. Forthwith, accordingly, he gets up steam, and departs for Guernsey, with his fifty thousand francs secured in a belt about his waist. On the Guernsey coast, however, the steamer enters a heavy fog, which soon obscures all progress; and, to make matters worse at this critical moment, the pilot is drunk. The captain takes the helm and advances boldly through the fog. But a sudden break in the sky shows the vessel to be close upon a terrible shoal, and before it can be avoided a terrific shock indicates that the steamer has struck. The passengers are huddled into a boat, but the captain, who has conducted himself throughout with admirable presence of mind, announces his intention of remaining with the vessel until it goes down. This ideal of heroism is vainly combated; the boat moves away, and the disinterested Clubin is left alone with the ocean, the wreck, and—do you see the point?—the fifty thousand francs. Doubtless, you do not see it yet; for, in the first place, the Sieur Clubin cannot use the money if he will, and then, as we know, he would not if he could. But here comes a grand *coup de théâtre*, one of M. Hugo's own. What if the virtuous Clubin should, after all, be no better than the iniquitous Rantaine, no better than a life-long hypocrite, the would-be murderer of a ship-load of innocents?

The author develops this hypothesis in a wonderful chapter entitled "The interior of a soul illumined." A very dark soul indeed is this of Clubin, needing all the rockets and bonfires of M. Hugo's speech to penetrate its dusky recesses. Left alone on the dreadful ocean, this monstrous being bursts into a wicked laugh. He folds his arms and tastes his solitude. He is free, he is rich, he has succeeded. Now he is going to begin. He has "eliminated the world." "There are caverns in the hypocrite," adds the author; "or rather, the whole hypocrite is a single cavern. When Clubin found himself alone his cavern opened. He ventilated his soul." "He had been," we furthermore read, "the Tantalus of cynicism." He now looks upon his honesty as a serpent looks upon his old skin; and as he does so he laughs a second time. But in these delights he does not forget the practical. His plan is to swim ashore (he is a marvellous swimmer), to remain hidden on the coast until a smuggling vessel picks him up, and then to make his way to America. His exultation, however, is but short-lived. As he looks the fog is rent in twain, and he sees that he has lost his way more effectually than he had intended. The fog has served him but too well. He has not struck the small shoal which he had, as he fancied, steered for, but a much larger one further distant from the shore. Instead of having a mile to swim, he has fifteen. Nevertheless he strips and plunges. As he touches bottom he feels his foot seized. Meanwhile the small boat has been picked up by a sloop, and the passengers have brought the evil tidings into the port of Saint Sampson. The good proprietor of the steamer is overwhelmed with grief for the loss of his precious, his unique, his laboriously wrought machinery. It is suggested, however, that it may still be recovered, that it may be disengaged from the double embrace of the wreck and the rocks, and successfully brought ashore. Whereupon Miss Déruchette steps forth and declares that she will marry the man who shall accomplish this herculean labor. Now this young lady has long been adored in silence by a young *amateur* of the ocean, a strange, brooding, melancholy, ill-reputed fellow, a kind of amphibious Werther, whose only outlet for his passion has been, for a number of years, to serenade his mistress with an instrument which M. Hugo repeatedly denominates a "bug-pipe." He accepts the challenge, and straightway betakes himself, alone and unaided, to the fatal shoal between which the hapless vessel stands wedged. Here begins M. Hugo's version of the struggle of man with the elements, "the *ananké* of things" promised in his preface, and a wonderful version it is.

The whole of the second book is devoted to the labors of this new Hercules in wrenching with his single hands the machinery of the steamer from the angry clutch of nature. Gilliatt (such is the hero's name) encamps upon the summit of a great rock hard by the field of his operations, one of a brace of strong brothers which just hold their chins out of water. Here, under the stars, surrounded by the world of waves, he spends the nights of two long months, during which, through hurricane and cold and fever and hunger, thirst, and despair, he gradually, by a combination of cranks and cross-beams and pulleys which, we doubt not, are as admirably self-consistent as the famous camel which the German philosopher evolved from the depths of his moral consciousness, he finally, we say, disenthralls the machinery from the shattered authority of the wreck. To believe so big a story you must understand what an extraordinary personage was this Gilliatt. M. Hugo has smoothed the way by a full analysis of his nature and habits at the opening of the work; but we protest in all gravity that we utterly fail to comprehend him. Physically, he is of those days when there were giants; morally, he is the product of too much reading of M. de Lamartine, Alfred de Musset, and M. Victor Hugo himself. "*La somme*," says the author, "he was simply a poor man who knew how to read and write." Elsewhere, he is "a great troubled mind and a great wild heart." He has thus a certain affiliation with Mr. Carlyle. Again, while he is defying the tempests and tides for the love of Déruchette, he is "a kind of Job of the ocean. But a Job militant, a Job conqueror, a Job Prometheus." There is a vast deal in this long description of his daily battle with the elements which we should like to quote, had we the space. A great deal we should quote for the reader's amusement; but for a few passages we should expect his admiration. Never, we believe, has mere writing gone so far: that is, never was nature so effectually ousted from its place, in its own nominal interest. We have room only for half-a-dozen sentences relative to Gilliatt's adventure with a certain hideous marine animal, called by M. Hugo the *pieuvre:* an enlarged jelly-fish, with tentacles, and eyes of hideous expression. This obscene creature will become famous through M. Hugo's magnificent hyperbole. "Compared with the *pieuvre*," he says, "the old hydras provoke a smile. Homer and Hesiod could only make the Chimæra. God has made the *pieuvre*. When God wishes, he excels in the execrable."

The author then proceeds with solemn iteration to rehearse all the monsters, fabulous and veritable, which have ever been the terror of man, together with their respective death-dealing attributes. The *pieuvre* has none of all these—none of these vulgar agencies of dread. "What, then, is the *pieuvre?* It is a sucker." It is, in appearance, a mere rag floating under water. When at rest it is dust-colored. But enraged it grows violet. Then it throws itself upon you. Fearful sensation! it is soft." Its tentacular thongs garrote you; its contact paralyzes. "It looks scorbutic, gangrenescent. It is disease arranged into a monstrosity." But we will leave M. Hugo the fine illustrations of his own tongue. "*Une viscosité qui a une volonté, quoi de plus effrayable? De la glu pétrie de haine.*" This irresistible creature devours you in such a way as to elicit from M. Hugo the following remark: "Beyond the terrible, being eaten alive, is the ineffable, being drunk alive." This is followed by some characteristic ratiocinations on physiology. Gilliatt comes near being absorbed into the *pieuvre;* but, for the matter of that, we all go into each other. "*Pourriture, c'est nourriture.* Fearful cleaning of the globe! Carnivorous man is an entomber; and life is made of death. . . . We are sepulchres." In spite of this general law, however, Gilliatt defers his burial by decapitating the *pieuvre*. Shortly afterwards he discovers, in a very nearly submarine cavern, a human skeleton, girded about with a money belt, inside of which is written *Sieur Clubin*. It was not in vain, therefore, that this unfaithful servant had been detained beneath the waters. Gilliatt appropriates, provisionally, the belt, and ultimately arrives at a successful solution of his problem in mechanics. His interruptions, his perils, his sufferings, his visions, must be read in detail. There is a long description of a storm which grazes the sublime and jostles the ridiculous. Detached from its context, any example of the former would, we fear, fail to justify itself to the reader; and, indeed, the nearest approach to greatness in this whole episode is not

to be found in particular passages, but in the very magnificent intention of the whole. As for the ridiculous, we cannot but think that it is amply represented by everything that follows Gilliatt's successful return with the rescued and renovated vessel. While Déruchette's uncle is digesting his surprise, gratitude, and joy, Déruchette herself is engaged in a very sentimental *tête-à tête* in the garden with a young Anglican divine. An involuntary witness of their emotions, Gilliatt immediately withdraws his claims. More than this, he personally superintends the marriage of the young couple, and sees them on board the vessel which, after the wedding, is to convey them to England. And after this, says the superficial reader, he of course goes home and smokes a pipe. But little has such a reader fathomed the depths of this heroic nature. He betakes himself to a well-known spot on the side of a cliff, where a depression in the rock forms, at low tide, a sort of natural chair. Here he seats himself in time to witness the passage of the vessel bearing away Déruchette and her husband. It almost "grazed the cliff," says M. Hugo. There on the deck, in a bar of sunshine, sit the happy young couple, lost in mutual endearments. The vessel moves away toward the horizon, while the tide rises to Gilliatt's feet. As the vessel travels before his unwinking eye, so gradually the water surges about him. It reaches his knees, his waist, his shoulders, his chin: but he moves not. The little birds call to him warningly, but he heeds them not. He sits open-eyed, gazing at the sloop. His eye, says the author, "resembled nothing that can be seen on this earth. That calm and tragic pupil contained the inexpressible." As the distant sloop disappears from the horizon, the eye is hidden, the head is covered, the ocean reigns alone.

Such is M. Victor Hugo's story. The reader will see that, dramatically, it is emphatically *not* what, from the title, it was likely pre-eminently to be—a study from nature. Nature is nowhere: M. Victor Hugo is everywhere; and his work will add very little to our knowledge of anything but himself. It is, in our opinion, the work of a decline. We have not hesitated to speak of it with levity, because we believe it to have been written exclusively from the head. This fact we deeply regret, for we have an enormous respect for M. Victor Hugo's heart.

MR. MAURICE ON THE DEMOS.*

Mr. Maurice, who is well known in this country as a leading member of the Broad Church party in England, has, perhaps, still higher claims to our regard as a social reformer than as a clergyman. Few men have labored more zealously than he for the elevation of the English working-men and the demolition of the middle wall of partition which has so completely separated them from the classes above them. He is principal of the Working-men's College in London, the establishment of which was, we believe, mainly due to his exertions. "The students," says the prospectus, "are for the most part working-men, and the teachers are in general members of the universities and of different professions, or those who have themselves been students in the college. Its purpose was and is to unite these classes together, by associating them in the common work of teaching and learning. It provides instruction at the smallest possible cost (the teaching being almost wholly unpaid) in the subjects with which it most concerns English citizens to be acquainted, and thus tries to place a liberal education within the reach of the working-man." The number of students the first year was 145; it is now 509. It began in a small, hired house, but now owns its own house; but is still greatly cramped, and is about to build rooms for drawing (this department is managed by Mr. Ruskin), for an adult school, for a lecture-room and museum. To assist in raising money for these objects, Mr. Maurice delivered a course of lectures on the suffrage, which are republished in the volume before us. The work is "dedicated" to "J. R., formerly a pupil in the Working-men's College, and now a tradesman in New York," and the language in which the author addresses him is worth quoting as an indication of the spirit in which the book is written:

"You wrote me an affecting letter last April when you had just received the news of President Lincoln's assassination. I have often thought of that letter whilst I have been composing this book. It suggested the connection between the questions which are agitating your old and your adopted country. It showed how much you were imbued with the spirit of an English citizen, and therefore how solemnly and with what brotherly interest you entered into the struggles and sorrows of the American people. You spoke warmly and affectionately of the studies you had pursued and of the friendships you had formed whilst you were with us. Perhaps these chapters from our own history will recall them to your mind, and will unite the wonderful events of this day in both continents to the education which God has given to our common fathers."

The lectures are ostensibly a historical examination of the relations borne by the House of Commons to the English people under the Plantagenets, Tudors, Stuarts, and during the eighteenth century. Mr. Maurice endeavors to show, and we will not say he has not succeeded in showing, that the Commons of England, whom the lower house of Parliament represented, were not the "people," in the sense in which the word is generally used in political discussions in our day, a collection of units, or rather, as Shakespeare makes *Coriolanus* call the plebs, "fragments," with no connecting link but their humanity. The Commons he declares to have been the "freeholders" of the counties, "freemen" of the boroughs, or, in other words, members of classes having certain well-defined relations to each other, and, together with the aristocracy, forming the nation, and deeply impressed with the subordination in which individuals should always stand to national life. This is a case which is not very difficult to make out, even with so few references to authorities as Mr. Maurice has thought necessary; but we cannot call the book, as a piece of political argument, by any means a success. The habit, which clergymen are apt to acquire in the pulpit, of treating subjects *à priori*, and which so often converts their secular lectures into didactic twaddle, has prevented our author from presenting any views that can fairly be called clear enough even for the purposes of popular instruction, and we accordingly rise up from the perusal of the book with the feeling that we have been making a long journey through very fine scenery in a very thick fog.

Mr. Maurice, like most English Liberals, even of the advanced school to which he belongs, is deeply sensible of the injustice as well as the absurdity of the electoral system which leaves five-sixths of the population unrepresented, except under that amusing Tory fiction which makes the few hundred thousand electors the "trustees" of the non-electors. But, like them, also, he recoils from universal suffrage with undisguised horror, as involving "a government of mere numbers," and as likely to produce great oppression of the minority at the hands of the majority. He is, therefore, anxious to discover some means or other of asserting the working-man's right to representation without recognizing his individual right to share in the government, or, to speak more correctly, in the appointment of the government. This he thinks he has lighted upon, in the theory which the book before us is written to elucidate—that individuals as such have no place and never have had any place in English polity; that voters have always been, and ought always to be, members of an organization, or persons clothed with a legal character, and he rather suggests than asserts that any departure from this custom would destroy the national continuity. The only way in which he even hints that he believes it would be well to admit the mass of the population to the enjoyment of the franchise is through the medium of co-operative societies or volunteer rifle corps. To vote as members or representatives of such organizations would, he thinks, keep the voter constantly in mind of his social obligations—his dependence upon and responsibility to others. The value of the franchise as a means of education Mr. Maurice does not even allude to.

When he comes to talk of the rule of the majority, Mr. Maurice seems to lose his self-possession, and talks very wildly. He denounces people who "boast of conforming to the will of a majority." "So help me God," he exclaims, "I do not mean to follow the will of the majority. I hope never to follow it; always to set it at naught." If this be not rant, it is something very like it, and it is due to the misconception so common amongst European liberals of the precise nature of the functions which American democrats at least assign to the majority. Mr. Maurice evidently imagines that the respect we claim for the will of the majority is based on the idea that the majority is always right—the modern rendering of the phrase, "Vox populi, vox Dei." But he is greatly mistaken. What we maintain is, that there must be somebody in every state authorized to decide every question in the last resort, and that as a mere matter of convenience the majority is the proper depositary of this authority, because in a free country it only possesses the means of enforcing its decisions. It may often decide wrongly, but not oftener than the minority; and we rely on the influence of free discussion and the general interest in the public welfare to prevent its continuing wrong, or, in other words, to reduce it to a minority if it be wrong. If Mr. Maurice means that he would always dissent from a majority because it is a majority, he also means that he would always vote with a minority because it was a minority. But to vote with either for any other reason than that he approves of the objects it has in view, and of its means of seeking them, would be an immoral act. There is no occult virtue in minorities any more than in majorities. By their fruits ye shall know them. Worship of the one without reference to its principles is just as base as worship of the other. What Mr. Maurice and all minority-worshippers lack is faith in the power of free speech and

* "The Workman and the Franchise. Chapters from English History on the Representation and Education of the People. By Frederic Denison Maurice, M.A." Alexander Strahan, London and New York. 1866.

in the influence of political equality and education on national character. Of course, all great ideas and all reforms are at first started by the few. By writing and speaking they eventually, if their discovery have any value, bring over the many to their way of thinking; but would Mr. Maurice here desert them? The minute he saw the goal in sight, and thought about to be converted into action, would he take to his heels?

We need hardly say that, for much of the monomania about "majorities" and the "demos" with which English Liberals are afflicted, classical education is responsible. When anything very puzzling presents itself in American politics, for instance, Mr. Maurice and his school, as well as the old Tories, run to their Thucydides or Aristotle for an explanation. In nine cases out of ten, as might be expected, the result they reach is wrong, because almost every element in the calculation is different from those furnished by ancient society. Until English university men can form a more correct estimate of the value of Greek and Roman history for political guidance in our day, their political speculations will continue to wear that unreal air which hangs so densely round the Pope's allocutions, and will continue to lead them into those prodigious mistakes as to the motive and tendencies of modern democratic society which made so much even of the comments of our friends upon American affairs during the war little better than expressions of kindly feeling.

SANS MERCI.*

EVERY now and then we find a man, and a clever man, too, who is a few centuries behind his age. The creature is rare with us Americans, because we live and move so fast that the most determined retrograde, let him do his best, can hardly get more than thirty or forty years in arrear. Over the water the type is more common, and Mr. G. N. Lawrence is a striking specimen of it. He ought to have been born in the time of the Stuarts and Louis XIV. His ideal is the feudal aristocrat, preternaturally strong and active, brave to rashness, greatly addicted to field sports, not over intelligent, and certainly *under* moral, entirely wrapt up in his caste, and regarding all outside it with indifference or contempt. Since the romances of chivalry there never were such bullies as the "Guy Livingstone" braves. They are always kicking and threshing men of the lower classes, snubbing men of the middle classes, yea, slaying and threatening one another. They can hardly address their lady friends in decorous language. The women of this society are as handsome, as physically courageous, and as unprincipled as the men. How such persons would actually fare in this nineteenth century Mr. Lawrence ought to know, since he tried to act out his ideal by campaigning in Dixie, and only succeeded in making himself the laughing-stock of his own countrymen, and so utterly contemptible here that no one noticed him or his book. At the same time we must not be understood to condemn "Guy Livingstone's" heroes and heroines utterly. They are not so bad as they might be, not nearly so bad as some people's heroes and heroines are. His women, though not exactly up to the standard of Christian maids and matrons, are infinitely preferable to the extraordinary females with whom Winwood Reade seems to have associated in English small towns; and we would rather take Guy himself for our model a thousand times over than one of "Fanny" Feydean's protagonists.

After all, Mr. Lawrence's great defect is more literary than moral. His fatal infirmity is being utterly inartistic. Though powerful in single scenes, he cannot construct a story. And the two ways in which his want of art chiefly develops itself are undue prominence of episodes and encroachment of the subordinate personages upon the principal. Thus, towards the end of his first novel, the fortunes of Forrester and Bruce quite overcome those of Livingstone in interest; while the best chapter in the book (the night attack on Mohun's house) is purely episodical, and leads to nothing. So, too, in the present work, all the Maskelegne and Standen business is foreign to the main story, with which it has hardly the faintest pretence of connection, and all its effect is to divert the reader's attention from Flemyng. The "or" is a completely disjunctive conjunction between "La Belle Dame sans Merci" and the "Kestrels."

And these, though the principal, are not the only ways in which Mr. Lawrence's inability to *motiver* (as the French call it) a story develops itself. "Sans Merci" professes to illustrate the propositions that gambling will ruin a man, and that a beautiful coquette may drive him to destruction. To set forth these not very novel truths in the most telling manner, the victim should have some ability or amiability or virtue, or all three; and, to connect the two morals, he might be driven to play by the demoralization consequent on his love disappointment. Instead of which Flemyng is neither clever, popular, nor good; nay, he is guilty of the one unpardonable sin in Mr. Lawrence's eyes—hesitating to ride a strange horse at a fence—and he was a confirmed gambler before he saw Florence Dorillon.

There are also some things in the present volume which look ominously as if Mr. Lawrence was writing himself out. The early chapters contain a great deal of "padding," and two or three of them are occupied by a fox-hunt. We really wish the hounds could have a little rest—on paper. They are getting to be a greater nuisance even than the eternal ball and duel *ficelle* in French plays. The English reading public ought to make up a handsome subscription for a portion of the English writing public on condition that during the next two years there should be no "stunning runs" transferred to print except in the columns of *Bell's Life*.

* "Sans Merci; or, Kestrels and Falcons. By the author of 'Guy Livingstone.'"

ARCHITECTURAL REFORM.*

SECOND NOTICE.

UNLIKE England, France is essentially artistic. The imagination of her people has ever been bold, enterprising, and indomitable, even under the organized restraints of a National Academy. The last of the chivalry of France became *dilettante* in the Italian wars of Louis XII. and Francis I. With other *spolia opima* of their conquests they brought back the art and artists of Italy. They planted the Renaissance on French soil. But with all their imported artists, with all their Primaticcios, their Berninis, their Da Vincis, they never built an Italian palace in France. The artistic instinct was too strong to yield to foreign dictation in matters of art. The new forms and ideas were received from Italy, but there was at once mingled with them a national sentiment. The chateaux of Blois, Chambord, Amboise, Chenonceau, Madrid, Fontainebleau, arose not in imitation of the palaces of the Farnesi or the Medici, but as new expressions of French art in harmony with the new taste which had arisen for classic learning. The formulæ of classic architecture, the exact proportions of the orders, as laid down by the Italian masters of the fifteenth century after Vitruvius, which were received submissively, and used with scrupulous bigotry, by all such unimaginative nations as the English, never had much authority in France until Louis XIV. established the School of Fine Arts, for the purpose of doing for art what the French Academy was intended to do for literature, viz., to organize, chasten, and keep it respectable. The Academy kept the language pure by concerning itself with verbal niceties of expression, by chasing panting syllables back to Noah, by eliminating from the dictionary all words without a pedigree, lopping off all those concretions of time which made language picturesque but rude. It did a good work; but its business was less with the matter than the manner of composition.

Such was the case, also, with the professors of the School of Fine Arts. Their tendency was to create standards of authority in art, to become a learned and exclusive areopagus, to foster and establish such formulæ of expression in design as they could find concrete in the ruins of Rome, to pride themselves upon the exactness of their knowledge, and to keep architecture pure from contact with the vulgar. Indeed, their aim was to talk unsullied Latin in the midst of modern France. So far as this went they did far better than the English. They built the Hôtel des Invalides and the Madeleine and the Louvre, while the English uttered their best architecture in St. Paul's and Somerset House. This advantage the French obtained less from the fact that their architectural learning had become organized under royal patronage than from their natural freedom and grace of imagination, which, though under the most oppressive of all restraints, could not but assert itself. The results of the French Renaissance are beautiful. All recognize this; but many have lately arisen in France who question whether this beauty, which they find recommends itself only to the cultivated, and is understood only by the initiated, should not be an inspiring presence in the midst of the nation; whether this lovely Franco-Latin, if made pure French, so as to be understood by all, might not touch more hearts, and thereby accomplish the higher purposes of art. This question has been urged by certain men who have been rejected by the Academy because they believed that the indigenous mediæval art of France should be revived, and that into this channel exclusively all architectural thought and effort should be turned. The warfare of words between these two parties has been all the more bitter because the School of Fine Arts has become grey in a traditionary creed, and can point to a long historical record full of triumphs, while the new mediæval school is regarded as schismatic in the highest degree. But heresy begets heresy. Other schools have lately arisen, such as the Greek school and the Romantique; they have most of them beat themselves to death against the solid fabric of the national school. But this school has not been

* "Entretiens sur l'Architecture, par M. Viollet-le-Duc, Architecte du Gouvernement et Inspecteur Général des Edifices Diocésains." Paris: A. Morel & Cie. 1863.

insensible to these various shocks. It has gradually enlarged the borders of its phylactery, and become more catholic; but in the year 1863 it received from the hands of one man a blow far more effective than any yet administered. It was a veritable *coup d'état*. On the 13th of November, in the year above named, an Imperial decree, inspired by M. Viollet-le-Duc, Government Architect and Inspector of Diocesan Buildings, was issued, making fundamental changes in the School of Fine Arts, turning out all the professors, and establishing a system by which the professors instead of being a self-electing body were to be appointed by an officer of the Imperial household, thus virtually breaking up that exclusiveness which was the peculiar characteristic of the academical faculty. The *coup* was autocratic and ill-judged. M. Viollet-le-Duc was made professor, but soon found it expedient to resign, the active and incessant opposition of the old school rendering his position uncomfortable and practically useless; and finally, for various reasons, the school relapsed silently into nearly the former condition of things. The seed of judicious reform has, however, been planted in good ground, and will bear fruit.

M. Viollet-le-Duc has long been known as a profound scholar in mediæval architecture and a man of indomitable activity and enterprise. He is an architect of extensive practice and influence and a profuse author of archæological works, chief among which is his "Dictionnaire Raisonné de l'Architecture Française du XIe au XVIe Siècle," now in process of publication. But in his "Entretiens sur l'Architecture" he has, in our opinion, asserted his claim to a far higher position than any other work of his can give him—that of the leading architectural reformer of France.

It is difficult for any work touching the higher occupations of human thought to be other than controversial in a city like Paris, which is an intellectual arena thronged with combatants and partizans, each ready to assert his creed against any opposition. These "Entretiens" have been thrown out, like a weapon, in the midst of a ceaseless warfare of books, pamphlets, and articles concerning art. They were intended to strike mortal blows against old abuses and against prejudices which have become venerable. The tone of the work is, therefore, necessarily polemic and, to a certain extent, local. Without the singular literary ability of the "Stones of Venice" or the "Seven Lamps," it is a deliberate declaration of opinion, uttered by a practical architect, thoroughly versed in all the technical points of his profession and conscious that he is speaking in the midst of an audience severely critical. Though he writes with the same aim and intentions as Ruskin, he is far more valuable to art, because less visionary, less poetic, and less dogmatic. He has a palpable, concentrated enemy before him, inspiring him to directness and animation of thought. He has no cause, like Nero, vaguely to wish that the Roman people had but one head, that he might strike it off; for all the elements of opposition are incarnate in the School of Fine Arts. Yet he is no radical; his work is in no sense that of an intemperate fanatic. It may be described in general terms as an appeal to reason against prejudice. In this is its strength, and in this is its immeasurable value to the cause of art throughout the world. We are glad to know that it has been translated into English by an architect of this country with a view to its publication here at an early day. We shall hail it as a promise of better things.

Though it has been generally understood in France that M. Viollet-le-Duc is a warm partizan of the revival of mediæval architecture, this work exhibits him as a philosophical investigator of the whole field of architectural precedent, building up his conclusions from a broader basis of study than any of his predecessors. He earnestly denies that his views are confined within the narrow limits of a specialty. On the contrary, he undertakes to develop the great principles of architecture by a thorough, searching, and appreciative investigation of all the great eras of art, by a comparative analysis of Greek, Roman, Byzantine, Mediæval, and Renaissance architectures. He contends that merely to describe and illustrate in turn these various styles, without indicating the process of their growth and their relations with the genius of nations, without seeking in the history, institutions, and manners of every country the primary causes of its peculiarities of form in art, is to make a sterile compilation of numerous antiquarian works which are available to any one who searches the public libraries. "Should I confine myself," says he, on the other hand, "to treating of one style to the prejudice of all others, I should regard myself as doing that which is dangerous to the true interests of education in architecture, and I shall never cease to condemn all who profess to teach with any such narrow aim."

M. Viollet-le-Duc professes to enter upon a task so new and so difficult with great diffidence, but he proceeds to say in his preface:

"One thing alone sustains and encourages me—my respect for truth, my love for an art which, in all its forms and styles, has never in my life ceased to be an object of careful and, I think, unprejudiced study. I should be content if my efforts had no other result than the inculcation of this principle: to judge the architecture of the past not by prejudice but by reason, to neglect no lesson which it can give, and to combine the results with method and discrimination. I feel that the new generations of architects are eager for knowledge, that they have no taste for the sterile disputes of rival schools, and that they are filled with the practical spirit of our age, which demands liberal and unprejudiced education. My aim in writing on architecture is to investigate the reason, the cause, for every form of the art, for no historical form or style is merely capricious; I propose to indicate the origin of the different principles of the art and their logical consequences; to analyze such styles as are the most logical results of these principles, and to explain their process of development; I propose more especially to explain how all these ancient arts can and should be applied to modern use; for the everlasting principles of truth underlie them all. Man, though his manners and customs may undergo modifications in the course of history, remains in spirit the same, with the same reason, instincts, desires, passions; he has employed various languages, various forms, but these have been inspired by the same humanity, have served to express the same ideas, and satisfy the same necessities of life. No expression of this many-sided life should be despised. I declare distinctly if any of my readers are disposed to believe that I profess doctrines profitable or agreeable to one school rather than another, he will find himself in error, as these discourses will prove. I have taken up my pen with no intention of propagating systems or refuting theories to gratify passion or party. I have another aim: to know the truth, to develop the immutable principles of our art, applied, as they have been, variously by various civilizations. I shall express no preference for one style or form of architecture rather than another; neither shall I say, You have heard—now choose; but I shall endeavor to give to the architectural studies of my readers definite direction and method. In no other way can such studies be made profitable in practice or criticism. The professor who indicates to his pupils all the paths of knowledge alike, without pointing out the best and showing why it is the best, is a bad professor; he creates in the minds of his pupils obscurity and confusion instead of order and distinctness. But this path should be no narrow, beaten track of habit or prejudice; it should be wide, large, and free to all, so that each one can follow it according to his inspirations, his natural leanings, his peculiar genius. This path is the only true and profitable one, the only one which does not lead astray, the only one by which human reason has reached its highest and best results. This is the path which, though in many very different ways, has been followed by all the artists of the most glorious epochs of antiquity and modern times."

No architectural writer has professed a creed more liberal and rational than this, or developed from it a theory of architecture more in harmony with the progress of civilization. We are sorely in need of such a philosophical analysis of the art and a judicious elimination of all those accidental and merely capricious features of it which are conventionally accepted as models of design. M. Viollet-le-Duc has entered upon his task with the highest inspirations. He betrays, of course, certain very human traits of prejudice; but, it must be admitted, nowhere else on the whole has the subject been treated so philosophically and so fairly, or with a basis of knowledge so thorough and so comprehensive. Thus, his critical analysis of the architecture of Greece and of Rome exhibits the forms of Greek and Roman art not merely as certain æsthetic results, to be studied for their own sake, but as expressions of the two civilizations respectively, as deliberate but unconscious records of history. It enables us to contemplate that history not as a mere story of the movements of parties and rulers, not as we behold it from the familiar stand-points of literature, but as an exhibition of the *genius of the nations*, to which the facts of traditionary or written history are in every sense subordinate. M. Viollet-le-Duc's "Entretiens," in this respect, are a signal and singular contribution to the sum of human knowledge. In these and in all the other eras of architectural history on which he touches, he concerns himself with the process of the development of styles and with the sources, the main springs, of this process in the character of peoples. This is the philosophy of the history of architecture, which is valuable not only for what it adds to our knowledge of general history, but, more especially, for the information it affords regarding our own relations with the architecture which we are creating around us.

We earnestly recommend this remarkable work to all who would seek for a satisfactory reply to the popular and frequent demand for *a new style*, an architecture of the nineteenth century.

Stonewall Jackson. A Military Biography, with a Portrait and Maps. By John Esten Cooke, formerly of Gen. Stuart's staff. (D. Appleton & Co., New York.)—We profess to be unprejudiced by the purely rebel stand-point from which this work was composed, when we attach very little value to it in any particular which would make a real military biography welcome from either side of the late controversy. As regards the hero himself, the author seems qualified to tell us little except a few anecdotes at second-hand, which he subjects to constant repetition. In this way we learn pretty accurately how Jackson looked and dressed; but the analysis given of his character and of his genius for battle is not more intimate than may be fairly deduced from his well-known exploits; and it may be added that this record of his campaigns carries no more authority than would that of an aid-de-camp of

Gen. Stoneman who should compile existing accounts of the same occurrences. Mr. Cooke often admits that he cannot state positively the number of Confederates in a certain engagement, but this is the information which, as not being ours, we most covet; and we must remain incredulous, not because to accept his figures would be humiliating to our pride, but because he does not inspire us with faith in his surmises. For an eye-witness of many battles, he is singularly prone to give reins to his imagination in describing a field of carnage, and we are expected to believe that at Manassas there was a bayonet charge and encounter—a story that may be told to the Zouaves! As a military critic he disarms consideration in advance by asserting that McClellan will probably rank as the ablest Federal commander of the war! On p. 60 he ascribes the confidence with which the Union troops met the enemy at Bull Run on the memorable 21st of July, 1861, to the fact that the President had called for 400,000 men and a loan of $400,000,000, and "Congress had voted these great supplies with acclamation." On p. 79 he rightly refers to this action as a *consequence* of the Bull Run disaster. The supplies were voted on the 22d of July, and the issue of the war became thereby distinctly foreshadowed.

It could not be said of Jackson, as the author says, *mutatis mutandis*, of McClellan, that his sentiments toward the North "were those of a soldier for an open and *powerful* opponent." He never overrated his adversary. He erred rather on the other side, and on the theory of *toujours l'audace!* cherished all through his career an eager desire to invade the North. Mr. Cooke would have done us a service if he could have told us how much this desire, joined to his prestige with the authorities at Richmond, was the cause of the policy which General Lee is commonly thought to have deprecated, and which received a crushing condemnation at Gettysburg. Jackson's piety is not shown to have been the secret of the devotion of his troops to him. That it was sincere we will not question; that it was prominent is possible; that it was enlightened, we can by no means allow. All the scraps of his reports and conversations, from which it is striven to make out a highly religious nature for him, neither elevate him nor his cause in our eyes. From having, as a West Pointer, bound himself to defend the country which educated him, he descended to take the Confederate oath of allegiance—an act which General Lee remembers to forget in his own case. What are piety and abstinence against such an infidelity? The weakness of the argument was well betrayed in a prayer we once heard from a colored chaplain of a colored regiment. He was, in a sermonizing way, enforcing the power of prayer upon his dusky auditors, and, having instanced Washington, was unfortunate enough to cite the success of Stonewall Jackson as an illustration. But perceiving that he was in danger of impeaching the discrimination of the Almighty, he suddenly pointed his moral thus: "What I want you to understand is, that it makes no difference *where* your praying is done—*whether by a wooden fence or a stone wall!*"

Mr. Cooke's book is handsomely printed, has two or three useful maps, and an excellent portrait.

The Song-Book. Words and Tunes from the Best Poets and Musicians. Selected and arranged by John Hullah, Professor of Vocal Music in King's College, London. (J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia; MacMillan & Co., London.)—We welcome this little book with both hands. Lovers of pure old melodies have long been desiring just such a collection from the treasuries of English, Scotch, Irish, and Welsh songs. For the Irish and Scotch music we have not been so badly off; but good English airs of the "olden time" are, strange to say, not easy to get. Especially do we delight in the Welsh series of "The Song-Book," not only because they are quite novel, but on account of their intrinsic beauty. Their individuality is strongly marked. Not at all like the Scotch melodies, and yet reminding one equally with them of harpers, mountains, and heather; of battles, of rugged loyalty, of romance. We challenge any one to listen to "I Hear the Trumpet Sounding," and not be stirred by its wild minor ring; or to the serenade, "All Through the Night," and not be touched.

As for the American assortment we can only laugh over it. Can it be that this woful presentment of our specimen "national songs" is a gauge by which we may measure England's knowledge of us in other respects? After the compliment in his preface, too! in which Mr. Hullah says that he has broken his rule excluding contemporary songs in our case, because somehow our national melodies acquire early the flavor which age alone imparts in the Old World, where many of them have taken as strong hold as they have here. After that, we say, to behold under "Part V., American Songs," these: "I 'm off to Charles*town*," "Wait for the Wagon," "Cheer Up, Sam," and "Old Dog Tray!" We confess to the "Wagon" and to the "Old Dog"—we have heard both, several times; but for the other two we will not declare that they never were made here, only that we have not been among the happy number to hear them. However, let us hope that this exhibition of ignorance will inspire some one of our countrymen to emulate the example of Mr. Hullah in respect to Great Britain, by forming as good a collection of American popular airs as he has done of British. We have the amplest material and the broadest variety; from the capital little songs that have their day in the street, to the beautiful and entirely unique negro melodies that are now reaching us from every part of the South.

We cannot help regretting, spite of Mr. Hullah's exp'anation, that these songs are given to the public without accompaniments. We would have resigned two-thirds of them in order to have the remainder rendered ready for our pianos as well as our voices. For, notwithstanding the very just reasoning, that the original character of the music is often lost through the addition of an unsympathetic accompaniment, yet it is also certain that people will not sing now-a-days without the piano, and if Mr. Hullah, who has studied these airs, cannot trust himself to accompany them, who will have the temerity to do so? Besides, many persons who sing ballads with taste, have not the power to compose any kind of harmonizing and proper chords, and therefore—we speak from experience, not hypothesis—reject such books as Mr. Hullah's, as being entirely useless to them. Still, apart from this, and in view of its many excellences, we recommend this last issue from the "Golden Treasury" to all ballad-lovers, reminding them that Mr. Hullah, its editor, is the composer of several pleasant songs we all know, one of the best of which is "The Three Fishers," to the words of Charles Kingsley.

Letters of Life. By Mrs. L. H. Sigourney. (D. Appleton & Co., New York).—We never lay down a volume of memoirs, no matter of how meagre a life, without being confirmed in our conviction that there are few kinds of reading more truly edifying in a number of ways than that of biographies and autobiographies. They are history in its pleasantest and most retainable form. They are novels with no possible blemish of inconsistency, because every event in them really did happen. They are the most perfect of all character-studies; you may learn more of human nature from one of them than from a dozen essays especially devoted to the subject. Often records of greatness in one form or another, it does one good to be drawn into sympathy with lofty purposes, noble struggles, and high achievements. Their silent examples we are all the more prone to follow because they are not thrust at us; precepts which we have perfect liberty to reject, there being no witnesses to our folly, are apt to hang about us and twitch at our consciences till we are willing to turn and recognize them.

Mrs. Sigourney's book is far from being a great one. The reader will pardon much to the septuagenarian, and receive with a reverential rather than a critical spirit the tale of so long, so spotless, and so industrious a life. Let what we shall say, therefore, be considered in the light of a preface, of which the book has none.

These memoirs have little value as contemporaneous history, or as a description of old-time life and manners. In her pompous, old-fashioned prose—the approved style of fifty years since—Mrs. Sigourney paints us a picture of the "spot where she was born," which is about as much like a real place as if she had worked it in floss on a sampler. So with the account of her childhood and girlhood, which she gives in Johnsonian periods. Take one sentence, relative to the simplicity of her diet: "The stomach, that keystone of this mysterious frame, not being unduly stimulated, no morbid tastes were formed, and no undue mixture of saccharine or oleaginous matter caused effervescence and disease." Nor must the book be sought for its analysis of character. A woman with household cares, who managed to write and publish fifty-seven separate works, together with countless stray magazine articles, who wrote two thousand letters per annum, kept a daily journal, and still found time for as many outside occupations as would fill the life of a common woman, had hardly the leisure to be watching her own or anybody else's "inner processes." She was not one to question or doubt; she took life as she found it, accepted each event as it came, and spoke what her eyes saw and her most simple heart felt. And it is in this special trait of straightforward faith that Mrs. Sigourney's "Letters of Life" have their charm. Women's writing has advanced leagues since her prime, yet young girls in the rush and whirl of our modern excitements would do well to ponder a career so serene and so useful. Those in advanced life who prize Mrs. Child's "Looking Toward Sunset," will prize this volume also, a picture of peaceful old age and a happy death.

The Origin of the Late War. Traced from the beginning of the Constitution to the revolt of the Southern States. By George Lunt. (D. Appleton & Co., New York.)—Mr. Lunt belongs by political affiliation to that minority of our fellow-citizens known as Copperheads, and to that branch of the conservative party which has been rightly labelled Fossils. His place in a cabinet of natural curiosities would be on the same shelf with Mr. Buchanan and Mr. George Ticknor Curtis. Dead to the age in which he lives, he persists in muttering the jargon of the time in which he flourished—speaks as if to an audience destitute of memory and blind to the revolution which swallowed him up. He tells you slavery was the cause of the war "just as property is the cause of robbery." It is the reverse of Proudhon's maxim: *le vol, c'est la propriété*. He talks of the war dragging heavily after McClellan was displaced; he would almost take his oath it never came to an end. He says of Mr. Lincoln: "His character appears to have been defiled by no vices; but much more than this was requisite in his position." Something more, also, is requisite in a would-be historian, who believes (p. 14) that his work "will not be found liable to the charge of inaccuracy," and accuses Mr. Garrison (p. 74) of being "by birth a native of the British American provinces," when everybody knows who cares to that he was born in Newburyport, Massachusetts. Mr. Lunt's inaccuracies are accompanied by repetitions of stale slanders, credulous or wilful misrepresentations, and that utter indifference to moral considerations which marked the era of Democratic statesmanship and Democratic rule. We have not for a long time read a book with so much impatience and, the term is hardly too strong, disgust. The only remarkable thing about it is that it is published in New York rather than in Boston; but no one who is aware of the esteem in which the latter city holds the memory of the *Courier*, will wonder that its late editor has sought a more congenial community.

The Parables, Read in the Light of the Present Day. By Thomas Guthrie, D.D. (Alexander Strahan, London and New York.)—Dr. Guthrie rightly considers the parable the most effective feature in the teaching of Jesus. It is, perhaps, a legitimate enquiry how far its peculiar qualities of brevity and directness have been neutralized in our modern pulpits by making it a text instead of a complete sermon, as it was to those who first heard it, were touched, and straightway believed. In general the parables of the New Testament are clear to the commonest understanding, yet possibly false methods of interpretation may arise, like those exposed by the reverend author. His rules on this point are the obvious ones. We think, however, that, in illustrating them, he opened a wider door to the Universalists than he meant to, when he says we are not to infer, "since the number of the wise and foolish virgins was equal, that the lost are as numerous as the saved.', This he holds to be a very dreadful, as it certainly is a very uncalled-for, con

clusion. "If, at the close of the war, Satan retains half his kingdom, his head is not crushed, nor, if he carries off half his forces from the battle-field, is he defeated, as I would hope he shall be." But, in an argument drawn from the power of the Creator, Omnipotence might fairly enough be expected to leave Satan without a single captive as a trophy; and the Universalist may pretend that for one soul to be irredeemably lost "under the reign of a benign and merciful God, notwithstanding the blood poured out on Calvary," is as incredible as that half the human race should be doomed to perdition.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

A History of New England, etc. Being an Abridgment of his "History of New England during the Stuart Dynasty." By John Gorham Palfrey. 2 vols. Hurd & Houghton, New York.

Indian Corn: Its Value, Culture, and Uses. By Edward Enfield. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

Woman against Woman. By Florence Marryatt. Loring, Boston.

The Daily Public School in the United States. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

Notes on Polytechnic or Scientific Schools in the United States. Their Nature, Position, Aim, and Wants. By S. Edward Warren, C.E. John Wiley & Son, New York.

Campaigns of a Non-Combatant, and his Romaunt abroad during the War. By George Alfred Townsend. Blelock & Co., New York.

A Letter to the Rev. E. B. Pusey, D.D., on his Recent Eirenicon. By John Henry Newman, D.D. Lawrence Kehoe, New York.

The Works of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. Revised Edition. Vol. V. Little Brown & Co., Boston.

Poetry, Lyrical, Narrative, and Satirical, of the Late Civil War. Selected and Edited by Richard Grant White. American News Company, New York.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

Color-blindness.—Dr. Rose, of Berlin, has made some recent additions to our knowledge of the subject of color-blindness or color-disease, a very common defect in the human eye which has not been sufficiently studied. Of persons whose appreciation of colors is not natural and healthy there are two classes—the color-blind and the color-mistaken. The retina of a person who is color-blind has actually lost sensibility for light of certain colors, so that where a healthy eye sees violet, for example, the diseased eye sees only blackness or darkness. On the other hand, a person who is color-mistaken is unable to distinguish between two opposite complementary colors of unequal intensity, or he supposes two unequal intensities of one tone of color to be opposite colors. Color-blindness may be temporarily induced in a healthy person by the administration of certain drugs, such as atropine and santonine (an extract of a species of wormwood), and Dr. Rose's results are based in part upon thirty-five such cases of artificial color-disease, his own included. When color-blindness begins it is always light of the greatest or of the least refrangibility that first becomes imperceptible, and as the disease increases the patient successively loses the most or least refrangible rays which had just before been visible to him. Hence color-blindness is always characterized by a shortening of the spectrum furnished by the sun on the gas flame, never by gaps or interruptions in it. A complete and well-defined spectrum thus forms the best test or measure of the degree of color-blindness. On one occasion in Dr. Rose's own case, the red end of the spectrum became entirely invisible when he had taken ten grains of santonine, but in other similar experiments the violet part of the spectrum lost its color, and presented only a dull whitish appearance. During the intoxication produced by santonine, the vision is generally yellow, all mixed colors presenting a greenish-yellow appearance. For the eye affected the spectrum is shortened either at one end or the other, either red or violet becomes invisible, and the eye is, therefore, not sensitive to the red or violet element in mixed colors. Liver diseases produce color-blindness of very various degrees. Dr. Rose observed it in persons suffering from jaundice, from enlargement of the liver, and from cancer of the liver, and he suggests that the gravity of an attack of jaundice may perhaps be foretold by the degree of color-disease which it causes. The spectra of certain metals, as produced in the spectrum apparatus of Bunsen and Kirchhoff, afford excellent means of determining the extent and precise character of partial color-blindness. The metal potassium, for example, gives a bright red line which invariably occupies one and the same place in the spectrum. If a person cannot see this line, it is certain that for him the natural spectrum is shortened at least as far as that line, and he is blind to all the red which lies without it. Lithium gives also a red line, but in a different place in the spectrum from the potassium line. Invisibility of the lithium line proves a still greater shortening of the spectrum. Another metal, strontium, produces several orange lines and five red ones in the spectrum, and consequently offers several well-defined limits at which color-blindness may be proved to begin. Color-blindness may occur with regard to both ends of the spectrum, and may go to such an extent as to reduce it to less than half its natural length. Color-blind persons not only suffer the great deprivation which results from seeing everything of one color, but their vision is in general weak and their eyes are peculiarly liable to be dazzled by sudden lights. A chronic spasm of the eyelid is a frequent accompaniment of color-blindness. What is meant by color mistake may be illustrated by the "violet vision" which occurs in the advanced santonine intoxication. To the eye in this condition dark objects appear violet, when to the normal eye they have no tinge of this color. A person in this condition may at the same time be violet-blind; that is, unable to see the violet portion of the spectrum. Yellow vision is often combined with violet vision at the same time in the same person, when the following experiment becomes possible: one who cannot see the violet end of the spectrum at all, will think a yellow flame, seen through a yellow glass, to be yellow; seen through three or four such glasses to be violet; that is, a person so affected thinks two unequal intensities of the same color to be opposite colors.

All persons with whom the difficulty about colors is congenital are color-mistaken, and it is probable, but not certain, that all such persons are to some extent color-blind. As a rule, color-mistaken persons see objects red, the violet vision, under the stimulus of santonine, being a marked exception. When we remember that color-mistaken persons may be at the same time color-blind—indeed, blind to red and to violet, and both to different degrees—it is easy to understand that no such person sees color exactly like another, and that very different perceptions of color must be produced in different persons by the same excitation. Among fifty-nine color-diseased persons Dr. Rose found no two who exhibited exactly the same sense of color.

Teachers of blowpipe analysis, assaying, and spectrum analysis, are familiar with the fact that color-disease prevails to an extent not generally credited. Students of these chemical processes often fail utterly, solely from the inability to appreciate the various tints and changes of color which are relied upon for the identification of substances, or for guidance in the execution of the delicate processes of analysis and separation.

Filtration by Capillary Attraction.—A Frenchman named Vigié proposes to apply the power which occasions the ascent of liquids in small tubes for the purpose of filtering water upon a grand scale. In accordance with the laws of capillary attraction, water, when in contact with any porous substance, is lifted by the latter to a certain height. Now if, after having attained this elevation, the water encounters the bend of a syphon, it will pass through this channel and flow down upon the other side in a regular and steady stream.

The water thus lifted by the capillary force is perfectly clear, and is as completely free from suspended matters as if it had been passed through an ordinary filter. The syphon arrangement employed by M. Vigié in his experiments was constructed of rods of very porous earthenware. It is claimed for the apparatus that it does not become clogged, and that it will continue to work without cessation even when it is immersed in mud. Another very simple and perfect form of filter, depending upon the same physical principles, is made by placing within a tank containing impure water a small vessel in such a position that a sponge, which it contains, shall lap over its edge and dip into the water of the tank. The sponge gradually sucks up water from the tank and then allows it to drop into the small vessel or receiver, where it will be found in a perfectly clear state. The clear water may be continuously drawn off from the receiver by a suitable tube. By placing a few pieces of charcoal in the bottom of the receiver the last traces of odorous or sapid impurity can be removed from the water.

Formic Acid from Oxalic Acid.—There are a multitude of chemical products possessing valuable properties which, though well known in the scientific laboratory, have never come into common use in the arts on account of the difficulty and expense of their production. It is a matter of general interest, therefore, when, as now in the case of formic acid, an improved method of manufacturing one of these agents is discovered. The new process of Mr. Lorin, by which formic acid is obtained in any quantity and in a highly concentrated condition, is based upon the fact that, on adding solid oxalic acid in successive portions to hot glycerine, the oxalic acid will split up into water, carbonic acid gas, and formic acid. On heating a mixture of common oxalic acid and commercial glycerine the reaction commences at the temperature of 167° F., and is vigorous at 194°, the products being carbonic acid and a watery distillate charged with formic acid. On adding now a new portion of oxalic acid, some time after the disengagement of carbonic

acid has ceased, the decomposition will immediately recommence, and a new portion of liquid more highly charged with formic acid than the preceding will distil over. With each successive addition of oxalic acid the proportion of formic acid in the distillate increases, until at length a limit is reached which is precisely that which theory would indicate as the proper result to be obtained with crystallized oxalic acid. The apparatus being now in working order, there can be obtained from 126 parts of oxalic acid 82 parts of an aqueous solution which contains 56 per cent. of real formic acid. This method of obtaining the acid of 56 per cent. is continuous, regular, and exceedingly simple. There is no need of paying any attention to the temperature, since both the beginning and the end of the operation are indicated by the evolution of the carbonic acid. In practice it was found that one and the same portion of glycerine could be used during several months in an apparatus which was worked night and day without intermission. A single portion of glycerine would serve for the production of an infinite amount of formic acid were it but possible to avoid the slight loss which is incidental to the mechanical part of the operation, and were it not for the presence of small quantities of impurity in the oxalic acid, which at length accumulate to such an extent that a fresh charge of glycerine has to be taken.

By employing anhydrous oxalic acid in place of the crystallized article above mentioned, formic acid as strong as 75 per cent. can be obtained, but the evolution of carbonic acid commences, in this case, at a temperature below 122°, and the operation must be very carefully conducted in order to avoid frothing. Finally, by dissolving anhydrous oxalic acid in warm formic acid of 70 per cent. and then cooling this solution, a quantity of the oxalic acid will crystallize out, taking with it almost all the water, and on now pouring off the clear liquor and distilling in order to remove from it the oxalic acid which it still holds dissolved, there will be obtained formic acid of very nearly 100 per cent., which is capable of crystallizing on being sufficiently cooled. In order to prepare the various formic ethers, Lorin adds to the warm glycerine a mixture in equivalent proportions of oxalic acid and of the alcohol which corresponds to the desired ether, the product being finally distilled off some time after the oxalic acid has been completely decomposed.

The first source of formic acid was red ants, whence the name of the liquid. Samuel Fischer first distilled ants, but Marggraf published, in 1761, the first minute description of the acid. The acid obtained from the ants was, of course, very small in amount and very dilute. Marggraf distilled the ants with water till half the liquid had passed over, and then distilled a stronger acid from the liquid obtained by pressing the residue. The progress of organic chemistry now enables us to prepare with great facility oxalic acid from sawdust, and formic acid from oxalic acid, thus producing artificially, in large quantities and in a concentrated condition, two acids which exist ready formed in nature, but only in minute quantities, very difficult to extract and isolate.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, April 7, 1866.

THERE has been no further decline in gold or merchandise since we last wrote. The former continues to fluctuate between 127¼ and 128½; this evening it closed at 127⅝. Merchandise continues extremely dull; general business is still smitten with paralysis. Buyers from the country are going home, having made far lighter purchases than usual. So long as money remains easy, holders of goods do not care to sacrifice them, and merchandise which cannot be sold for something like cost is being generally withheld from market. Exchange continues very weak and difficult to sell. The best bankers' bills are offered at 106¼, and fair commercial bills against cotton at 105 to 105½. At these rates gold is pretty sure to be sent here from London. It is estimated that fully a million bales of cotton, worth in Liverpool £30 a bale, will go forward to Europe during the remaining months of this year. Should the markets for foreign goods remain as dull as they are, the fall importations will be light, and in this case there would seem to be no good reason why exchange should improve. Many have expected that the decline in gold on this side, and the firmness of the United States stocks, would lead to importations of 5-20 bonds from Europe. Thus far no considerable parcels have arrived, and, on the contrary, small orders for European account come to hand every week. Five-twenties have not yet advanced above 72 in the London market, but letters from thence predict a further rise within a brief period.

Money has become a shade more active in consequence of the increased business in stocks and gold. On call the rate is about 6 per cent.; first-class paper sells at 7. No further progress has been made with the loan bill in Congress. It has been reported from the Finance Committee in the shape in which it passed the House, and it seems to be understood that it will pass the Senate in that form. Mr. McCulloch's friends deeply regret the pros-

pect, but console themselves with the reflection that though the Secretary is forbidden to "retire and cancel" more than $18,000,000 of currency before December 1, there is nothing which prevents his accumulating $100,000,000 in the Sub-Treasury, and so practically reducing the currency by that amount. Such a withdrawal of legal tenders would go far towards bringing down gold towards par. So far from helping the manufacturing interests by their hostility to resumption, the paper money party in Congress will soon discover that they have merely postponed for a few months an inevitable trouble, and that these few months will be a period of stagnation in trade and grave embarrassment in industrial circles.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets during the week:

	March 31.	April 7.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	105	104¾	....	¼
5-20 Bonds, old	104¼	104	...	¼
5-20 Bonds of 1865	104¼	104	....	¼
10-40 Bonds	92⅜	91⅛	....	⅜
7.30 Notes, second series	100¾	99⅞	....	⅜
New York Central	90⅝	92¾	2⅛	....
Erie Railway	74⅛	79	4⅛	....
Hudson River	108	110	2	....
Reading Railroad	99¼	101¾	2½	....
Michigan Southern	83⅛	81⅛	....	2
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	76¾	80⅛	3¾	....
Chicago and North-western	26¼	26⅛	⅛	....
" " " Preferred	54⅛	55⅛	1	....
Chicago and Rock Island	111⅛	116	4¼	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	88¾ ex. d.	90¾	2	....
Canton	47	48	1	....
Cumberland	43	43⅛	⅛	....
Mariposa	11⅜	11¾	⅜	....
American Gold	127¾	127⅞	....	⅜
Bankers' Bills on London	107	106¾	....	¾
Call Loans	6	6	....	....

Governments are generally a fraction lower, the advance of last week being lost. At or about par there are naturally a great number of seven-thirties for sale, and the reaction in these stocks affects the others.

The leading feature of the stock market this week has been the culmination of the corner in Michigan Southern. The clique succeeded on Wednesday in buying up all the capital stock, and on that day and on Thursday the bears were unable to make their deliveries. On Wednesday 4 per cent. and on Thursday 15 and even 20 per cent. was paid for the use of stock for a single day. The price of cash stock rose to 107, and at the same time the clique was willing to supply the market at 84 to 85, seller three. On Thursday it sold at 105 cash and 86 regular. How much stock the clique succeeded in selling is only known to themselves. If they sold the bulk of the stock they had previously bought, they have done well, and have made money by the corner. If they have only sold one-quarter or one-third of what they had previously bought, it is yet an open question whether they will make anything by the operation. Meanwhile, there is no question but that the bears have lost heavily. A large number of short contracts were closed on Wednesday by purchasers of stock, seller three. These contracts only matured to-day, and to fulfil them meantime the bears were compelled to buy cash stock, which they had to sell out at a loss of 10 to 20 per cent. Hardly ever has the Street undergone so cruel an experience. Angry discussions on the subject have taken place in both Boards and in the Street, and various opinions have been ventilated. It is clear that a man who undertakes to sell that which he has not got, takes the chances of being able to get it, and cannot complain if some one steps in before him and buys up the property which he has contracted to deliver. At the same time, the feeling in Wall Street against "corners" is general. They are regarded as illegitimate operations, not within the purview of fair trading. No man in Wall Street who has been prominent in a "corner" has ever enjoyed the subsequent confidence of the Street. Men who "corner" stocks are regarded as sharpers, who inflict heavy loss on the Street with a doubtful prospect of gain to themselves. In this Michigan Southern "corner" two of the three prominent managers are said to have been notorious bankrupts, whose paper is in every man's pocket-book, and the third a prominent official of the road, whose speculations have been so flagrant that a bill has been introduced into the Legislature to check them. To be fleeced at all is unpleasant; to be fleeced by such men is an aggravation of the injury. It is not unlikely that the transactions growing out of this "corner" may give rise to lawsuits. In this case the Street may receive some new light on the general subject. Among lawyers the opinion is general that purchases made by a clique with a view to corner a stock are illegal and void. For instance: A and B have bought up all the Michigan Southern in existence. They own it, and have it in their trunk or coming to them from good parties. Under these circumstances, of which the public are ignorant, they go into the market and bid for 5,000 shares more. Speculators ignorant of the facts supply the bid. The courts may possibly hold, under these circumstances, that the purchases were void—the article bought not being in existence, and the buyer knowing the fact while the seller did not. A pleasant feature of this corner has been the punishment of the leading director of the Erie—himself a leading cornerer—especially in his own stock. He was "short" of Michigan Southern, though he strenuously denied it to all comers. In the same hour in which he gave money to found Methodist churches for the purification of the morals of the people, he assured every one that he had not sold one single share of Michigan Southern. Yet, when the "twist" came, it turned out that he owed 2,300 shares to the "cornerers." This stock he refused to deliver. Forgetful of the fierce and relentless manner in which he had insisted on deliveries when he was "cornerer," and not "cornered," he no sooner found himself caught than he went to Judge McCunn and got injunctions out—one to the president of the Stock Exchange against buying in his stock; another to the parties to whom he owed it against trying to get it; and finally a third to his own broker against paying the difference. Luckily for the credit of brokers, nobody paid the least attention to the injunctions. The creditor demanded that the stock be bought in, the vice-president of the Board bought it in, and the broker of the Erie director paid the difference. People generally are greatly rejoiced at this feature of the contest. No man has so frequently cornered the Street and inflicted losses on speculators and brokers as the Erie director. No man in the hour of trouble has been more relentless and unforgiving than he. And though the public generally have but little sympathy with the parties who cornered Michigan Southern, everybody is glad to have "the biter bit" for once. If now a court of justice would declare the leading speculative director of the Michigan Southern responsible to all buyers of that stock for the damage they have suffered by reason of his speculations—as was done in Great Britain in the case of Hudson—the public would feel generally satisfied.

Terrified by the severe punishment administered in the Michigan Southern corner, the bears have been actively engaged ever since in covering their contracts on other stocks. Thus we note a general advance in railway securities of from 2 to 4 per cent. More corners in Erie, in Pittsburgh, in Fort Wayne, and in Reading are predicted. Meanwhile the Street operators are gradually "getting long" of these stocks, and the public is not buying them. On the railways business is too light to warrant much hopes of large dividends this year, and the bulk of the floating stock will naturally come into Wall Street.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.
CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,
BROOKLYN, N. Y.
OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL - - - - - - - - - - - $1,000,000 00
ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - - - - 1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

Insurance Scrip.
WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,
BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

IMPORTANT CHANGE IN THE DIVIDEND PERIODS

OF THE

EQUITABLE

LIFE ASSURANCE SOCIETY

OF THE

UNITED STATES,

92 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

ACCUMULATED FUND.....$2,000,000.

ANNUAL INCOME.....$1,000,000.

PURELY MUTUAL.

ANNUAL CASH DIVIDENDS.

At the request of their numerous policy-holders, this Society have determined to declare their dividends ANNUALLY IN CASH: the first Dividend will be declared February 1, 1867. The last Dividend declared on the quinquennial plan reduced the premiums in some cases more than 50 per cent., or doubled the policy during the next dividend period. It is believed, for the future, that no Company in this country will be able to present greater advantages in its dividends to persons assuring than this Society, as its total expenditure to cash premium received was, by the last New York Insurance Report, less than that of any of the older American Life Insurance Companies.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

The new business of this Society for the past year ($13,623,900) exceeds the new business of any New York Company in any previous year.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

Hereafter Dividends on the first annual premium may be used as Cash in the payment of the Second Annual premium, and so on thereafter the dividend on each premium may be applied to the payment of the next succeeding premium. Policy-holders in most other Companies MUST WAIT FOUR OR FIVE YEARS before any advantage can be derived from Dividends.

The success of this Society has not been equalled by any Company either in this country or Europe, the Society's cash accumulation being over

ONE MILLION OF DOLLARS

greater than the most successful Company at the same period in its history, and its annual cash revenue from premiums, at the end of its sixth year, was greater than that of the largest company in the country at the end of its fifteenth.

Non-Forfeiture of Premiums.

In the case of whole life and endowment policies at ordinary ages in force for at least three years, the Society will, on due surrender, issue a Paid-up Policy for the full amount of premiums paid.

The Company will issue Policies on a single life to the extent of $25,000, but only in cases where the physical condition and family history of the applicant are entirely unexceptionable.

Permission is given at all times to visit Europe free of charge.

Extra Permits granted at moderate rates.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

WILLIAM C. ALEXANDER,	THOMAS U. SMITH,
HENRY B. HYDE,	JOHN A. STEWART,
WILLIAM WALKER,	JAMES M. BEEBE,
HENRY YOUNG,	HENRY J. GARDNER,
ROBT. LENOX KENNEDY,	WILLIAM G. LAMBERT,
JAMES LOW,	HENRY S. TERBELL,
WM. WHITEWRIGHT, JR.,	S. W. TORREY,
HENRY A. HURLBUT,	PETER McMARTIN,
HENRY G. MARQUAND,	GEORGE H. STUART,
L. C. HOPKINS,	WILLIAM T. BLODGETT,
THOMAS A. BIDDLE,	JOHN SLADE,
BENJAMIN E. BATES,	THEODORE CUYLER,
R. D. MAITLAND,	JAMES M. HALSTED,
JOHN T. MOORE,	JOHN AUCHINCLOSS,
STEPHEN H. PHILLIPS,	THOMAS S. YOUNG,
DUDLEY S. GREGORY,	HENRY M. ALEXANDER,
CHARLES J. MARTIN,	GEORGE T. ADEE,
MOSES A. HOPPOCK,	GEORGE D. MORGAN,
WAYMAN CROW,	BEN'GTON F. RANDOLPH,
THOMAS A. CUMMINS,	HENRY H. HYDE,
DWIGHT TOWNSEND,	ROBERT BLISS,
GEO. TALBOT OLYPHANT,	HENRY DAY,
ALANSON TRASK,	H. V. BUTLER,
DANIEL D. LORD,	EDW. W. LAMBERT, M.D.,
E. J. HAWLEY,	SAMUEL HOLMES,
JOSE F. NAVARRO,	FRANCIS B. COOLEY.

WILLIAM C. ALEXANDER, PRESIDENT.

HENRY B. HYDE, VICE-PRESIDENT.

GEORGE W. PHILLIPS, ACTUARY.

HENRY DAY, ATTORNEY. DANIEL LORD, COUNSEL.

E. W. LAMBERT, M.D., MEDICAL EXAMINER.

WILLARD PARKER, M.D., CONSULTING PHYSICIAN.

NEW YORK, February 3, 1866.

1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...		$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.		
For premiums and policy fees:		
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94	
Renewals	1,818,654 82	
War extras and annuities	15,428 64—$2,988,150 40	
Interest:		
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88	
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52	
Premium on gold	94,999 66— 809,082 06	
Rent	55,833 34—$3,853,065 80	
Total		$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:		
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions.	20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40	
Paid Annuities	10,242 55	
Paid Taxes	38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12— 1,540,130 63	
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:		
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25	
Real Estate	782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14—$14,112,349 85	
Add:		
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30— 772,929 03	
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR		$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

BOARD OF TRUSTEES.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON,	HENRY A. SMYTHE,
JOHN V. L. PRUYN,	DAVID HOADLEY,
WILLIAM MOORE,	WILLIAM V. BRADY,
ROBERT H. McCURDY,	WILLIAM E. DODGE,
ISAAC GREEN PEARSON,	GEORGE S. COE,
WILLIAM BETTS,	WILLIAM K. STRONG,
JOHN P. YELVERTON,	ALEX. W. BRADFORD,
SAMUEL M. CORNELL,	WILLIAM M. VERMILYE,
LUCIUS ROBINSON,	JOHN E. DEVELIN,
W. SMITH BROWN,	WILLIAM A. HAINES,
ALFRED EDWARDS,	SEYMOUR L. HUSTED,
JOHN WADSWORTH,	MARTIN BATES,
EZRA WHEELER,	WELLINGTON CLAPP,
SAMUEL D. BABCOCK,	OLIVER H. PALMER,
WILLIAM H. POPHAM,	ALONZO CHILD,
JOHN M. STUART,	HENRY E. DAVIES,
SAMUEL E. SPROULLS,	RICHARD A. McCURDY,
RICHARD PATRICK,	FRANCIS SKIDDY.

RICHARD A. McCURDY, VICE-PRESIDENT.

ISAAC ABBATT, THEO. W. MORRIS, } SECRETARIES.

SHEPPARD HOMANS. ACTUARY.

FRED. M. WINSTON, CASHIER.

WILLIAM BETTS, LL.D., HON. LUCIUS ROBINSON, HON. ALEX. W. BRADFORD, } COUNSEL.

MINTURN POST, M.D., ISAAC L. KIP, M.D., } MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

F. RATCHFORD STARR, General Agent for the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

H. B. MERRELL, General Agent for the States of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, DETROIT, MICH.

HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

JNO. G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.

JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.

STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.

JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

O. F. BRESEE, General Agent for the State of Virginia, RICHMOND, VA.

L. SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.

H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over - - - - - - - -	$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over - - - - -	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - -	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - - -	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - - -	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force.

Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

We refer to the Massachusetts and New York Insurance Commissioners' Reports for 1864 and 1865 as an evidence of the Safety, Reliability, and Unparalleled Success of the Union Mutual.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

☞ Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE

AND

TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,

243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,

EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,

Issues

LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,

And Ensures Against

ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for $3,000, with $15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, $25 for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.
A. S. MILLS, Secretary.
T. B. VAN BUREN, Treasurer.

S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.
J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

PACIFIC

MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,

TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - - - - - $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,240

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.

THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY

87 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS		$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00	
Temporary Loans	92,630 00	
Real Estate	10,000 00	
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00	
Government Sec., value	144,514 00	
Cash on hand	18,642 34	
Interest due	3,085 58	
Premiums due	6,785 26	
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995	
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26	

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against

DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

ASHER TAYLOR, President.

H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

OFFICE OF THE ATLANTIC MUTUAL INSURANCE CO.,
New York, January 27, 1866.

The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following

Statement of its Affairs on the 31st December, 1865:

Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,933,146 80
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1865		2,019,324 73
Total amount of Marine Premiums		$8,952,471 53
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.		
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,764,146 38
Losses paid during the same period	$3,659,178 45	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$992,341 44	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks		$4,828,585 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise		3,330,350 00
Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages		221,260 00
Dividends on Stocks, Interest on Bonds and Mortgages and other Loans, sundry notes, re-insurance, and other claims due the Company, estimated at		144,964 43
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable		3,283,801 96
Cash in Bank, Coin		80,462 00
" " U. S. Treasury Note Currency		310,551 78
Total Amount of Assets		$12,199,975 17

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next.

Fifty per cent. of the outstanding certificates of the issue of 1864 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next, from which date interest on the amount so redeemable will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled to the extent paid.

A dividend of Thirty-Five per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending the 31st December, 1865, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the Third of April next.

By order of the Board, J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

TRUSTEES.

John D. Jones,	William E. Dodge,	Cornelius Grinnell,
Charles Dennis,	Geo. G. Hobson,	C. A. Hand,
W. H. H. Moore,	David Lane,	B. J. Howland,
Henry Coit,	James Bryce,	Benj. Babcock,
Wm. C. Pickersgill,	Leroy M. Wiley,	Fletcher Westray,
Lewis Curtis,	Daniel S. Miller,	Robt. B. Minturn, Jr.,
Charles H. Russell,	Wm. Sturgis,	Gordon W. Burnham,
Lowell Holbrook,	Henry K. Bogert,	Frederick Chauncey,
R. Warren Weston,	Joshua J. Henry,	James Low,
Royal Phelps,	Dennis Perkins,	George S. Stephenson.
Caleb Barstow,	Joseph Gaillard, Jr.,	William H. Webb.
A. P. Pillot,	J. Henry Burgy,	

JOHN D. JONES, President.
CHARLES DENNIS, Vice-President.
W. H. H. MOORE, 2d Vice-Pres't.
J. D. HEWLETT, 3d Vice-President.

JAY COOKE, H. C. FAHNESTOCK,
WM. G. MOORHEAD, EDWARD DODGE,
H. D. COOKE, PITT COOKE.

JAY COOKE & CO.,

BANKERS.

In connection with our houses in Philadelphia and Washington, we have this day opened an office at No. 1 Nassau Street, corner of Wall Street, in this city.

Mr. EDWARD DODGE, late of Clark, Dodge & Co., New York, Mr. H. C. FAHNESTOCK, of our Washington House, and Mr. PITT COOKE, of Sandusky, Ohio, will be resident partners.

We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, and EXCHANGE of GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues; to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, and GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE

Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.

ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865,	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

P. NOTMAN, Secretary. JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.

WILLIAM KNABE & CO.'S

Celebrated Gold Medal

GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

DECKER & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,

419 BROOME STREET,

One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices $60, $75, $100, $125, $150, $175, $200, and $225. Factory and Warerooms, 481 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars:

They are more fire-proof.

They are more burglar-proof.

They are perfectly dry.

They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.

Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S STEEL PENS.

OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Warranted.

or Descriptive Name, and Designating Number.

New Series, Good and Cheap, from No. 700 to No. 761.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Birmingham. With Designating Numbers.

For sale by

JOSEPH GILLOTT & SONS,
91 John Street, New York.

HENRY OWEN, Sole Agent.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

JUCUNDA.

OUR No. 700 STRAWBERRY PLANTS BY MAIL.

Good Investment.

We will send by mail, post-paid, and guarantee their safe carriage, 25 good strong plants for $5; 60 for $10. By express 100 plants for $15; 1,000 for $100. Each plant, with ordinary care, will produce 100 additional the first season. An outlay of $5 will secure in six months 2,000 plants; $10, 6,000 plants. As but few plants of this remarkable Strawberry have been disseminated, the demand, for some years to come, at high prices, will be very great. The most PROFITABLE time to secure valuable new varieties is when they are FIRST INTRODUCED.

J. KNOX,
Box 155, Pittsburgh, Pa.

CLOTHING.

AN ENTIRE NEW STOCK FOR SPRING,

THE LARGEST, THE FINEST, AND THE CHEAPEST

IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

DEVLIN & CO.,

Broadway, Cor. Grand St.

Broadway, Cor. Warren St.

Creveling Grape Vines.

Nearly as early as Hartford Prolific, of Superior Quality, and good for both wine and the table.

10,000

Vines for sale, at $5 per dozen, $40 per 100, $300 per 1,000.

J. KNOX,
Box 155, Pittsburgh, Pa.

E. REMINGTON & SONS,

MANUFACTURERS OF

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Or (No. 3), 4 doz. Jucunda—our No. 700—4 doz. Agriculturist, 4 doz. Golden Seeded, 2 doz. Russell, 2 doz. Fillmore, and 1 doz. Lenning's White.

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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 42. THURSDAY, APRIL 19, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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JOSEPH H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER, 130 NASSAU STREET, N. Y.

The Week.

THE NATION will hereafter be issued twice a week, on Wednesdays and Saturdays, beginning with the number of May 2d, each number containing sixteen pages, half the present quantity. We have been compelled to make this change in order to secure greater freshness for our comments on political and commercial topics. At present the paper does not reach our subscribers in the West until nearly a week after it has gone to press. Under the new arrangement we shall be able to bring our financial and political review down to the evening before publication, and thus meet the wishes of readers at a distance, from whom we have received many remonstrances on this subject.

Some slight changes in the arrangement of articles will also be necessary to meet the requirements of more rapid printing, but the character and appearance of the paper will, of course, remain the same.

The great reduction which has lately taken place in the cost of paper, and which is now almost certain to continue, will enable us, we are glad to say, to reduce the subscription to five dollars a year.

We have always hitherto been chary about inflicting on the public anything which savored of self-laudation, or troubling it with statements about the position and prospects of the paper, which can, of course, have comparatively little interest for anybody but the proprietors. What most concerns readers, is not what we promise, but our manner of performing, and of this they have in their own hands the means of judging. The difficulties of starting such an enterprise as that in which we are engaged, and which in some ways breaks through the most sacred traditions of the newspaper world, are greater than most people imagine, and if we had not during the nine months of its existence received a good deal of hearty abuse we should have been greatly surprised. We owe it to ourselves to mention, however, that we have received and continue to receive from the ablest and most eminent men in the country, of all professions and persuasions, expressions of commendation of THE NATION and of its mode of discussing public questions so hearty, and often so enthusiastic, that it would be impossible on reading them not to feel that we have achieved a genuine success, that we really have done something towards raising the standard of American criticism, and towards showing that no cause is too good to be defended with candor, common sense, and fairness to opponents.

THE situation at Washington has considerably improved since the passage of the civil rights bill. With it, the political crisis may be fairly said to be over. It is impossible not to see in Mr. Johnson's course of late a strong attempt at reaction, which Congress has now resolutely and completely foiled. It is difficult to over-estimate the good effects of its recent vote. It has in the first place dissipated the hopes which the "bummers" of the Republican wing at the North were beginning to entertain of the formation of a "third party," with Andrew Johnson for its head, with the plunder and the pay for themselves. All the ambitious postmasters and custom-house officers will now probably relapse into tranquillity. It has in the next place disabused the mind of the President as to the extent of his own powers. How far others were responsible for the delusion under which he has been laboring for some months, that he was the United States, and that the function of Congress was like that of the Parliament of Paris, the registering of executive edicts, we are unable to determine. But that he did labor under this delusion, or one very like it, is tolerably clear. It has in the third place opened the eyes of the South as to the real sentiments of the Northern public, and as to the real seat of power at Washington. It now knows that the adhesion of Mr. Johnson to its views is not all it needs to make things pleasant. It is but just to him to say that he, as far as we can learn, takes his defeat in perfectly good humor. The talk of a *coup d'état*, which is kept up by the copperhead papers, and which some radical journals are foolish enough to re-echo, as if they believed it, may be safely set down as malignant nonsense. The equally foolish talk of impeaching the President generally, we believe, emanates from people who are not quite sure what impeachment means, or have a vague notion that it is some kind of very awful moral censure, like the Roman Catholic practice of "cursing with bell, book, and candle." Nor is there any likelihood that Congress will sit through the summer. This is another sensational story at which the ablest Congressional leaders only laugh. There is at present no probability that anything will be done or attempted by the President to make this necessary. He has found himself at the late trial of strength so very weak, that there is every reason to believe he will, hereafter, avoid everything that is likely to bring on a collision between himself and the legislature. Congress has as yet resolved upon no plan of reconstruction that can be called final, but there is good ground for hoping that in a very few weeks it will be able to agree on something which will satisfy reasonable men of all parties. The scheme which at present seems to find most favor is a combination of Mr. Stewart's proposition with that of Mr. Robert Dale Owen—that is, an offer of admission and oblivion to the South in return for the adoption of an amendment admitting all classes to the franchise, not immediately, but say in ten years, subject, perhaps, to some intelligence test.

The President has for some time past thought proper to dispense with the advice of Northern men, and has thrown himself upon that of Mr. Sharkey, of Mississippi, and one or two other Southerners. This would have been all very well if the solution of the problem were to be left in the hands of the Southern people. It is now pretty plain that there is no hope of this, and that the Northern public has really the assurance to believe that the sacrifices of a bloody war do give it a right to be heard on the re-establishment of the Union they have

saved. We trust the President will now see the desirableness of consulting their leaders also.

THE Fenian excitement on the Canadian border continues. When active operations are to commence, nobody seems to know, but as the Brotherhood has hired a hall in Portland to hold public meetings in, we doubt if the tongue is not intended to do most of the fighting for some time to come. In the meantime, a small party has gone off and captured a British flag which was flying on an island where there were no soldiers. This may be ominous of the awful storm that is coming, but we doubt if the British will be as much alarmed by it as they ought to be. In the meantime, there are symptoms that Mr. Seward is getting restive under the Fenian infliction, and we should not be surprised if the circles woke up some fine morning and found a proclamation launched at their heads from Washington.

THOSE who know anything of New York, with its dwelling-houses at one end of the city only—places of business at the other—can form some idea of the inconvenience occasioned by the strike of the car-drivers, which, as we write, is still pending. The companies declare solemnly that they pay as much as they can afford, and more than they can afford to pay and leave the stockholders a reasonable interest on their investment. But the sympathy of the public and of the newspapers is unmistakably with the drivers; not because the public knows much, or, in fact, anything, about the merits of the quarrel, but because everybody detests the companies for their greed, their indifference to public comfort, and the determination they have always displayed to give nothing for the money they receive that they can possibly withhold. With the differences between them and their servants, the people who use the cars have really nothing to do as long as the cars run, but the companies are bound to run the cars, no matter what they have to pay for drivers; and the coolness with which they haul off their vehicles because they consider the demands of their servants unreasonable, is one of the most striking illustrations we have yet had of the firmness of their faith that the roads are their private property, and that it is for them to decide how they shall be managed. For our part, we confess that we are on the whole glad of every occurrence, however much inconvenience it may entail, which helps to fix the attention of the country upon the evil effects of the system of granting a monopoly of the public highways to money-making corporations. It is in this, and not in the depravity of directors or presidents, that the root of our railroad troubles is to be found after all. Some means must be devised, sooner or later, either of throwing railroads open to competition or else of subjecting them to Government inspection that shall not be a sham.

THERE is yet a chance for the President to show that he is not indifferent to the performances which he exacted of the rebel States as essential to reconstruction. Gov. Hamilton says the Texas Convention has satisfied fully only one of these demands. It passed an ordinance exempting all persons from responsibility who, under civil or military authority, had inflicted injury during the war on other citizens of the State. It also carefully excluded the blacks from any share in the educational appliances for which they are to be taxed in common with the white population. Altogether, the state of war seems still to continue in that corner of the Gulf to which the President has refrained from extending his proclamation of peace.

WE hear much less than we did about the negro race dying out. Those parts of the South in which the doctrine, in the abstract, might find the largest number of supporters—say in Mississippi—are so much in want of laborers that the people are half afraid their predictions are coming true. The planters are rushing to Washington, no longer to curse the anti-slavery amendment as the ruin of the South, but to bargain on good terms for as many "perishable" freedmen as can be spared from the District. A Newbern paper, however, thinks the race short-lived, unless precautions to the contrary be taken. What shall they be? Time was when a "free nigger" would have been told to make haste and put himself under some kind master, surrender himself and family to the will of his owner, and attain the proverbial fleshiness and sleekness of a contented slave. The Newbern editor has no advice of that kind to press. His only remedy against decay and ultimate disappearance is "the moral and intellectual culture of the negro." But what a preposterous idea!

THE late Hon. Daniel S. Dickinson narrowly escaped being nominated Vice-President along with Mr. Lincoln in 1864, the fatal objection to him being that New York was already represented in the Cabinet, and Mr. Seward might feel called upon to resign. Had the majority at the Baltimore Convention desired the retirement of the Secretary of State, or been disposed to accept it with equanimity, they would have insisted on Mr. Dickinson. In that case, since he has died a natural death, we should have had not only an "accidency," but an accidency within an accidency.

THE Wisconsin Legislature last week passed resolutions censuring Mr. Doolittle because, disobeying express instructions, he voted against the civil rights bill. They declared, also, that it is the senator's duty to resign at once. There are more theories than one upon the question whether or not a senator of the United States is so far bound to the State whose commission he holds as that he may not set his own judgment against hers. But, however that may be, Mr. Doolittle, who would not be instructed into doing what Wisconsin thought his duty, is not likely to let Wisconsin resolve him out of his seat.

THE Mobilians, the other day, were kind enough to give praises to the President as "the first fearless patriot," and even for the more doubtful virtue of being "the friend of those who support his policy, and the enemy of those who oppose it." It is a pity that looking further we find something that had better have been spared. Major Waltham rises:

"MR. CHAIRMAN: I propose a sentiment. I mean no treason, nor do I mean to revive any memories of the past which ought to be dead and buried. I simply offer the health of a distinguished gentleman. I give you, therefore, sir: *Jefferson Davis*, soldier, statesman, patriot, prisoner. Our tongues may be mute, but our hearts are with him."

As the major evidently did what he says he did not mean, there is not much to be said to him. But is it simple ignorance, or a species of arrogance, or what is it, that prevents such Southern men as he from seeing that of all returns which they can make for the kindness of certain of their friends, their favor and praise are the most ungrateful and embarrassing?

THE Lynchburg, Va., *Republican* has had news of the passage of the civil rights bill over the veto, and considers it "an event deeply to be lamented by the friends of constitutional liberty." The Radicals, it is now certain, "intend to make everything yield to the accomplishment of their diabolical purposes." The *Republican* goes on to describe the policy that Congress will adopt if it can, and the policy that the President can adopt if he will. Congress, then, impeaches the President and excludes the Southern States from representation. The President, on his part, refuses to treat the present "rump" as a constitutional body. He summons by proclamation all the representatives of the people to the national capital, and then recognizes that branch which he regards as complying with the forms and obligations of the Constitution. This would cause a civil war at the North; but the *Republican* is at a loss to see how the conflict can be avoided if the President would arrest the revolutionary tendencies of the time or protect himself in the rights and dignities of his office. This statement of opinions acquires some importance when it is recollected how many *Republicans* there are in the South, and how implicitly some Southern men follow them and obey them. And at any rate here, as in a mirror, may be seen how little they know and what it is they wish.

WE remember to have heard of an ingenious machine out of which, if you put in a live ox, there issued every conceivable product, from a shoulder of beef to a pair of boots or a powder-horn. A Philadelphia company exhibited last week a process by which a poplar-tree, fresh from its native soil, is converted into clear, white, soft paper in the

space of five hours. The discovery is one of the most useful which we have been able to chronicle for a long period, and we only hope that it may be improved and kept in operation against every inducement to sell out to interested rivals.

THE fright occasioned last week by the news that a steamer from Liverpool, with the cholera aboard, had anchored off Halifax, has not been removed by a confirmation of the first report. Whether it be ship-fever or not which occasioned the extraordinary mortality among the passengers of the *England*, a visit from the grim world's navigator is to be looked for "about this time." The Board of Health have drawn up a code which we hope will be enforced long after the cholera shall have disappeared from the country, if not from the face of the earth. The prohibition of the sale of impure meats, vegetables, swill-milk, etc., ought to be perpetual in every city. The Board enact that every dwelling shall afford 1,000 cubic feet of air to every inmate, and, though not in express terms, forbid underground apartments to be used for living purposes. The utility of the following section cannot be questioned, but any one may guess how great is the probability of its being respected:

"No person shall sell or give to any other person (or permit such other person to get, having the right and ability to prevent the same) any intoxicating or exciting drink, when such first-named person may have reason to think or believe that such drink may cause or contribute to danger or detriment to life or health; and no person shall sell or give any intoxicating liquor to any child under twelve years of age."

GOV. EYRE, it appears, is to be classed among the distinguished men of feeble memories who now and then surprise the less forgetful mob. In attempting to justify to the Jamaica commission his treatment of the riot as an insurrection, he could neither produce any documentary evidence nor recall the names of those whose testimony was oral. His examination was about as successful as Gen. McClellan's or Robert E. Lee's in analogous circumstances.

IN accordance with Napoleon's promise to favr industrial and commercial conferences and meetings, the Minister of the Interior has addressed a circular letter to the prefects, charging them to grant the necessary authority in all cases where they are convinced of the sincerity of the application—"if the object is not political; if the gathering is not likely to make trouble." It is the Emperor's desire, says the Marquis de la Valette, to facilitate an economical understanding between labor and capital, in order to develop the resources of the country. We trust to see a speedy outcrop of co-operative societies, not only for the physical melioration of the poorer classes, but for their education in habits of thrift, sobriety, steadiness, and self-reliance, which are the best foundation for political self-government, to which they may at any moment be called.

THERE are evidently two ways of looking at the end of the Roman republic. In Paris, one may choose between the view from the Tuileries and the view from the Academy. The *Constitutionnel* was hasty and unwise enough to espouse the Emperor's side of the difference between himself and the successor of M. Ampère. This was the response which it provoked from Prévost-Paradol:

"The illustrious author of the 'Vie de César' did not conceal in his preface the fact that while narrating the history of his hero, his thoughts were on the head of his family. It is no less natural nor excusable in me that, having to speak of the downfall of Roman liberty, I could not help recalling the misfortunes of my own country."

AMERICA'S true friend, M. Edouard Laboulaye, is the liberal candidate for deputy to the Corps Législatif in the Strasburg district of the Lower Rhine. The *Journal des Débats* entreats the electors to return him in place of the late incumbent, who resigned to stand a re-election. The diminished majority of his opponent would be a success to M. Laboulaye and the cause of civil liberty.

THE election of Mazzini at Messina has been pronounced illegal by a proper committee of the Italian Parliament, and finally by the Chamber itself, by a strong majority. The delicate question was only two days under debate, when, according to the *Nazione*, "the strictly legal reasons why the election ought to be annulled were stated with singular clearness by the Hon. De Filippo, sustained with manly soberness by the Hon. Boggio, confirmed with glowing eloquence by the Minister of the Interior, and repeated and illustrated with admirable fecundity, learning, and acumen by the Minister Guardasigilli." Of course, the republicans were badly used by such antagonists. They did their duty toward the exile, but "in the manner," says the same paper, "of an heir who abbreviates as much as possible the funeral eulogium on a disagreeable relation, and is sparing of his encomiums in proportion to his confidence that the disagreeable relation cannot return to life to disturb the tranquil inheritor." The death-sentence imposed by Sardinia for Mazzini's alleged complicity with the rising at Genoa on the 29th of June, 1857, was the single ground on which the Government relied for its course in this decision. The death-sentence passed by France in 1864 was not brought forward as an obstacle. Now that the law has been re-asserted, it is suggested that Victor Emanuel might do a graceful thing by pardoning Mazzini.

A LITTLE St. Bartholomew was enacted at Barletta, in Italy, on the 19th of last month (St. Joseph's Day), by an infuriated, priest-led mob of Catholics, who assaulted a Protestant school and the home of the Protestant minister, stoning, beating, and slaying *i dannati* with cries of "*viva il papa!*" Women were conspicuous in the bloodiest part of this miserable drama, which included the plundering and burning of other obnoxious dwellings. Seventy-five arrests have been made, and among them four priests, a capuchin, several of the women, and a leading banker, who was also a lieutenant in the national guard. This respectable assassin had drawn up a list, which was found about him, of some two hundred victims. Other documents secured at the same time seem to point to a general infection of the guard itself, and the Government is said to be taking steps to provide it with a guardian. The violence of the clerical party has also been displayed in the neighborhood of Bologna with less deplorable results.

WHETHER Austria's necessity is to be Italy's opportunity, in the approaching conflict of the two great German powers, remains to be seen. There are rumors of an alliance between Italy and Prussia. Austria is said to be strengthening the line of the Adige. Meanwhile Prussia sends a circular to the smaller states of Germany to anticipate their encouragement and support, and, in reply to the admonitions of England and other powers, asserts that the peace of Europe is threatened solely by Austria! The generally expressed solicitude on the part of the crowned heads that the peace should not be disturbed is the best omen for the gain of freedom from an otherwise deplorable struggle. The wave of revolution has hitherto started from Paris. To-day it may begin at Berlin, Vienna, or even Venice.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, April 14, 1866.

THE week has passed without any other significant event of national importance besides the passage of the civil rights bill on Monday in the House. The strength of the vote by which this was done (122 to 41) lends much force to the position of Congress, and means more than a mere partizan triumph over the President. It means an effective check to the spirit of Southern bravado which was becoming rampant again under the supposed shield of the Executive favor. Now that the legislative arm of the Government has caused its power to be felt and respected, it will be less easy for the hot champions of a hasty and disloyal reconstruction to mislead the public mind. Congress stands like a steady and massive rampart between the leaders of the late secession and the political power which they are striving to regain. It does more. It upholds the rights of that proscribed race which was emancipated by the war, and no system which outlaws them from the rights of American citizenship can ever be established so long as the present Congress is sustained by the people.

The civil rights enactment is unquestionably the most vitally

important measure of the session thus far, and its final success already tends to consolidate and unify the majority for agreement upon other measures. It is noteworthy that this measure lost not a single vote in the House, of those who had previously sustained it, in consequence of the veto. On the contrary, it steadily gained in popularity, and no measure which ever passed Congress was ever more firmly fixed in the minds of its supporters. Certainly, no measure of so great importance was ever sustained by such unanimity before, and that, too, in the face of a presidential veto. That this is not owing to any desire to triumph over the Executive is seen no less in the character of the measure than in the well-attested fact that this bill to secure civil rights was approved three months ago by fair-minded Union men in all parts of the South, and even received the sanction of several senators elect from the rebellious States.

A bill is shortly to be considered in the House the purpose of which is to secure the rights of Northern men travelling or residing in the South. It supplies, for the first time, "appropriate legislation" to carry out that clause of the Constitution which provides that citizens of the United States shall be entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens in the several States. The bill, which was drawn by Mr. Shellabarger, of Ohio, is not aimed, like Trumbull's civil rights bill (now become a law), at securing the equal rights of colored men, but expressly at securing to Union men in the South those rights of person, property, and of speech which are freely conceded to everybody at the North. The late outrages and persecutions of Northern men and Unionists in several States are the immediate occasion for this measure, and the enactment of a Federal law on the subject is justified by the fact that State laws for their protection are inadequate or unenforced because of the prevalence of a rebel public opinion.

The concurrent resolution which has passed both Houses, prohibiting the sale "or exhibition" of any spirituous liquors, wines, or other intoxicating drinks in the Capitol or other public buildings, is aimed at a gross and disgraceful habit which has prevailed to a greater degree among our public men since the war than ever before. So powerful had this bad custom become, that it is a notorious fact that some of the principal committee-rooms and offices of both Houses of Congress have been converted into "free whiskey-shops," where the bibulous members of Congress could confidently rely upon reinforcing their stomachs with the strongest of alcoholic stimulants. The result could not long be doubtful. Not only was the rule which the most ordinary business prudence prescribes violated, viz., that strong drinks should be excluded from the hours and places devoted to business, but the fruits of this violation became manifest in the occasional tipsiness or chronic "elevation" of sundry legislators who should have known better than to bring discredit on their public station, to say nothing of their private characters. The enactment of this concurrent resolution, which prohibits the "exhibition" as well as sale of spirits, will have the effect, if enforced, to throw honorable gentlemen who are not above getting drunk upon the sufficiently abundant resources of the Washington hotels and restaurants.

DIARY.

Monday, April 9, 1866.—In the Senate, a message was received from the President recommending an extension of time to certain land-grant railroads in the rebellious States. A bill was passed to revise and consolidate all the statutes of the United States, through three commissioners learned in the law, to be appointed by the President and Senate, at a salary of $5,000 each per year, for three years. The loan bill was passed as it came from the House of Representatives—yeas, 32; nays, 7.

In the House, on motion of Mr. Boutwell, the Judiciary Committee was instructed to enquire whether there is probable cause to believe Jefferson Davis and others guilty of complicity in the assassination of President Lincoln, or of treason against the United States, and whether any legislation is necessary to bring them to trial. Also, on motion of Mr. Raymond, a resolution requesting the President to take speedy steps for the trial of Jefferson Davis in Virginia, where he has been duly indicted for treason, was referred to the same committee. A resolution to add 50 per cent. to the duties on imported goods was referred to the Committee on Manufactures—yeas, 106; nays, 50. Mr. Garfield offered a bill to authorize the construction of national railroads. Postponed to December next. The civil rights bill came up for reconsideration upon the veto message of the President, when the previous question was ordered on the passage of the bill, and it was passed—yeas, 122; nays, 41. The Speaker announced that the bill, having received a vote of two-thirds of both Houses of Congress, has become a law.

April 10.—In the Senate, House bill to pay the State of Pennsylvania $800,000 for moneys advanced to the United States for war purposes in 1863 was passed. Also, a bill granting lands to Michigan to aid in constructing a ship canal. Also, a bill to grant lands to Minnesota to aid in construction of the Southern Minnesota Railroad.

In the House, Mr. Deming reported from the Committee on Military Affairs a bill to revive the grade of general in the U. S. Army. Made a special order for April 17. The bankrupt bill came up on the motion to reconsider the vote rejecting the bill, when it was reconsidered—yeas, 83; nays, 45. The question recurring upon the passage of the bill, it was rejected—yeas, 70; nays, 73. A bill to authorize the coinage of five-cent pieces, and prohibiting any further issue of fractional notes of less denomination than ten cents, was passed. Mr. Conkling introduced a new bill to provide for a uniform system of bankruptcy. Referred.

April 11.—In the Senate, a concurrent resolution prohibiting the sale in the Capitol building and grounds of spirituous liquors, wines, and intoxicating liquors of every description, was passed—yeas, 33; nays, 2. A bill was passed appropriating $259,000 for the claims of Kansas for militia called into the U. S. service in 1864.

In the House, a bill to extend for three years the time during which the States now represented in Congress may comply with the terms of the act of 1862, donating public lands to establish agricultural colleges, was passed—yeas, 96; nays, 33. The Senate bill appropriating about seven million dollars to reimburse the State of Missouri for the services of her militia in aid of the Federal Government during the war, was passed—yeas, 68; nays, 25.

April 12.—In the Senate, eulogies were pronounced upon the late Senator Foot.

In the House, the Senate bill to authorize the President to transfer a gunboat to the republic of Liberia was passed. The Senate joint resolution, protesting against the pardon by foreign governments of criminals on condition of their emigrating to the United States, was passed. The Senate resolution, to prohibit the sale of spirituous liquors in the Capitol and grounds, was amended so as to include all the public buildings, and passed. The Senate bill for temporary relief of destitute people in the District of Columbia was passed—yeas, 101; nays, 21.

April 13.—In the Senate, the day was spent upon private bills and sundry amendments to the pension laws. Adjourned to April 16.

In the House, after the passage of several private bills, the bill to re-organize the army of the United States, as reported by the Committee on Military Affairs, was discussed, amended, and laid over.

April 14.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, it was announced that the day was the anniversary of the assassination of President Lincoln, when, after a brief and feeling tribute to his memory by Mr. Garfield, the House adjourned to Monday, April 16.

THE FREEDMEN.

The small-pox amongst the freed people in the District of Columbia is abating. From the recent wholesale whitewashing effected by the Bureau, the quarters of the city occupied by colored people have assumed a neat and cleanly appearance, and the visiting agents, mostly teachers, are encouraging them in neatness and cleanliness. All soup-houses were closed and rations stopped for freed people, except the orphan children, sick, and old, on the 10th inst.—these exceptions being furnished with quarters—the orphans at the Mareil Farm School, near Washington, the sick in hospitals, and the old and infirm at Freedmen's Village. Mr. De Mareil has, with some aid from the Government, established, about two miles from Washington, on the Bladensburg road, a model farm school for colored orphans, both male and female. The capacity of the establishment is for 200 inmates. It is modeled after similar institutions in France and Algeria. Mr. De Mareil is editor and proprietor of the New York *Messager Franco-Américain*. Rev. John Kimball, School Superintendent for the District, reports the number of schools to be 61; teachers, 112; scholars, 6,032; average daily attendance, 4,616; number taught needlework in connection with these schools, 487; number in night-schools, so far as reported, 1,065; in Sabbath-schools, 2,886. There are eight industrial schools in the District, in which, according to the March report, there were 238 women employed, 1,055 garments made, 2,093 garments given away, and $500 worth of garments sold. The N. E. Freedmen's Grocery Store sold during the months of February and March $4,000 worth of goods.

The agent of the Bureau in Fairfax County has established a colored school at Fairfax C. H., but such is the feeling of enmity against it that he is obliged to place a guard at the residence of the lady teacher, to prevent her from being insulted or the school-house burned.

General Sewall has just returned from an inspection tour down the Mississippi. He says that along the river everything is lively, business good, and the demand for labor far exceeding the supply. The colonies established two or three years ago along the river are all broken up, with the exception of the one at Davis's Bend, and this is small. The break-up has been caused by the great demand for labor.

On recommendation of the Commissioner of the Bureau, the Secretary of War has ordered that Major-General Thomas J. Wood, commanding the department of Mississippi, perform the duties of

assistant commissioner, in addition to his duties of department commander. Col. Samuel Thomas, thus relieved, will go on duty at the office in Washington.

General Gregory, when relieved by General Kiddoo, will make a thorough inspection of the State of Texas.

On the islands of Edisto, Wadmalaw, John's, and James, South Carolina, contracts have been made to the number of 2,338.

General Strong, writing from Tallahassee, Florida, gives a very gratifying account of freedmen's affairs in that State. All are at work, and for good wages. He speaks of Governor Walker as a "staunch friend of the freedmen," who will, so far as he is able, see that justice is done. He (General Strong) thinks Florida the most loyal of the Southern States, and he has visited them all. On the other hand, an agent of the Freedmen's and Union Commission reports that a colored man at Gainsville, Florida, was convicted of theft, and sentenced to pay a fine of fifty-eight dollars. In default thereof he was ordered to be sold to the bidder who would take him for the least time, and pay the fine. The bidding was spirited, commencing with five years, and finally ending with five months. At the same place, a short time previous, a similar case had occurred. A colored woman was sentenced to pay a fine of four hundred dollars. Being utterly unable, she was sold into slavery for four years.

Georgia school reports for March show on the 31st of that month 65 schools, 102 teachers, 6,795 pupils. Had not small-pox interfered, the aggregate attendance would have reached 7,500. In six places $398 were paid during the month in support of education by the freed people. In Atlanta, although very poor and greatly scourged by disease, many of them, they contribute every month $200 to the relief of their distressed brethren. In some places public sentiment is growing gradually more favorable to the education of colored people, while in many localities there is persistent opposition to it. In Atlanta the feeling is probably more favorable than in any other locality in Georgia. The schools for whites established there by the Union Aid Commission of Pennsylvania and New Jersey have done much to induce a healthy sentiment by giving the people practical evidence that the charity of the North embraces both races. A Methodist minister in a village in this State recently undertook to teach colored children the catechism, upon which he was informed by his brethren that if he persisted in it his salary would be cut off. Three or four white ladies (widows) have undertaken to teach freedmen's schools, but in every instance at the cost of all their former associations and a complete ostracism from society, in addition to frequent insults from those who were once companions and friends. Last month the freed people's schoolhouse in Madison was destroyed by white incendiaries. The freedmen tried to save the building, but were prevented by white men shooting at them. A considerable number of persons of intelligence and influence acknowledge the importance and *necessity* of universal education, but their fear of public sentiment deters them from advocating and assisting in it openly, boldly, and unequivocally.

Surgeons having freedmen's hospitals in charge have been ordered to establish kitchen gardens, to be worked by the convalescents and attendants when not otherwise employed.

Some benevolent friends of the freed people are about establishing a deaf, dumb, and blind asylum for them, and an official circular has been issued to obtain statistics.

—General Howard has addressed a letter to Mr. Eliot, chairman of the House Select Committee on Freedmen's Affairs, urging, since Congress is not permitted to enlarge the powers of the Bureau, the importance of defining them. He wishes to know its duration, its scope, whether it includes Kentucky and Maryland, what aid is to be given it by reservations of public lands to be sold to the freedmen, what is to be the settlement of the Sea Island controversy, etc., etc. Meanwhile, he has directed the agents of the Bureau to see that the freedmen enjoy the advantages of the civil rights bill.

—A Mississippi newspaper exhorts Southern teachers to take hold of the colored schools at once, on the ground that they can instill into their pupils "Southern ideas of the relative social relations, rights, and duties of the races."

—Numerous planters and agents are in Washington endeavoring to hire freedmen to labor on plantations in Tennessee and Mississippi, and other parts of the South. They will engage them in some instances by the hundred.

—A Georgia judge recently decided that the value of a slave is even now recoverable, provided liability was incurred prior to January 1, 1863; and that not the President's proclamation of that date, but the ordinance of the constitutional convention, abolished slavery in the State of Georgia.

Minor Topics.

The murder of the Deering family in Philadelphia is one other added to the small list of crimes—small, considering what we all feared and might fairly have expected—committed by discharged soldiers. It has probably rarely been surpassed in atrocity, and its success was wonderful. It requires a very remarkable combination of circumstances to enable one or two men even to kill a large family outright. Generally, when slaughter on such a scale as this is attempted, somebody escapes and gives the alarm, or survives to tell the tale. That we have not, during the past year, had to chronicle many incidents of the same sort has surprised most people, and may fairly be considered a very remarkable testimony to the good character of the army which was disbanded last summer. There must have been in its ranks large numbers of men whose notions of right and wrong were a good deal confused by two or three years' familiarity with bloodshed and marauding, and the facility with which they have adapted themselves to the morals of civil life is to us something more singular than the rapidity with which the industry of the country absorbed all or nearly all whom the Government turned adrift. The sudden break-up of such a force would, in any European country, mean the inauguration of beggary and crime on a scale never witnessed since the Middle Ages, and would have spread a panic through the community. Here, beyond two or three murders, a slight increase of robberies, and a slight curtailment of the promenading privileges of young ladies in the neighborhood of the country towns, we have suffered no perceptible inconvenience from it. There has certainly been an increase of blackguardism in railway trains, but how much of this is due to the army it is hard to say.

The Deering murder has been a splendid thing for the Philadelphia reporters. The great descriptive powers of these gentlemen are of course not called out half as often as those of their New York brethren, owing to the greater morality and greater monotony of Philadelphia life. But, perhaps, for this very reason they are better able to "work up" a "great tragedy," when it does come, with even greater effect. They hardly display the same liveliness of imagination as our New York chroniclers. No Philadelphian could ever have seen the awful fight in the fire between Barnum's lions and tigers which was revealed to the enraptured gaze of the reporter of the New York *Tribune*, and we doubt very much whether he could have got at the secret emotions of the elder and of the younger Ketchum, during the few days following the discovery of the great forgeries, with the keenness of insight and power of analysis of the gifted "individual" who "wrote up" that great scandal for the New York *Times*. But we think the Philadelphians beat us entirely in the supply of collateral information and in stern realistic description. The description of "the wounds of the victims" which one Philadelphia journal furnishes has been done by a master hand, and the "History of Great Philadelphia Murders," written doubtless by the same person and appearing in the same paper, sheds a lurid light on the past of the Quaker City. We cordially invite the author not to wait for the occurrence of a grand robbery to furnish us with a history of "the great Philadelphia burglaries."

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

INCLUSION OR EXCLUSION.

If there are any persons who believe that it is possible to devise a plan of reconstruction which shall instantly restore universal loyalty and good feeling at the South, or, to speak more correctly, *create* such feelings where they have never yet existed in the breasts of the majority, we are not among them. We look for no such miraculous change. We do not object to Mr. Johnson's plan on account of its failure to achieve such an immediate success, but because it tends to make a true and just reconstruction more unattainable in the future than it is to-day. We do not complain that it has not reached the goal, but that it moves in an opposite direction.

Now we observe that some earnest and sincere friends of liberty are troubled with apprehensions concerning the restoration of the rebellious States, even upon the basis of universal suffrage. They anticipate an effort, in such case, for the control of colored voters by their employers; and fear that the poverty and the landless condition of the negroes, together with their general ignorance, will make them tools in the hands of unscrupulous men, and that a Southern delegation in Congress, elected by universal suffrage, may not differ materially from that which has been chosen by Mr. Johnson's select constituencies.

We do not think these fears entirely without foundation. In one-third of the Congressional districts at the South the freedmen's vote would have scarcely any practical influence on the result of the election. In another third the whites would combine, and would be able to outvote the freedmen and original Union men for years to come. And in the remaining districts, where the negro vote would, if united, be the controlling element, it will not be difficult for shrewd politicians to divide that vote in some districts, to coax it in some, and to terrify it in others. But it would very soon be impossible to carry an election by bullying the majority, and three or four years of experience in politics will teach the new voters the folly of division among themselves. In a very short period Southern politicians would be compelled to rely upon the same arts for securing the votes of their colored neighbors as those which they use among white men. In the districts where the white population is in the majority, it would not be possible for political aspirants permanently to ignore a heavy negro vote. Nothing but the most absolute unanimity among the white majority, such as has never yet been known, would suffice to prevent candidates from seeking to gain at least a part of the votes of colored men. We regard it, therefore, as inevitable, that in the course of a few years equal suffrage would entirely transform Southern politics.

It is maintained by some to be essential to the security of the nation that all who have been influential in bringing about the rebellion should be for ever deprived of political power. It is urged as indispensable that a number, variously estimated at from five hundred to fifty thousand, must be banished from the country, or deprived of their property, or at the very least deprived of their votes. Without discussing the questions of humanity or generosity involved in such a proposition, we maintain that such a measure is utterly impracticable as to any large number, and entirely useless if extended only to a few. Nothing less than the banishment of fifty thousand men, with their families, numbering altogether nearly three hundred thousand souls, would suffice to break the hold of the present leaders of the South. Such a proposition is as absurd as Mr. Johnson's benevolent suggestion, that four million negroes should fling themselves into the Caribbean Sea, in hope of finding a place where they would be welcome.

We are persuaded, moreover, that the influence of Southern leaders has been exaggerated. It is very generally believed at the North that Southern disloyalty has been created solely by political managers, and has had no root among the people as distinguished from the politicians. This appears to us to be a great mistake. We believe that the politicians have pandered to, and worked upon, the popular prejudice, but not that they created it. Did politicians create the Chinese sentiment of contempt for foreigners? Did politicians create the old English contempt for a Frenchman? Prejudices of this kind are the natural fruit of ignorance. It is inevitable that the inhabitants of a semi-civilized country should despise all the rest of the world, and it is folly to charge the existence of such a feeling upon small politicians, who make use of it as they do of everything else that is mean and bad in human nature.

For many years past, and even up to the present day, purblind theorists have attributed the anti-slavery feeling at the North to the influence of politicians. There are as many to-day who believe that but for Mr. Seward there would have been no Republican party, and no powerful anti-slavery organization, as there are who believe that but for John C. Calhoun there would have been no secession. Yet to all intelligent men at the North how ineffably ludicrous is the idea that the great movement for liberty has been in any degree dependent upon Mr. Seward, Mr. Chase, Mr. Sumner, or any other one man, or set of men. In 1848, John Van Buren seemed the great apostle of the Free-soil party. It was just as common then to assert that the party owed its existence to him and his father, and was dependent upon them for its vitality, as it has been in later years to give the like credit to Mr. Seward and Mr. Chase. Yet, in 1856, all the power of the Van Burens was exerted upon the other side, and the party of liberty was five times as strong without them as it ever had been with them. So, at the present time, Mr. Seward's great influence is exerted to the utmost in favor of Mr. Johnson's policy, and yet signally fails to carry his party with him in a single township of his own State. Mr. Charles O'Conor, who is the only far-sighted advocate of slavery at the North, distinguished himself, in 1860, by perceiving and avowing the fact that it was the conscience of the North which dragged along the politicians, and not the politicians who deceived the popular conscience. His frank acknowledgment of this unquestionable truth was honorable alike to his discernment and his candor. Let us be equally candid, and avow our belief that the prejudice of the South against the North was founded upon natural causes, which its politicians might certainly have helped to remove, but certainly did not create. The best efforts of all the politicians combined could never have preserved respect and affection for a country devoted to liberty and intelligence, in a land where all were ignorant and half were slaves.

If we are correct in the views thus far expressed, it follows that no practicable measure of exclusion would give us a truly loyal white constituency at the South. No matter how severe the tests which might be applied, no matter how sweeping might be the work of banishment and proscription, no matter how few should be allowed to vote, the result of the elections would be substantially the same as if unrestricted liberty had been given to all the rebels in the land. The elections which have just taken place in Tennessee, under the restrictive system, illustrate the working of the scheme. In Davidson County, which in 1861 cast 6,037 votes, the Union candidate for the legislature now receives only 489 votes. In Shelby County, which in 1861 cast 7,137 votes, the Unionist now receives 379 votes. Of course, they were both overwhelmingly defeated. Under what conceivable plan could such minorities be transformed into majorities?

The opposite plan of *inclusion*, by enlarging the constituencies so as to take in all men, gives a security for the future which cannot be shaken, and which will, with every succeeding year, produce better results. It will instantly annihilate every scheme for the enslavement or degradation of any part of the people. It will compel the reconstructed rebels to choose between an immediate insurrection or a final abandonment of all hope of renewing the struggle. It will compel them, if they submit (as they would), to encourage education by all the means in their power. It will extinguish for ever all dreams of repudiating the national debt or of paying Confederate debts. So much would be accomplished by the simple enactment of equal suffrage. Could we not afford to wait for the rest? Even if the colored people should be for a time deceived into voting for their enemies, or if, by combinations against them, their votes should be nullified, it is impossible that such evils s ould be permanent, and no great harm could be

done meanwhile. From the day on which complete justice was established at the South, its interests would be identical with those of the North, and the two sections would daily come into more perfect harmony.

This plan is further recommended by its true republicanism. The idea of a republic founded upon one-twentieth part of its people, and permanently excluding the other nineteen-twentieths from all political privileges, is revolting. As a transitory measure, designed for a few months, while preparing the way for a broader government, such a scheme may be tolerated; but it can never last ten years in any part of this country. Let us be faithful to the principles of our Government; let us adopt a broad policy, and not a narrow one; let us confide in the whole people, taken together, white and black, loyal and disloyal; and we may rest assured that the virus of secession will be as thoroughly lost in the mass of the loyal people, as the deadliest poisons would be if mingled with the waters of the ocean.

CIRCUMSTANCES ALTER CASES.

That circumstances alter cases is no new thing. They always have, and, probably, always will. Everything depends on the point of view. It makes all the difference in the world whether it were my ox that gored your bull, or my bull that gored your ox. The mere fact of being in power or out, on the ministerial benches or the opposition ones, works magical changes in political opinion and conduct. Of these facts in the natural history of politicians we are having abundant illustration and to spare, just now. Stern patriots, who denounced Abraham Lincoln as a tyrant and a usurper for suspending the *habeas corpus*, that intestine treason might be held in check, and seizing traitorous presses that it might not be fomented, and for exerting the dictatorial powers necessarily inherent in the head of the nation, who was at the same time commander-in-chief of the army and navy, in time of civil war, have undergone a change of heart. The scales have fallen from their eyes, and they now see powers which Lincoln never exercised nor claimed, and which have not the excuse of the nation's extremity to palliate them, to be the bulwarks of liberty, which must be defended at all hazards against all comers. It is the difference of the point of view, or, to use the German neologism, of the stand-point. What was crime in Mr. Lincoln is virtue in Mr. Johnson, because of the different purposes, as these authorities conceive, of the two men.

Mr. Lincoln's lot was cast in the time of a civil war which threatened the very existence of the nation, and which would have destroyed it if sharp and prompt remedies had not been applied to mischiefs which would not bide the time of the processes of peaceful government. With no unseemly haste, with all fitting deliberation, he put forth the powers which are reserved in every polity for its own preservation. The times demanded an administration of affairs the very opposite of that which belongs to times of peace; but for the very same end—the preservation of the institutions of freedom, which give security to life and property and personal liberty. To secure the permanent enjoyment of these blessings it was necessary that some of the safeguards which the wisdom of ages has devised for their protection should be suspended for a season. And this as a terror to evil-doers only. The loyal portion of the population not only submitted patiently to this change in their condition, they received it gladly. We were all of us content to be arrested and put into confinement for a time if the Government, under mistake, thought it necessary so to entreat us. That was a risk which every man had to run, and was willing to run, in order that the safety of society might be secured by the confusion of its enemies. We were content to take the chance of trial by military commissions ourselves, should ill-luck so order, that parricides might also thus receive their due reward. Had it not been so, the necessary measures of the President could not have been carried out. The consent of the people was the ultimate sanction of his action.

But the North was not absolutely unanimous on this point. In every city and every village there was to be heard the voice of lamentation and woe over the downfall of our liberties. The freedom of the press was at an end. Arbitrary arrests had destroyed all the safeguards of personal liberty. Martial law was taking the place of trial by jury. The President was a despot who had usurped all the powers of government, and had centred in his own person the executive, judicial, and legislative functions of the state. The vocabulary of abuse was exhausted and a new one imagined in order to express the sense of these lovers of liberty of his enormities. With all the power claimed for the repression of treasonable language, there was never a Chief Magistrate so well abused as was Abraham Lincoln for his assumption of unconstitutional powers. And this was only because of the point of view. These egregious persons, though standing on the Northern side of the line, had such a squint in their political optics that they saw everything from a Southern stand-point. Whatever interfered with the prosperous progress of the rebellion was unconstitutional and vile. The coercion of States at all, the invasion of the sacred soil, the exercise of martial law on either side the line, the freeing of slaves that sought the protection of our troops, the employing of negro troops, and, above all, the proclamation of universal emancipation, were all things monstrous, prodigious, abominable, and unutterable. For these were all measures for the destruction of the element of the oligarchy which had held the control of the nation for long years, and of which these blatant bellowers were the menials and the parasites, watching the countenances of their masters, doing their dirty work, and rewarded by the broken meat of their tables.

But time goes on. This very poisonous breath of treason filled the soul of the assassin with the spirit of murder. The great citizen, the daily beauty of whose life made more ugly all that hated him, fell at the moment of victory. Another and a different man reigns in his stead. In course of time it gradually comes to light that the new President inclines to reinstate the rebels, red-handed from the fight and breathing hatred and revenge against the nation they had failed to destroy, in the fulness of their political rights. His pardons shower down on the rebel region like the early and the latter rain. He claims that no laws should be made touching their political status as long as they are unrepresented in Congress. He vetoes the bill for providing effectual protection for the emancipated blacks until they are able to defend themselves, or the whites are willing to protect them. He attempts to crush another endeavor to include the negroes in a general recognition of the equal civil rights of all men, of all colors, within the United States, an attempt happily defeated by the response of Congress to the emphatic voice of the people. The immense weight of his official influence is thrown into the scale of rebel hopes. He celebrates the birthday of the Father of his Country by a fierce and coarse invective against members of co-ordinate branches of the Government for words and acts said and done in their places, and charges them with designs of treason, and even of assassination. All along this period of presidential development a marvellous change stole over the righteous souls of the former sorrowers for the lost liberties of their country. There is no such thing now as presidential usurpation. It was only when the despotic powers which war creates were used for the destruction of the rebels that they were of the devil. Now that these powers are employed, when the war is over, for the comfort and restoration to power of those rebels, they are the palladium of our liberties newly come down from heaven. And that these wholesome prerogatives may have no let or hindrance in their sway, it is urged seriously upon the President to drive Congress out of doors and set up for himself, with the aid of the elect rebels ready to come up to his help against the mighty!

It is lucky that these political philosophers are thus open-mouthed in magnifying the presidential office, as its incumbent holds the opinion, honestly we will not question, that he is clothed with the absolute power of dictating the terms on which the States lately in rebellion shall be restored to their rights in the national councils. It is well to know how far treason can propose to go, as we have no fear of the President's listening to its frantic outcries. Congress has, thus far, with moderation and dignity, vindicated the rights which the President himself, in his message, and repeatedly since, has declared to inhere in it. It may be trusted to continue unto the end. The people sustained Mr. Lincoln in his necessary exercise of the extraordinary powers given him by the Constitution because they were necessary. We may be sure that they will not sustain Mr. Johnson in the exertion of those powers now that the exigency requiring them is past.

THE FEDERAL JUDICIARY.

A BILL to remodel the judicial system of the Federal courts has passed the Senate of the United States. It proposes changes so great that they ought to be at least thoroughly discussed before being finally adopted.

A description of the present system will be necessary to the understanding of these changes. The system as it now stands was framed by the judiciary act of 1789. Under it the country is divided into districts, in each of which is a district court, which has original jurisdiction of all admiralty cases and of certain other classes of cases. Several districts are then combined into one circuit, and for each of these circuits there is a circuit judge, who holds circuit courts in each district. He hears all appeals from the several district courts, and his court has also original jurisdiction over almost all classes of cases cognizable in the United States courts of which the district courts have not exclusive jurisdiction. Then the circuit judges are all combined to form the Supreme Court, whose jurisdiction is partly appellate, the amount of $2,000 involved being necessary to carry an appeal to it, but which has also jurisdiction of controversies to which a State or a foreign ambassador is a party. Inasmuch as the circuit judges cannot be sitting in the Supreme Court and holding the circuit courts at the same time, the various district judges are also authorized to hold circuit courts in their respective districts in the absence of the circuit judge, or they may sit with him if required, but not to hear appeals from district courts.

This system has been in existence now for some seventy-seven years. The practice under it is quite well settled, and although there are some defects in it, yet it is doubtless true, as we once heard one of our most eminent lawyers say, that in none of the courts of the country can a cause be reached so soon or disposed of so well as in the courts of the United States.

The bill now before Congress proposes to abolish the circuit courts entirely, throwing into the district courts all the business heretofore done in the circuit courts except the appeals from the district courts. It then makes a court of appeals in each circuit, composed of the district judges and the judge of the Supreme Court for that circuit, any three of whom may hold a court. And it makes the decisions of this court of appeals final in all cases unless more than $10,000 is involved, or a construction is to be given to the Constitution, or a treaty, or a revenue law of the United States, or unless the court of appeals shall certify that the question involved is one of general importance.

The first noticeable change which the passage of this bill would bring about is that the judges of the Supreme Court will be thenceforth engaged wholly in the determination of questions of law. Now each of them in his own circuit every year holds terms for jury trials. He meets questions as they come up fresh in controversies. He sees the cases as they develop themselves on the trial. He has the witnesses before him; he sees the jury face to face. He is brought into fresh and living contact with the heart and life of the people, and his own sympathies with the people are inevitably quickened. A judge who is all his life devoted only to the examination of dry legal questions is almost sure in time to become narrow and technical, more careful of rules than of substance, tithing the mint, anise, and cummin of legal controversies rather than zealous for those weightier matters of the law, justice and equity. Moreover, these visitations of the various circuits by the judges of the Supreme Court tend to make the people better acquainted with that great national tribunal, which is one of the most important parts of the Government. They thus come to know more of the workings of that mighty machinery by which the Government of this great nation is carried on, and the relation between it and the people is made more close and living. The homes of the judges now are in the various sections of the country, and their stay at Washington during the session of the Supreme Court is transitory. They come to the performance of their duties there representing the interests and sympathies and desires of the people of the whole land, while if this change should be made they would almost certainly come to live all of them in or near Washington, and living in that atmosphere they would come to be not the great tribunal of the nation, but a tribunal in which the influences which gather round the capital would have constant and undue influence.

It is especially to be borne in mind that under our system the Supreme Court is not merely a means of determining controversies between citizens and about property—it is the arbiter among the States and between the States and the general Government; and for all those weighty questions which spring out of the complexities of our system it is indispensable that the Supreme Court shall be, and shall be understood to be, in sympathy with the whole nation. If its decisions shall come to be, or to be deemed to be, the conclusions of a small knot of gentlemen residing at Washington, knowing and caring nothing about the more distant members of this huge body politic, its influence will be gone, the respect for law which is of prime necessity in a republican government will be weakened, and a new class of dangers will be added to those which already threaten us.

If the measure in question were only to have this effect upon the Supreme Court we should deem its adoption disastrous. But this is not all. Its effect in another direction will be equally dangerous. It will give us in each of the ten circuits into which the country is divided a tribunal which has jurisdiction of great and weighty questions, and from which there is no appeal. Thus, instead of having one national system of jurisprudence, we shall have ten, whose rules and practice may be as diverse as the local interests of the different circuits. For controversies involving less than $10,000 (and by far the greatest number of litigations involve less than that) the court of appeals, composed of the district judges, is the final arbiter. For all questions arising under the laws of the United States other than the revenue laws those judges would have the power of final decision. At any time thus to divide up the jurisprudence of the country into different systems would be injurious, and would tend to increase sectionalism. But especially would this result follow now. We are coming out of times of great upturning, which have left innumerable questions for whose decisions we must look to the courts. But we are not so far out of our troubles as that the fires of sectional feeling will cease to burn. On the contrary, they are sure to burn fiercely for years. And this change in the judicial system comes just in time to expose the courts to the heat of those fires more dangerously than ever; and thus, precisely when the extension of one system over the whole land will tend to heal divisions, and to bind the sections together, it is proposed to set up a new system which shall give greater scope for sectional feeling, and assist divisions and widen separations.

Take, for instance, the cases which are to spring up involving the relations between the different races of the South. Was there ever a time in which the necessity of some great central judicial tribunal to which they shall be submitted was more apparent? And yet at this very time it is proposed to exclude them from the Supreme Court (for they will not involve the revenue laws of the United States), and to leave the determination of them to tribunals exclusively local. To cite one obvious instance: questions under the civil rights bill, except the question of the constitutionality of the act itself, will be by this bill carefully shut out from the Supreme Court.

There are defects of detail in this proposed bill, but of these we do not propose to speak. We only urge against the fundamental idea of the bill these two, as it seems to us, fatal objections. It sectionalizes the jurisprudence of the nation by setting up tribunals of final jurisdiction in each circuit; and it weakens the influence and the power of the central tribunal of the nation.

We have understood that some of the judges of the Supreme Court favor the change. If it be so, we cannot but express our surprise that they should be so short-sighted with reference to the authority and dignity of their own court and to the good of the nation at large.

THE PROGRESS OF RUSSIA IN ASIA.

DURING the last few years the extent of the Russian possessions in Asia has been continually increasing. Large accessions of territory on the river Amoor have brought Russia *vis-à-vis* to Japan, and close to the neighborhood of the capital of China. Extensive conquests and occupations to the east and south of the Sea of Aral have very materially reduced the distance between the confines of Russia and British India.

English and French ambassadors have met with and been foiled by Russian agents at Peking and Yedo; soon English and Russian soldiers may encounter each other on the slopes of the Himalayas. The knowledge of the exact extent of these recent acquisitions has been slow in reaching Europe, but such items of intelligence have been made known from time to time as strongly to excite the feelings of the western nations.

At the close of the sixteenth century the sway of Russia was acknowledged only between the Ural range and the Yenisei River—the area now embraced by the governments of Tobolsk and Tomsk, or nearly 1,200,000 square miles, between the 50th parallel of latitude and the Arctic Ocean. A century later she had appropriated the remainder of Siberia from the Yenisei to the Pacific—a territory, including Kamtchatka, of some 3,500,000 square miles, bounded on the east by the 190th parallel of longitude and on the south by the Yablonoi and Altai Mountains. In the last century, besides overlapping North America, she brought under nominal subjection the Kirghiz country lying south of Tobolsk, and containing perhaps 500,000 square miles. In the twenty years from 1840 to 1858 she pushed her military outposts to the southern boundary of this region, making her line of occupation about coincident with the 45th parallel of latitude, along the river Syr-Daria, a tributary of the Sea of Aral. At the same time, to the east, she acquired the present government of Amoorskaya, washed and accessible at pleasure by the seas of Okhotsk and Japan, and estimated at some 230,000 square miles.

The rich and fertile valley of the Amoor fell into the Russian possession by a mistake of the Chinese commissioners who ratified the treaty of Nertschinsk in 1733, by which it was agreed that the Yablonoi Mountains, in which rise the northern branches of the Amoor, should divide the two empires. The boundary marks were unaccountably placed to the south of this line, on the banks of one of these rivers. A chance discovery of the fact by the Russian Government in 1844–5 induced them to encroach still further on the Chinese territory. During the Crimean war General Muravief, who had been sent to provision the Russian fleet shut up by the allies in the harbor of Petropavlovsk, made a map of the Amoor, and occupied the mouth of it, under pretence of the necessities of war. A town was founded here, and the port strongly fortified, and vessels were fitted out, which, had it not been for the termination of the war, would have been let loose upon English commerce.

At the commencement of the Crimean war Admiral Putiatin, the commander of the Russian squadron in the Pacific, was shipwrecked on the coast of Japan, with which country he had just concluded a treaty. Cut off from his fleet by the allied ships, he was forced to stay in Japan, and for a long time had a camp at Simoda near Yedo. No European nation was then represented there except the Dutch, who were confined to their port of Nagasaki. The admiral, who was a skilful diplomat and had already thoroughly acquainted himself with China and the neighboring islands, busied himself with enlarging the influence of Russia in Japan, and left an impression which has not since been effaced. Escaping finally from the country, he sailed up the Amoor and arrived at St. Petersburg just when the Government most needed his advice, with propositions for establishing and equipping a powerful steam fleet in the East. He was followed presently to St. Petersburg by two Chinese commissions to protest against the invasion of their country. Their language threatened war, and war meant exposure of Russia's aggrandizement on the Amoor; and both might have happened except for the opportune alliance of England, France, and the United States for the forcible protection of their trade with China and for an extension of their commercial privileges. Russia agreed to join in the demonstration, for the general advantage of civilization; and as nobody understood this so well as Admiral Putiatin, he was given the command of a fleet and ordered to proceed by way of Siberia to join in the negotiation of the three other powers.

While they, from explanations and menaces, had come to open war and had occupied Tien-tsin, the admiral, without a fleet, was secretly negotiating through the monks of the Russian mission, the only Europeans residing at Peking. He managed so adroitly that without striking a blow he was the first to sign a treaty, and one that surrendered to Russia the whole territory on the left bank of the Amoor, and all on the right bank from the sea coast to the Usuri, one of its principal affluents. Simultaneously General Muravief with a large army entered into negotiations with Chinese ambassadors on the upper Amoor, and only two weeks later effected the treaty of Aigun, by which Russia obtained other and considerable possessions in this region and the right of navigating all the southern branches of the Amoor. These were both confirmed by another treaty ratified at St. Petersburg, September 10, 1858, and at Peking August 24, 1859. By this treaty the Russians also gained possession of the Chinese part of the island of Saghalien, and were assured the same privileges and commercial advantages that might at any future time be granted to the western barbarians.

When the allies entered Peking they found that the Emperor and all the officials had fled, and they were quite disposed to use the mediation of General Ignatief, who had come out as the successor to Admiral Putiatin. He greatly facilitated the conclusion of a peace between the belligerents, and, of course, reaped his reward by a new treaty, in which China ceded still greater possessions on the Amoor, and recognized as the frontier in Mantchooria the little river Tumen. By this means Russia gained a port open all the winter, and the boundary was transferred in five years from 62° north latitude in the Sea of Okhotsk to 42° north latitude in the Sea of Japan. A city has since been founded in this harbor, destined to be the great commercial centre of that region, and called Vladi-Vostok, *the ruler of the East.* Corea remains to complete the ambition of Russia in this direction. Its possession will enable her to make the Sea of Japan a closed sea at her discretion.

With Japan the Russian policy has been one of great conciliation, totally unlike that of the western powers. Instead of retaliating for injuries, Russia has extenuated them. She has never opposed the Japanese Government, but has always given it good advice in straits, and has encouraged opposition and resistance to the demands of other nations. Ambassadors dealing on these principles would find themselves much embarrassed by the presence of other European agents. Therefore, when Admiral Putiatin went to Japan after the treaty of Tien-tsin, where he was received most cordially as a former guest, he had inserted in the new treaty which he made that the Russian legation should reside at Hakodadi, a small northern port, but able to command the northern entrance of the Japan Sea, and not at Yedo, where were the representatives of other nations. Here the Russian embassy is situated on a mountain in the small island of Matsmai. It is strongly fortified, and contains houses, barracks, hospitals, and a school where young Japanese learn to read and write Russian, and act as unconscious missionaries of Russian influence, gaining as they do all their knowledge of Europe from Russian sources. Connected with this are docks and all the material and conveniences for repairing ships. In fact, Hakodadi is now the chief naval station of Russia in the Pacific. From its situation it can easily be rendered a second Sebastopol. A sufficient index of the powerful influence of Russia in Japan is found in the recent arrival of several Japanese youths in St. Petersburg, to be educated in the Russian military and naval schools.

Meanwhile extensive conquests have been made in Central Asia. We all remember a rectangular-shaped patch on our maps called Independent Tartary, with its three cities of Khiva, Bokhara, and Khokand, and with the Sea of Aral in its centre. Nearly two-thirds of this region are now within the Russian boundaries or subjected to Russian influence. We have already indicated the successive steps by which the empire had advanced to the Sea of Aral and the Syr-Daria or Jaxartes, and held the line by a chain of forts. Not content with this barrier against the Osbegs, it was preparing, in 1863, to invade Khokand, when the Polish war brought matters to a stand-still. The next year, however, the plan was carried out in the capture of Turkestan and Avlietta, by which the Russian frontier was displaced several hundred miles to the south. The Khokandians, worsted in subsequent engagements, fortified Chemkend to the best of their ability and made a stubborn but a futile resistance. The line of 1864, however, was still unsatisfactory to the conquerors. Pretending that in self-defence they had no other resort, they threw themselves still further up the Syr-Daria, close to the city of Khokand, enclosing in their lines the populous and flour-

ishing city of Tashkend, the key of Central Asia, and one of its principal marts. Its possession by Russia will not only develop the resources of the valley of the Syr-Daria, but will greatly stimulate trade, which henceforth will pass through Russia rather than through Turkey or India. Bokhara, another large trading city, is likely to follow the fate of Tashkend, and the Russian occupation to extend to the Oxus. In fact, an army is now acting against Bokhara, ostensibly to obtain the release of Struve, the Russian ambassador. Already there are Russian steamboats on the Sea of Aral which sail up the Oxus to Kungrat in the immediate vicinity of Khiva, and the whole country west of the Aral is Russian territory. From Khokand to Peshawur, in India, is but a thousand miles at most.

Vast as is the region thus held by Russia in Asia, it is her purpose to bind it together by roads and forts so as to present a consolidated front to attacking powers. A railroad is in progress from Moscow to Astrakhan and another projected from Moscow to Orenburg, and thence to the Sea of Aral. The immense advantages of such a position in case of a war with England are evident at a glance. With a telegraph connecting St. Petersburg with the Pacific fleet, and another, already partly completed, to Tashkend, British colonies and British commerce the world over would be exposed to sudden and perilous assaults before reinforcements or scarcely information could arrive from the mother country. Such a deplorable contingency we are sure the United States has not the heart to invoke, but it has of all countries the least to fear from the aggrandizement of its mighty neighbor, and is absolutely free from the jealousy of competition; which cannot be said of our cousins across the water.

QUARE TRISTIS?

Why shun, my soul, with downcast, cowed behavior
The strife that lowers?
Man's lot is pain; shall Satan or the Saviour
Attend on ours?

Still in the van is found thy conquering Warden;
And flight is loss.
The soothing angels of the grievous garden
Still haunt his cross;

And if, accomplished all thy craven fears,
That cross be mine,
On high the martyrs sing, Faith grows in tears
As pearls in brine.

If 't were not for the world, that comes between
With cares unmeet,
O, child of God, by thee the stars were seen
Beneath thy feet!

Thou, Father, fallest into no mistake.
We judge amiss,
And often choose the sordid things that make
Ignoble bliss.

Then bless us—but for this, with bended knee,
On Thee I call—
As we should pray that Thou shouldst bless if we,
Like Thee, knew all.

E. Foxton.

IMPORTANT UNPUBLISHED TESTIMONY AS TO THE CONDITION OF THE SOUTH.

The following report of the examination of a distinguished Southern general before Mr. Johnson and one or two members of Congress, at the White House, has not, for obvious reasons, as yet found its way into print. It has been furnished to us by a gentleman in whom we have the utmost confidence, but whose name we, of course, cannot reveal.

When General A——z had been examined before the Committee of Fifteen, the President sent him a note to say that he would be glad to see him in the evening to meet a few Congressmen. In the evening he came, and the following conversation ensued:

Q. By Mr. Howard: What is your name? A. Major-General A——z, late f the army of the Confederate States of America.

Q. What is your occupation now? A. Well, sir, I have n't had much time to do anything since the war ended; I have been looking after my family; my children were taken with the measles shortly after the fall of Richmond.

Q. By Mr. Doolittle: So your children have been having the measles, have they? A. Yes, sir.

Q. Has there been much measles in the South since the close of the war? A. A great deal.

Q. More than usual? A. Yes, sir.

(Mr. Doolittle makes a note on the destitution of the South.)

Q. By Mr. Stevens: Well, general, you need not answer, if you do n't think it 's a fair question; but have you got the measles yourself? A. I do n't think so; but I have n't much experience in such matters, and I may be mistaken.

Q. How are you living now? A. Well, it costs a good deal to live, now that prices are so high; I pay five dollars a day.

Q. By Mr. Doolittle: "Five dollars a day?" A. Yes, sir. (Mr. Doolittle takes another note of the destitution of the South.)

Q. I suppose that includes rent? A. Yes, but only for one room; every one who lives in the same house with me has to pay the same.

Q. Are you very crowded? A. No, there is quite room enough.

Q. How many of you live together in this way? A. Several hundred.

Q. Why, you must be living in a hotel? A. Yes, I always find it most convenient to do so when I come to a city for a few days.

Q. What are you speaking of? A. Willard's Hotel; I have been staying there for a few days.

Q. Oh, pshaw! That 's not what I mean. How are you living in the South? A. Oh, I must have misunderstood your question. As well as could be expected.

Q. Where is your home? A. Albany, Georgia.

Q. What is the state of feeling among the inhabitants of Albany with reference to the United States? A. Well, sir, I have not had much opportunity to observe the feelings of the people, as the measles in my family have kept me very much at home.

Q. What is the general feeling throughout the State about the result of the war? A. I think I may say, without hesitation, that the people generally seem to feel as if they have been whipped; but I do n't wish to express an opinion definitely on this subject, as I do n't take any newspapers.

Q. You do n't see any newspapers? A. No; I have felt it my duty to keep aloof as much as possible from politics since the close of the war, and have felt that it was the duty of the Southern people to attend to their private affairs and not interfere any more than was absolutely necessary with public matters. But I 'm only an old man, sir; you must not attach too much importance to what I say.

Q. What is the feeling with regard to the negroes, as far as you know it? A. The feeling to them is, as it always has been, very kind. Their old masters feel sure that they cannot do so well free as when under proper restraint, and, on that account, feel a kind of pity for them, which increases their kindness.

Q. You do not know of any ill-treatment to negroes since the war ended? A. Not at all. It has been found necessary in some cases to administer a little correction, because they were found to ask exorbitant wages; but there has been no cruelty whatever.

Q. Do you mean that they have been whipped? A. I do not know about that. I said before that I had thought it better to keep very much at home. I merely heard once or twice that a little correction had been administered; I do n't think I enquired what kind had been given. But I 'm only an old man, sir; you must not attach too much importance to what I say.

Q. What is the feeling to Northern men in the South, as far as you know? A. I do not feel qualified to speak distinctly on that point. In fact, I have only known of one Northern man passing through our town during the past year.

Q. And how was he received? A. Well, he was a correspondent of a Boston paper, I believe, and the inhabitants assisted him in his journey through the South as soon as they knew his circumstances. (Mr. Doolittle takes another note of the hospitality of the South.)

Q. How do you mean "assisted him?" A. I do n't know, sir, exactly; I did n't see him myself; I tell the story as I heard it from one of my acquaintances.

Q. How do you think a Northerner would be treated who openly advocated qualified negro suffrage on an impartial basis in Albany? A. Do you mean how he would be treated by the negroes? Q. No, sir, by the whites?

A. Well, sir, I have never thought of that question before, and I should want more information before I could answer it. Strangers are generally treated very hospitably in the South.

Q. Do you think that a negro could have a fair trial by a Southern jury now? A. Why, I suppose so, sir; juries are generally fair, I believe; I do not see why they should not be. They have been accustomed to trying negroes for a great many years. I think I may say that a Southern jury would understand better than any other men could the peculiarities of the negro character, and would probably, on that account, give him a fairer trial.

Q. What, in your opinion, is the capacity of the negro for education? A. According to my experience they have a considerable desire to learn; but, gentlemen, the fact is, that you can do nothing with the negro unless you thr——

Q. What, sir? A. Unless you educate him, sir.

Q. I suppose the white population of the South is hard at work? A. Oh, yes; every one is hard at work.

Q. Well, what are they doing mostly in Albany? A. Well, I think they are mostly assisting each other along.

Q. Do you know of any secret organizations at the South to break up the Union? A. No; I have not heard of any.

Q. Suppose that the Southern States could now secede from the general Government, would they do it? A. Well, I hardly know how to answer that question. I do not think that their opinion on the right of secession is changed very much, though it may be. But I 'm only an old man, sir; ou must not attach too much importance to what I say.

Q. Perhaps my question was not plain. In the event of a foreign war, and the invasion of the United States by a foreign power, would the Southerners take sides with the invaders or with the United States? A. Well, now, sir, you must really allow that 's hardly an easy question to answer. I think I may say that the course of the South would, under such circumstances, depend somewhat on circumstances. For instance, if Portugal was to invade the United States, I think it hardly likely that there would be a civil war; but, then, if England and France were to come, it would be hard to say what would be the result. I do n't know. I do n't really think I can answer your question distinctly.

Q. Well, in such a case, what would your own course be? A. I think that circumstances might make a decision very difficult. I have generally found a decision very difficult. But in such an event I should like, if possible, to remain neutral.

Q. What is your own opinion on the constitutional question of secession? A. I do n't think any of the Southern States have seceded. I think they are still in the Union.

Q. What I want to know is, what you think about their constitutional right to secede?

President Johnson.—You need n't answer that question if you do n't want to, general. Such a question as that should not be put.

A. Oh, I have no sort of objection to answering it. I have n't seen the Constitution for some years, and, as I understand it has been amended a good deal lately, I do n't feel that I can have an opinion on that subject.

Q. Did you take an oath to support the Confederate States while in their service? A. Well, I do n't exactly know, sir. I have taken a good many oaths during the past few years, and I do n't remember whether I took any on entering the Confederate service. I suppose I did take such an oath if anybody asked me to; but then I rather think it must be neutralized by two or three I have taken lately to support the United States. But I 'm only an old man, sir; you must not attach too much importance to what I say.

Q. What, in your opinion, has been the effect of the Freedmen's Bureau at the South? A. My feelings are too strong, sir, to sp-eak on tha-t sub-ject. Oh, Mr. Johnson—(the general's emotions here became so strong that the subject was dropped and coffee served).

SERVANTS FOR HIRE AND SERVANTS FROM DUTY.

In a country where poverty is oftener the result of imprudence than of misfortune, and where it is more difficult to keep wealth than to amass it, any attempt to inflame the poor against the rich must be set down to unworthy motives. There are, indeed, very excellent men among us who believe that property, when it has exceeded a certain limit of accumulation —a limit, by the way, which it is no easy matter to determine, even for the reformers themselves—becomes robbery; and who are accordingly in favor of sumptuary laws to prevent this excess. There are also individual instances not a few of men who, having moderate and of course definite notions of a proper competence, give over increasing their estate beyond the successful attainment of it, and perhaps are apt to think not harshly but compassionately of others whose notions are a little more extended than their own. There is a very just public disesteem of those with whom money-getting is an end rather than a means, and no exception can be taken to an earnest protest against mammon-worship. It is impossible that, with the examples of our Coopers, Bateses, Cornells, and Peabodys, comparisons should not be made that will be odious to less munificent millionaires. There exists, moreover, an altogether natural jealousy of the growth of a plutocracy which shall be able to elude or overawe the laws, and secure for itself substantially the privileges and immunities of an aristocracy of birth. Certainly it is not more equitable than democratic to demand that Ketchums in broadcloth and Ketchums in rags should receive and expiate the same sentence without favor or prejudice. These are not the appeals which we would expose as base and dangerous.

Within the past three weeks a representative whose seat was contested in Congress accused his competitor of owing his advantage to his wealth, and the House of oppressing the "poor but honest" choice of an equally poor but honest fragment of the sovereign people. Almost in the same hour an aspirant to senatorial honors was engaged in fastening odium on a rival (but not self-nominating) candidate because, forsooth, the latter was a gentleman of independent means, doubtless partly acquired during the war, possibly, as charged, by Government contracts, and therefore presumably through fraud, while he, the virtuous opponent, had an empty pocket which was a charm against the temptations of the world, the flesh, and the devil, and—what must be supposed relevant and to the purpose—had never betrayed the people and never would. In each case it was sought to be shown that the people, who are also called "the masses" and "the honest masses," were the victims, actual or contemplated, of a conspiracy of wealth impertinently pretending to represent their interests. Happily, the demagogism of these disappointed politicians was too transparent to be pernicious. It was notorious that the outraged constituency in the first instance had, in the most atrocious riot in the history of the nation, resolved itself into a band of thieves; and that the ousted member, having at first opposed the $300 exemption clause of the bill which regulated the draft of 1863 as a discrimination in favor of the prosperous, afterwards denounced its repeal as a discrimination against the poor. It was more than suspected in the second instance that the pocket so ostentatiously turned inside out for the public inspection, had a lining in preparation by an eminent professor of the sartorial art.

But the question may merit consideration that does not belong to the persons who have proposed it: Is the safety of our institutions imperilled by the office-seeking and office-holding of affluent men? Is our legislation likely to suffer in impartiality, purity, practical efficiency, or political soundness because of the great possessions of certain lawgivers?

Nothing is more certain, by our republican reasoning, than that the equality which we assert precludes us as much from disparaging a fellow-citizen for his superabundance as for his lack of this world's goods. In comparing candidates for a district or a State, there is no presumption one way or the other to be drawn from their pecuniary condition merely. As well insist that because Boston is rich enough to buy up the whole State of South Carolina, its representatives are better or less qualified than hers to direct national affairs for the good of the nation. Go one step further: enquire the history of this one's ease and that one's neediness. You have now, perhaps, a valuable test of character, which may or may not contradict your *à priori* conclusions. For there is such a thing as dishonorable poverty as really as ill-gotten gains. The destitution of the South, in contrast with the fatness of the free North, for example, has been a crime and in no sense an accident. So it may well happen that a Congressman's best warrant for the place he occupies consists in the fact that his income surpasses the aggregate of the salary of his compeers. The capitalist may be as good a republican as the workman, and a better political economist. Great professional success, accompanied by its profits, will anything but discredit the lawyer's exposition of constitutional law or incapacitate him for framing a bill. In short, wealth, acquired or inherited, is not incompatible with eloquence, loyalty, energy, wide experience, administrative capacity, along with the most thorough sympathy with the feelings and aims of the people.

What we have, in fact, to deplore is not the alarming number of rich politicians in quest of office, but the too great number of respectable, well-to-do men who studiously avoid all share in the conduct of the government. This is due to two great causes—the first, a neglect to exercise the right of suffrage scrupulously and on every possible occasion, or to recognize the obligation which it owns in common with every other right. Hence, especially in large cities, those long periods of misrule culminating in a crisis, when official knavery and delinquency must be voted down and out,

or the municipal life becomes intolerable. The men of standing and property, without regard to party, rally to the polls and help to fill the trusts which have been so abominably abused. But the spasm is soon over. At the next election the same class rally more feebly; the reluctant incumbents decline a second term of office; and the reins slip quietly back into the hands of those whose idea of public service is like Mayor Gunther's definition of patriotism—enlightened self-interest.

The second chief cause of indifference to politics on the part of moneyed men is the absence of any inducement, apart from an ambition for distinction, to accept office even when freely tendered. It would be a positive sacrifice to interrupt their business for a salary which would hardly pay their butcher's bill; and it is small blame to them if they generally decline to entertain the proposition. Commissioner Whiting abandoned a highly lucrative practice to assist the Government with legal advice, and returned his entire salary to the Treasury. President Schultz, of the Metropolitan Board of Health, relinquishes an income many times as large as his salary. Here and there one sees similar instances of high devotion, just as during the war all degrees of fortune stood shoulder to shoulder in the ranks. To censure those who decline to do likewise is certainly preposterous. Yet the spirit which induces this sort of political self-immolation deserves to be imitated as it is almost beyond praise. Because it is not more prevalent; because the salaries of office are so inadequate and untempting; and because office is to a greater or less extent a means of enriching the occupant—our legislatures are entered by veritable *chevaliers d'industrie*, or by venal politicians, whose only care is to vote according to their pledges on those public issues which divide parties and determine elections. The quarrels of corporations, the competition of private schemes, the thousand and one intrigues of a corrupt lobby, do not come before the people, and in the nature of things can neither be watched nor understood by them. They do not know how often a legitimate enterprise has to purchase a legal sanction for itself; how often an unsuspecting interest finds itself attacked by some filibuster in or out of the legislature, who expects to be bought off. They do not know with what comfortable consciences men can in this way bribe their enemies and outbribe their rivals, who would scorn to tell a lie or to pick a purse. We do not say that the simple remedy for this disease (whose symptoms are truly formidable) is to send none but rich men to the legislature; but we submit that they would if there be likely to head the list of the incorruptibles.

THE SOUTH AS IT IS.

FROM OUR SPECIAL CORRESPONDENT.

XXXVI.

BOSTON, April 11, 1866.

I WAS not able, in the space afforded my last letter, to complete the résumé of my observations in the South. I undertook then to describe the feelings of the white population there; to-day I wish to speak of the blacks.

The present condition of the negroes in the States which I have been visiting, if it be compared with their condition during the summer and fall of last year, will be pronounced prosperous. Though it is often denied, there must have been a great deal of anger and dislike in the feeling with which the Southern people regarded the newly emancipated slaves. The newspapers did now and then print an editorial article recommending a kind and generous treatment of the freedmen, and praising them for a faithful adherence to their masters through all the war. This I learned to look upon as being very often only an indirect expression of the Southern theory that the system of slavery was not hated by the race subject to it. For constantly, in almost every issue of almost all the newspapers, sometimes even in the columns of advertisements, were many contemptuous and injurious flings at the negroes, and the talk of the people among themselves showed that their opinions were better reflected in the correspondence and local paragraphs than in these occasional editorials. They were very ready to hear and repeat any story that made against the freedmen. The ignorance, the viciousness, the insolence of negroes, were insisted on. It was always assumed that the unknown perpetrator of any crime must be a negro; and in every way the observer was made to feel that in the South, however great in old times may have been the love for the slave, there was not much love for the freedman. He was led also to reflect that if the saying is a true one that man cannot be just to his neighbor unless he loves him, the future of the colored population, so far as the Southern whites should have power over it, would be anything but bright.

The negroes themselves were at that time furnishing people who were inconsiderate or prejudiced with an excuse for declaring that emancipation had ruined them as laborers. Impelled by various motives, many were wandering about without regular occupation or fixed abode. I met men plodding along Virginia and North Carolina roads who had come from distant parts of those States, or from distant States, seeking work or looking for relatives. One man I remember who had walked from Georgia in the hope of finding at Salisbury a wife from whom he had been separated years before by sale. In Louisiana, I met men and women who since the war had made long journeys in order to see their parents or children. I dare say there must have been thousands of such cases. Traversing the South Carolina roads in December, it was common to see parties of hungry, ill-clad negroes moving towards the coast country, whence, during the war, thousands had been removed for safety's sake, when it was feared that the lower districts would be invaded. They wanted to get back to the region with which they were familiar, or they thought to find employment in labor which they understood better than that which they were leaving, or they were set adrift by their employers, or it might easily be that no place could well be worse than the region in which they found themselves when the war closed. These were sights that seemed to fill every white Southerner with anger. A public officer of the State said to me, as we rode together in a stage, "See those d—d niggers! They think of nothing but crowding into Columbia. What do they want there?" Next day, in the office of the Freedmen's Bureau, I found an answer to his question. I saw there one of the men whom we had passed upon the road, and whose laziness had been bitterly condemned. He was old, half naked, foot-sore, and hungry. They had given him some army biscuits and promised him transportation by rail towards Georgetown District. "He could get work on a rice plantation there," he said, "and rice was his work; he did n't know cotton very well. He had been discharged by the man who hired him that year and had received no wages for all his work, except some bushels of corn, which he and his family had brought away on their backs. He had lived in the up-country three years, ever since his master moved him, but had been born and raised in the Pedee rice country." Of such cases as this too there must have been many thousands. I saw them occurring in all the months between August and January.

Undeniably the negroes were at that time somewhat ignorant of the right use to be made of their freedom, though the extent of this ignorance has, in my opinion, been much exaggerated. At no time, I think, has anything like a majority of the negroes thought that freedom meant exemption from labor. I have never met one who seemed to think so, and certainly at no time has the behavior of a majority of them shown that they entertained such a notion. Yet many of them were idle for weeks together, and were too apt to be lazy and refractory, to violate the contracts which they had made, and to set too high a value on their services as laborers. I remember talking with an old negress in Louisiana, who spoke contemptuously of the stupidity of the negroes living on the great plantations; they knew "nothing but just crop," she said; they stared at every little thing; it made her laugh. She accounted for their ignorance by saying that they were never allowed to go anywhere except on to the levee in front of the overseer's house, and so never saw anything. That such a people, and almost all were such to some degree, should have taken advantage of their new liberty to go away from the plantation and see what the world outside was like, is not strange. Moreover, on many plantations their freedom was only a name, a rumor. In many cases to leave the plantation of their birth was to leave a tyrannical master. In the towns they could see the Northern troops, and talk with the agents of the Freedmen's Bureau. So for months the negroes were restless, and got the ill word of every one incapable of making allowances for their peculiar position.

It is to be remembered, too, that most of the farmers and planters were cultivating but little land in 1865, and confined their attention to the raising of breadstuffs, so that many laborers were necessarily idle. In the summer and early autumn of that year, then, the popular Southern opinion of the negro was, very probably, lower than it had ever been before, and the negroes, without the aid of the Freedmen's Bureau, would have been more nearly defenceless before their enemies than at any previous time. The almost universal judgment was that laziness and improvidence were inherent in the negro nature, and that in much less than a century the negroes as a people would be extinct. The more hopeful saw in emancipation a great blessing to the South; white laborers would come in, and the black race would perish. The despondent thought that their country was utterly ruined by emancipation, the long heats of the Southern climate precluded the employment of white laborers, and the black race in a state of freedom was sure to perish. I may remark, in passing, that most Southerners who were much interested in the question seemed rather to look upon the

expected immigration of white men as a means of supplying Southern land-holders with a laborious and obedient peasantry than as the incoming of a class of men who soon would cease to be hireling laborers and become land-holders themselves.

Before January was gone the condition of the negroes began to improve. The operations of the Freedmen's Bureau, of which the influence was felt in almost every county, had at least familiarized the minds of the negroes and their former masters with the fact, not learned at once, that the slaves had been really emancipated. Numberless instances of wrongs redressed, of misconceptions cleared away by reiterated instructions, had taught both classes of persons much that both needed to learn, for it is true that the master has been found as much in need of enlightenment and advice as the freedman and more in need of close watching. Not infrequently, too, the master has needed assistance and protection, and I have never, I believe, known assistance to be withheld. I think the Bureau to have been of the greatest value to the South. Not that I have not met with officers belonging to it who were unfit for their positions. Some that I have seen were unfit to hold any office which would require judgment or character in him who administered it. But most of these officials whom I saw were laborious and tolerably competent public servants, and even in the rare instances where I found them disgracefully unqualified to discharge the duties of the post, it was impossible for me to deny that, on the whole, it was better that even they should be there than that no one should be there. Both the white and black population of the South are, in my opinion, incalculably better off than if the Bureau had not assisted in the passage from the old system to the new. Even some Southern men admit this to be true; but, of course, to the mass of the white people the Bureau is odious.

As the public mind became accustomed to the new order of things and was able to look forward instead of around, the planting community found itself in better courage than the planters themselves six months before would have thought possible. The change came over them about New Year. It often encouraged me, after the hopeless and truculent talk that I had been hearing about the worthlessness of the niggers, and the speedy extermination of the niggers, to observe that the actions of the speakers belied their words. For example, a man would say in the hotel parlor that no free nigger could be made to work, that the country was ruined, that the extinction of the whole race of niggers was a certainty and very desirable, and an hour afterwards I would perhaps learn from him that he was getting a vast farm under cultivation, that he was expecting to earn his living and probably make a fortune from the paid labor of some sixty or seventy freedmen, and that his intentions, so far as I could judge, were to treat his laborers with reasonable kindness.

This practical and humaner view of the matter was much more the general view in those States where I was travelling after January than it had been during the summer in the more northerly States. I ascribed it mainly to the fact that the negroes held in their hands, if no other power, the one power of freely selling their labor in open market. No doubt the existence of the Bureau and the consequent absence of State legislation in reference to this question had much to do with keeping the market an open one. Judging from what I saw in Georgia, Alabama, Mississippi, and Louisiana, I should say that a great majority of the freedmen are now receiving tolerably good treatment and tolerably good wages. To pronounce whether or not their wages are good enough I am not competent, and when I say that they are well treated, I speak of them merely in their character of men hired to labor. That there is any general desire or even any general willingness on the part of the Southern people to aid the negro in becoming as valuable a member of society as he might become, in educating and otherwise elevating himself, I do not believe. Whether or not the ability which just at the present moment he possesses, to secure for himself fair wages and exemption from bodily hurt, is to be taken as proof of the further ability to extort from his employers a fair chance in life for himself and his children, may well be doubted. It has not always been found the fact in other countries that a laboring class, because its labor is honestly bought and paid for, necessarily obtains all its social and political rights. And no such class in other countries, at least in modern days, has been opposed by prejudices so strong as those against which the negro will have to contend. Indeed, in my opinion, what he has gained already cannot yet be regarded as his permanent and secure possession.

I did not find the freedmen taking much interest in topics of this nature. They are, of course, very deficient in all knowledge of the life outside of their own painfully narrow experience. I speak now of the mass and not of a considerable class of negroes who seemed to me as well informed and as clever as most other men of my acquaintance. The majority are densely ignorant, and comprehend nothing of the meaning of politics. I suppose it may be called a deficiency of knowledge merely. Certainly I did not come away from the South believing that there was any body of men there unfitted by nature for exercising any rights that are exercised by American citizens. During the war the negroes, of course, sided with the North. They believed that if the North should be successful they would be freed. And to-day, so far as they can understand the questions which agitate the people, they are of the Union party. But I hesitate to apply the name of loyalty to their feeling towards the Government. They have never had a country.

Leaving out of view the present fitness of the freedmen to exercise the elective franchise, one who sees the condition of the South and perceives the general feeling of hostility to the Government is forced to consider the expediency of proclaiming universal suffrage. There is little doubt in my mind as to the side on which the negro vote would be cast. Years from now, it is possible to conceive, every planter may control the votes of all his negro laborers. But so far as this is a question of expediency at all, it is a question of to-day, and the pressing problems of American politics at the present time are such as touch the negro so nearly that they may be said to be his own personal, concerns. As regards these matters he would not remain in ignorance as to what men were his friends, and what men were not. The class-leader and preacher, the intelligent house-servant, the black men who are able to read, would save the voter from the deceptions of his employer. In the minds of the negroes there is always a secret distrust of the white man, and especially of the Southern white man. The coercive power of the employer, the coercive power of bitter prejudice among the great mass of Southern white men, would be obstacles more formidable. I think that the negroes unprotected by the military authority of the general Government would hardly be able to cast votes enough to alter the elections of any one Southern county. Yet I found some men, Northerners mostly, and negroes, who seemed to believe that the competition of parties would soon produce a favorable change in this regard, and they took a more hopeful view of the matter than I was able to take. I found the Union men nearly or quite as unwilling to see negroes voting as the secessionists are. All parties, I think, would agree that the first step must be taken by the general Government, or the desired end is many years distant.

I say nothing of the more general aspect of the grant of the franchise as a means of gradually elevating the freedman by giving him a power which might be as efficient to elevate him in other respects as the new power of selling his labor has been efficient in improving his condition as a laborer. As a means of aiding the loyal people to retain what has been won by war, it would, in my opinion, be powerful at the present time only when joined with the other means of doing the same thing—the military occupation of the South until she gives guaranties which cannot be revoked.

The work of teaching the freedmen, which is now going on, will not greatly affect the adult negroes. No great number of them, I should say, are under instruction. I found that the children, wherever it was possible for them to reach a school, were docile pupils, regular in their attendance, more laborious in application and more rapid in their progress than white children accustomed to the regular routine of school life. I think the parents are anxious to have their children taught, and may be expected to make sacrifices for the sake of educating them. It is not in their power to do much. It will be interesting to watch the course of affairs in Louisiana during the current year, where, since February, the colored people have been required to support their own schools. They believe that learning is to raise them to an equality with the white race, and are, therefore, eager for schools. I do not know why this feeling should not be of permanent operation.

I see that encouraging accounts of the industry of the freedmen are coming in from all parts of the South. My experience in the South, both as a traveller and as a resident and an employer of negroes, was such that I needed no reports of this sort to convince me that a negro fairly paid and otherwise justly dealt with, living under the same restraints of law which are found necessary for white men, is a satisfactory laborer.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, March 31, 1866.

SINCE I wrote last the reform bill discussion has entered on a new and somewhat more exciting stage. Gradually the Government has perceived, what any man with a clear head could have told them from the first, that the idea of passing a reform bill without agitation was as absurd as that of turning a windmill without wind. Up to the end of last week the chances of the bill passing seemed to be growing daily less and less; as each day went by without any indication of popular feeling on the subject of reform, member after member on the ministerial side began to feel the way for a secession to the opposition ranks. Then Mr. Gladstone, jealous as he is of

all antagonism, resolved to show his supporters he was not disposed to be trifled with. On the last night of the session he taught the House of Commons that, however languid in his advocacy he may have been at first, he was now in earnest about reform. Turning round upon the opponents who badgered him, he taunted them with their horror of admitting the working-men to the franchise, as if they were alien enemies, instead of being "our fellow-subjects, our fellow-Christians, our own flesh and blood." In fact, he adroitly transferred the issue before Parliament from the narrow one of whether the particular bill was good or not, to the broad and general one whether the working-classes were entitled to their due share of electoral power. On this issue he knew—and the House of Commons knew—he would have the Liberal party with him; and forthwith a number of the parliamentary malcontents resolved to defer any idea of deserting their cause till they knew how far the appeal would be responded to out of doors. The Government, as a witty critic said, has at last found a cry, the "citizen against the aristocrat." It is not a bad cry to go to the country with. The *mot d'ordre* has been sent down to the constituencies to get up demonstrations in favor of reform; next week Mr. Gladstone himself goes down to Lancashire to address meetings in the chief towns; Mr. Bright has thrown off the uncongenial moderation which has characterized his late utterances, and has written a letter to the Birmingham reformers in the true old Cobbett style, denouncing the "dirty conspiracy" of the Tories and Whigs, and expressing his conviction that the bill could be carried at once if its enactment were demanded by such a London mob as that which gathered together two years ago to welcome Garibaldi to England.

The fate of the bill and of the Government depends upon the response to this appeal. So far, the result has hardly corresponded to the hopes of its authors. In several of the larger towns meetings have been held in favor of reform; in many more they are announced as about to be held. But, as yet, the whole agitation has an artificial air. It takes a long time to raise public feeling in England. Next week we have our Easter holidays, when half the working-classes are more or less intoxicated; and the week after, Parliament meets again, and the struggle recommences. I do n't know whether the term is a common one in American political jargon, but I remember once seeing a politician described in your country as "being on the fence." Now, at this moment the Whigs are "on the fence;" and whether they step over into the field of reform or throw their feet into the field of opposition, depends entirely upon the amount of outside pressure exercised upon them. The common gossip of the clubs is that the bill will be allowed to pass the second reading by a very narrow majority, and will then be so mutilated and delayed in committee as to lose its claim to existence; in other words, as the author of "Eothen" is reported to have said, "it will be smothered instead of being strangled." But, then, I should add, I have invariably found the prognostications of the London clubs to be at fault about any question into which popular feeling enters as an ingredient.

Moreover, I cannot see that the liberal reformers are even yet prepared to state openly what they hope to effect by a more democratic Parliament. There are numbers of reforms, social, perhaps, rather than political, which an assembly elected in large measure by the working-classes would certainly effect; but to propose them, or even to suggest them, would be so unpopular amongst the governing classes that the advanced Liberals themselves are afraid to do so. For instance, anybody acquainted with rural life in England would admit, if he were honest and unprejudiced, that the system of administering justice by unpaid magistrates belonging exclusively to the land-owning class, is a very real and serious grievance. Of course, like all bad systems, it has something to recommend it. The exercise of their magisterial duties is one of the many inducements to English gentlemen to live upon their estates; and it is a popular theory in our ruling class that the whole frame-work of British society depends upon the residence of the "squire" on his estates. Moreover, the system, like other radically false ones, does not work *quite* as badly in practice as you would suppose it did in theory. The "gentlemen" are certainly more lenient to the laborers, when brought before the bench, than the farmers would be themselves. But this is about all that can be reasonably said: as between laborer and laborer, the country magistrates administer justice with substantial fairness, if without much regard to law. But in cases where class feeling is involved, a laborer meets with scant justice from a magisterial tribunal. A case which has lately excited some interest in England, seems to me to convey a juster impression of what our country life really is than a volume of dissertations. The vicar of a little village, Inkberrow, near Birmingham, is also a magistrate of the peace and the chairman of the petty sessions at the neighboring market town. The clergyman in question is, I believe, very active in his parish, and very zealous if not very wise. Two or three Sundays ago the children of the village school began playing during the service at the game of pitch half-penny. I should tell you that in an English parish, where the clergyman is at all active, any laborer who wants to stand well with the "gentle-folks" must punctually send his children to the Sunday-school; whence they are marched twice a day to church, to sit on benches where their feet cannot touch the ground and where they are frozen in winter and baked in summer. This, however, is a parenthesis. To resume: The wicked little Inkberrow school-girls not only tossed up half-pence in church, but they quarrelled about the payment of their losses. One child had lost a penny, and after some wrangling it was restored to her by another juvenile delinquent, who discovered she had a penny too much. Somehow the scandal came to the ears of the vicar, and he resolved that a dire example must be made. To the clerical mind irreverence in church is the worst of sins; I can recollect, when I was at school years ago, certain ill-conditioned boys kicked a hassock out of church as we were leaving the sacred edifice. I can remember that our master, who was a clergyman, gravely informed us that to the sin of disobedience we had added the crime of sacrilege. A similar opinion was probably entertained by Mr. Gray, vicar of Inkberrow. The chief offender in the squabble was a little girl called Aunty Ballard, eleven years of age, who had returned the penny the other child had lost. Her family were not, in Mr. Gray's opinion, well-conducted people; and she herself had had complaints made against her by her school-fellows. If her ears had been soundly boxed, no more would have been said about the matter. But Mr. Gray had resolved that the terrors of the law must be employed to convert the infant criminal from her wicked ways. So, on the following morning the village constable presented himself, by the vicar's orders, at the cottage of the Ballards, and walked the child off a distance of some miles, crying all the way, and consigned her to the lock-up on a charge of having stolen a penny in church. The keeper of the lock-up took her out of the cell because she cried so bitterly and gave her into the custody of his wife. The parents applied to get the child out on bail, but the vicar-magistrate refused to listen to any such proposition as calculated to injure the effect of his moral lesson. So this unhappy little child was kept in confinement till the following Friday, when the petty sessions met under the chairmanship of her persecutor. When the case was called on, the vicar announced that his object was attained. He admitted with a delightful candor that he knew he had no evidence to support the charge, that he never intended to press it, that he had caused the child to be arrested without a warrant or any formal deposition whatever, and that his only object had been to punish her for her general misconduct. In ninety-nine cases out of a hundred nothing more would have been heard of the matter. The parents of the child would have been told from the bench they ought to be grateful to the vicar for his kindness, and that they had better chastise the offender themselves; but, happily, some Birmingham people happened to hear of the case, and so public attention was called to it. The result will probably be the dismissal of Mr. Gray from the bench of magistrates, but beyond that nothing will be done. A child is always an object of sympathy; but of the country gentlemen who condemn Mr. Gray most strongly not one in a hundred will perceive that the general principle on which he acted was one indefensible in itself. To assert that the laboring class has a right not only to kind treatment but to perfect equality and independence, is still counted a heresy in our agricultural districts.

The other day a certain number of Kent laborers met together and founded a sort of trades union, pledging themselves not to work for farmers below a certain rate. If the union should prosper, a fact about which it is too early to express any opinion, this meeting would be the commencement of a social revolution. Practically, farm laborers are still to a considerable extent *adscripti glebæ*. Some few years ago I had an interest in certain mining works started in one of the home counties. The company which proposed to work the mine paid fair though not extravagant wages—about fourteen shillings a week. This was above the average rate of wages paid in the district; and forthwith the farmers assembled, and agreed not to re-employ any men who left their service to work for the company. The consequence was that they had to import laborers from a distance, and, as the enterprise failed, the neighborhood derived no benefit from the competition. The truth is, nobody can really understand England till they learn to what an extent the feudal system still exists in our counties. The majority of our Liberals are born and bred in the towns and the manufacturing districts, and know very little personally of English country life. It was my fortune to be born and brought up in one of the most agricultural of our counties, and therefore I think I know more about the real strength and weakness of England than many persons who would be looked upon as far higher authorities. One reminiscence of country life let me tell you here. In our

village there was a gentleman who had made his fortune in trade, who was not a man of much refinement or high culture, but who hunted with the hounds, and held his own in country societies. Like most self-made men, he was somewhat touchy about the respect paid him, and he noticed with surprise that his laborers when they passed him on the road never touched their hats to him. He remonstrated with them, and was told the reason was, that though he was a good master he was not a "gentleman born." He threatened to dismiss them, but the threat had no effect. They were very sorry, they said, to leave him; but touch their hats they would not for love or money. And so long as the passion of any Englishman is to become a landed proprietor, and so long as any instinct of country life is aristocratic in its tendency, I do not believe in this country becoming really democratic in its institutions.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, March 23.

DUELLING seems once more to be the order of the day. M. Brame, a deputy and a member of the *tiers-parti* in the Corps Législatif, in the course of a speech delivered lately in the chamber, cast some very severe reflections on the Paris press, which he described as the most venal press in Europe. A gentleman connected with the press sent him yesterday a challenge, and negotiations are still going on at the time of my writing. M. Paul de Cassagnac, son of M. Granier de Cassagnac, a deputy and journalist, who in his various speeches most strenuously opposed the liberty of the press, has also sent a challenge to one of the editors of *Figaro* for having, as he complains, spoken in disrespectful terms of his father. This affair is also still unsettled. Another rumor has spread of a dispute likely to be settled by the sword in the highest rank of society, but I should not be justified in giving you the names at present.

The young Prince of Denmark has made quite a hit in Paris. The *beau monde* say, "qu'il est brillant et spirituel." Every day some new *bon mot*, either really his or manufactured for him, is attributed to him and eagerly passed from salon to salon.

Speaking of illustrious visitors reminds me of the popularity of the young King of Portugal during his stay here. You will probably remember that while in Paris he paid several visits to the celebrated maestro Rossini. On one of these occasions, it appears, the young King promised Rossini that on his return to Portugal he would send him as a present some port wine such as he had never tasted. It appears, also, that on his return to Portugal the King forgot his royal promise, till the musician, tired of waiting, and determined not to lose the promised gift, wrote the following letter:

"You promised me some port wine, sire, and I have not yet received it. Your Majesty cannot surely have forgotten this promise. Kings forget nothing; but permit me, sire, to remind you that I am an old man, and that at my age one grows impatient at waiting."

I do not know whether the plain-spoken reminder had the desired effect. Very probably it had, and no doubt Rossini has already made himself familiar with that august wine, the flavor of which must have reminded him of *Don César's* famous monologue:

"Goûtons d'abord ceci—c'est une œuvre parfaite
De ce puissant poëte appelé le soleil!
Xères-les-Chevaliers n'offre rien de pareil."

Although we are in Lent, most of our fashionable saloons are still open for music and dancing. The soirée given by the Duchess of Fitzjames was most brilliant. The Princess Dadiani had a grand reception at the Hôtel du Louvre. There have been three official dinners at the Tuileries, and a ball on a large scale is contemplated by the Empress, but as yet no day is fixed. Finally, to wind up the winter (I mean, of course, the winter of the *monde élégant*), two fêtes are to be given by the Minister of Foreign Affairs for the benefit of the works of the schools of Saint Joseph. These fêtes are to be superintended by the Countess Tascher de la Pagerie, and are to come off on the 18th and 20th of next month. The unusually splendid scale upon which they are to be got up is already the talk of our fashionable faubourgs, and it is supposed that Madame Tascher, who lives at the Tuileries, will shortly be quite besieged with applications for tickets.

Prince Napoleon will leave Paris in a few days for Naples. He has succeeded in selling his hotel in the Avenue Montaigne, known as the Maison de Diomède, to M. de Quinsonas for nearly £50,000. This gentleman is also the proprietor of that magnificent hotel built by Prince Sothkoff which is contiguous to that of Prince Napoleon.

Our amateurs of dancing are anxiously awaiting the arrival of an *artiste* who surpasses everything that has as yet been witnessed. This young lady's name is Woronsoff. M. St. Léon has composed a ballet in order to show off the superior choregraphic abilities of this Russian *danseuse*, who has been engaged by the Académie Impériale de Musiqu

A new ballet was brought out the day before yesterday at the Italiens called "La fidanzata valacca," music by M. Maximilian Graziani. On the same evening the new opera of "Crispino e la Comare," by the maestri Ricci, was admirably well performed. The brothers Ricci are now in Paris, and superintended the rehearsals.

Within the last week we have lost two of our celebrated musical composers—M. Pacini and M. Clapisson. M. Antonio Pacini was born at Naples in 1778. He studied music under Cimarosa, Fenarolli, and Paesiello. In his younger days he was a great patriot, and joined Championnet in his attempt to establish a Parthenopian republic. He was one of the defenders of Castelnuovo at the time when it was besieged by Cardinal Ruffo and Ferdinand IV. in the presence of Nelson. The band of patriots commanded by Admiral Caracciolo were ultimately compelled to capitulate after an heroic defence. Notwithstanding this Caracciolo was hung and the prisoners decimated. Pacini made his escape and eventually reached Marseilles. Deprived of all resources, he made his way to Nismes on foot, where he literally fell down in the street through sheer exhaustion. Whilst in this position he happened to hear somebody standing near say that the theatre was in want of a violinist. He stood up and, as if encouraged by the remark, offered himself and was accepted. He soon became the general favorite of the town and eventually married a French lady. Finding his reputation on the increase, he came to Paris and brought out at the opera "Isabelle et Gertrude," which was performed for seventy-five nights consecutively. Shortly after this he was appointed music master and accompanist to the Princess Borghese, the Queen of Sweden, and several other high personages. He is the author of those popular songs, "Portrait Charmant" and "Mi giuri che mi ami." In those days foreign music was copied, not engraved, and it was Pacini who first published engraved copies. This maestro very soon became one of the most eminent of our music publishers. Rossini entrusted his works to him. His select evening parties were composed of all the most celebrated musical composers of the day—Rossini, Bellini, Donizetti, and Niedermeyer. On his general reception days were to be seen such men as Field Marchangy, Soumet, Duret, Emile Deschamps, and Chopin. Pacini never returned to Naples, but brought up all his children in the love of Italy. He lost his wife some two years back.

Clapisson, who was buried last Wednesday, was one of our sweetest composers, and wrote the opera of "Baron Trenck." He was also the author of several popular ballads and one of the professors at the Conservatoire of Music.

M. Cesare Cantù, the illustrious Italian historian, is expected in Paris at the beginning of next week. This gentleman was one of the deputies of the Italian Parliament, and lately visited Rome, where he had several audiences with the Pope and Cardinal Antonelli. It is said that his visit to Paris is connected with the Roman question.

The subscription for the erection of a monument to the memory of General Lamoricière has already reached 150,000 francs. Of this sum 100,000 francs are to be spent for a monument to be placed in one of the public squares of Nantes, and the remainder is to be devoted to charitable purposes and the erection of a monument to General the Marquis de Pimodan, who was killed at the battle of Castelfidardo, September 18, 1860.

Yesterday I paid a visit to the Champs de Mars to see what progress had been made in the building for the universal exhibition of 1867. I cannot say I was delighted so much as I was astonished. There I found a regular army of workmen amounting to some thousands, the greater portion of them dirty and ragged. Nearly every language in the civilized world was to be heard, and, for the first time in my life, I realized to my mind what the scene must have been at the building of the Tower of Babel. As to the works, one would imagine that pyramids were to be raised or several cathedrals built. Those who have not lately visited Paris would find a difficulty in recognizing the Champs de Mars. On all sides buildings are rising and the ground fetches enormous prices. But notwithstanding all this busy move ment one can form no idea of what the building will ultimately be, for as yet it has hardly risen above the level of the ground. This much is certain, however, that it will be opened in the month of May, 1867.

Correspondence.

ROBERT OWEN'S PHILOSOPHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In the number of THE NATION for March 8th appeared a notice of "The Life of Robert Owen," recently published in Philadelphia. The author begs to assure the reviewer that he takes his strictures in good part.

Indeed, he feels under a positive obligation to him for supplying so conclusive a reply to his own question, "Why was this biography written?"

If it is true, as the reviewer intimates, that "the philosophy which teaches that man is a creature of organization and circumstances—the subject of conditions and the result of law"—is the philosophy of Buckle and Draper, and that in combating it these are the men, and not Owen, who are to be met, the author of the biography readily admits that he is not "the man for that."

But, creeping comes before walking. While Buckle and Draper are moving among the savans, Owen is seen among the hard-fisted, bare-armed occupants of the workshop and factory. His theory is mature enough for the grade of mischief which it is designed to do, and his doctrines are strong enough to overturn the foundations of society, if once adopted; and why should a common, plain man like the author of the biography ascend to the uppermost seats of the synagogue of modern "sociology," where Buckle and Draper receive honor?

Far better that he should concern himself with the A, B, C of the science contained in Owen's "immature theory." And this is his apology for the book. Buckle and Draper are theorists; Owen applied his principles to living men, and the biography shows with what success. Out of Owen's egg will infallibly come Buckle and Draper's chicken, however difficult it may be to recognize one in the other. If a man is satisfied, from Owen's experiment, that in all social reforms reference must be had to the supreme law of Jehovah, which governs alike the motions of the planets and the falling of a sparrow, that man will never be a disciple of the Buckle and Owen school.

[We doubt whether the writings of Robert Owen are exerting the injurious influence upon the working-classes in this country that the writer of the above letter supposes. But, if they are, he is perfectly right in assailing them with all possible vigor wherever he finds them. We have no more sympathy with the drift and tendency of those writings than he has. We still believe, however, that his work would be better done if done with less of the theological, and more of the ethical and scientific, animus. His book does not sufficiently meet practical issues. We sincerely trust, nevertheless, that it will do good. —Ed. Nation.]

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

Mr. Alexander Strahan, of the firm of Strahan & Co., an English publishing house which opened a branch here last year, has something to say in a late number of "The Bookseller" concerning the way in which his firm has been treated by the authorities of the New York Custom House, and by several New York publishers, who sat like a jury on his invoices, and rendered some extraordinary verdicts. The facts of the case are that, in November last, Mr. Strahan sent three consignments of books to the agent of Strahan & Co. in New York, the market value of which books was £374 8s. 2d. They arrived here, but were not delivered to the consignee on the payment of the regular duty of twenty-five per cent., being detained by somebody in the Custom House until some New York publishers should have an opportunity to examine them, and to judge whether or no they were honestly invoiced. It was after the middle of January that the books were subjected to such examination, the result of which may be guessed from the fact that the first item which came up, one thousand copies of a little book published by Strahan & Co., and sold by them for eighteenpence in boards, and invoiced at the rate of sixpence a copy, was declared to be worth one shilling and ninepence in London! The consignee showed that the book was sold there in dozens, at eightpence halfpenny a copy; which led to the enquiry why it was invoiced at sixpence, whereupon he stated that it was sold for much less in thousands than in dozens, and observed also that Strahan & Co. had some time previously manufactured for an American firm one thousand copies of a three-and-sixpenny volume for tenpence a copy, which gave them a profit of ten per cent. This circumstance had no weight with the judges, one of whom declared that the transaction could not have been a regular one, and that, even if it were, it should not be made a rule. On a final appraisement the one-and-ninepence a copy, the pretended value of an eighteen-penny volume, was reduced to ninepence, with the intimation, however, that all the books were confiscated. The Custom House authorities offered to sell them to the consignee for £800, and then for £600, both of which offers were declined. The books being in demand, he made an estimate of the price at which they could be manufactured here, and offered that sum for them. It was accepted, as well, indeed, it might be, being just £400 in excess of the original duty of twenty-five per cent. Such, in brief, is the substance of Mr. Strahan's statement, no one particular of which has been, or attempted to be, disproved. The judgment which all fair-minded men will pass upon this case is not likely to be a favorable one, either for the American publishers who concerned themselves about Strahan & Co.'s books, or for the authorities who confiscated them. As regards the first, one of two things is evident, either that they were ignorant of the low rates at which books can be manufactured in England, which it is not easy to believe, for many reasons, or that they were determined to do what they could to keep English books out of the American market. A subsequent attempt on their part to have a double duty imposed upon foreign books, viz., a tax of twenty-five cents a pound in addition to the duty of twenty-five per cent., favors the last supposition, which is a discreditable one in whatever light it is looked at. For the Custom House authorities something can be said both for and against their action. It was their business, of course, to see that the Government was not cheated of its dues by the means of fraudulent invoices; but it was equally their business to know the value of what they were to collect duties upon. They attempted to arrive at this knowledge in the case of Strahan & Co., but did not succeed, not much to their regret, we may suppose, since the Government was benefited to the extent of four hundred pounds. The office of appraiser of books, if there be such an one, demands a familiarity with books, new and old, and a remembrance of prices possessed by very few men, and scarcely to be expected in one at all likely to attain such an office. It is not too much to say that neither the present incumbent nor his predecessor possessed these requisites. The former was much complained of for the delays which attended his examination of books, especially old books, which we have known to be detained for weeks in his department. How unfitted for their places ordinary appraisers of books sometimes are may be gathered from the fact that one of these officials once seized the reprint of the first folio of Shakespeare, which was invoiced at £5, its full value, for the first folio itself, which, he justly observed, was worth £100. He had to be shown the date of the reprint, which was some two hundred years later than that of the original edition, before he could be convinced that the Government would not be defrauded by his passing the volume at the price it was invoiced. To return to Strahan & Co. They have been hardly treated by the Custom House and the trade, but they must not confound these interests with the expression of American feeling towards them. They publish good books and good magazines, both of which we need, and there is no reason why they should not succeed in New York as they have done in London.

—The list of new books in press by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields promises an unusual amount of good reading for the summer and fall months. It is as follows: "Life of Josiah Quincy, of Massachusetts," by his son, Edmund Quincy; "The Origin and History of the Books of the Bible," by Calvin E. Stowe, D.D.; "The South Since the War," by Sydney Andrews ("Dixon," of the Boston *Daily Advertiser*); "Biglow Papers, Second Series," by James Russell Lowell; "Royal Truths," by Henry Ward Beecher; "Summer Rest," by Gail Hamilton; "The Picture of St. John," by Bayard Taylor; "Life and Letters of James G. Percival," by Julius H. Ward; "The Masquerade and Other Poems," by John G. Saxe; "The Yankee in Canada," by Henry D. Thoreau; "The Complete Poetical Works of Miss Muloch;" "Fifteen Days," by the author of "The Record of an Obscure Man;" "Spare Hours, Second Series," by Dr. John Brown; "Drift, a Sea-shore Idyl, and other Poems," by George Arnold; "Journal of Travels in Brazil," by Professor and Mrs. Agassiz; "Treasures from the Prose Works of John Milton;" "Companion Poets, Volume Second;" "The Complete Prose Works of John G. Whittier" (new edition); "Rainbows for Children," new edition; "Breathings of a Better Life," edited by Lucy Larcom; "Lectures on Greece, Ancient and Modern," by the late President Felton; "Boys' History of England," by Charles Kingsley; "Christina Rossetti's Poems;" "Stories of Many Lands," by Grace Greenwood; "Mrs. Aker's Poetical Works;" "Character and Characteristics," by E. P. Whipple; "Dante's Vita Nuova," translated by Charles E. Norton; and "The Divine Comedy of Dante," translated by Henry W. Longfellow.

—Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have in preparation a complete and uniform edition of the works of Lord Macaulay, based upon the last English edition, edited by his sister, Lady Trevelyan. It will be comprised in sixteen or seventeen volumes crown octavo, the first instalment of which, the "History of England," will be published early in May. It will be followed, at

intervals, by the speeches, the essays, the poems, and the introductory report on the Indian penal code, with the notes appended to that code, explaining and defending its leading provisions. The letters of Lord Macaulay to the Bishop of Exeter, touching that divine's criticisms in regard to some of his statements concerning the Church of England, will be given in an appendix, when they will see the light for the first time in this country; and a number of notes will be added showing the main points of the controversy between Lord Macaulay and the defenders of Penn.

—Autographs of Gray, the poet, are not of common occurrence, and when in the market they usually command high prices, as witness the sale of the original manuscript of the "Elegy," twelve years ago, for £131. They occasionally turn up, however, at reasonable rates, three now being on sale in London. The first, which is in the catalogue of John Waller, dealer in literary curiosities, is a collection of holograph extracts containing love songs from the French, among which is the famous one of Henry the Fourth, "Ma charmante Gabrielle," and a satire on Rousseau, mentioned in the correspondence of Gray and Mason; selections in Greek, Latin, and English; besides a long list of biographical extracts upon Italian history, curious pamphlets, etc., in the library of Cambridge University. This manuscript, which consists of seventeen pages, may be had for two pounds ten shillings. The second and third relics, which are books that once belonged to Gray, are in the catalogue of Francis Harvey. They are, first, "London and its Environs Described; being an account of its Publick Buildings, Gentlemen's Seats and their contents, and whatever is most remarkable for Grandeur, Elegance, Curiosity, or Use," six volumes octavo, filled with illustrative and corrective notes in the handwriting of Gray, relating to antiquities, pictures, people, and things, all of which is set down at nine guineas; and, second, two pocket-books of the years 1755 and 1760 filled with Gray's notes, mostly concerning his studies in botany and natural history, which pocket-books are not dear at the five guineas demanded for them. Mr. James T. Fields, of Boston, who was in London when the Gray collection was sold, has one or more of his books in his possession; and a collector of this city has the good fortune to own Gray's copy of a collection of old voyagers and travellers, Marco Polo, Mandeville, Benjamin of Tudela, and others, in French—a splendid quarto filled with notes in the neat, punctilious handwriting of the poet, and of great interest as showing the extent of his reading on out-of-the-way subjects, as the geography of ancient Asia and the dynasties of Turkish and Tartar kings. This volume, which was printed at the Hague and is adorned with fine engravings on steel, formerly belonged to Gray's friend, Mason, whose book-plate it has, and, later, to William Mitford, the editor of some of Pickering's "British Poets." How it was allowed to cross the Atlantic is a mystery which we have never been able to explain.

—There appeared fifteen years ago at Allahabad the first part of "The Life of Mohammed, from Original Sources." This work, which brought the history of the Prophet down to his arrival at Medinah, two months later than the Hejira, was written by Dr. A. Sprenger, who had had access to many old and curious manuscripts which were not known to the Arabic scholars of Europe, and whose value was at once recognized by them. Ten years passed and no further instalment of it was published, but at the end of that time Dr. Sprenger brought out, at Berlin, the first volume of a German work on the same subject, the third and last volume of which was recently published, the whole being the best life that we have yet had of the founder of the Mohammedan faith. The view taken by Dr. Sprenger of Mohammed is, that he was not the creator, but the creature, of the circumstances that surrounded him, the force of which led him to assume the character of a prophet, and so to become the founder of a new faith. He removes him, in short, from the pedestal of good or evil on which previous biographers had placed him, and brings him, as he should, within the pale of history, where his life and character are at least intelligible.

—The volume of monographs of the Palæontological Society for 1864 will shortly be issued, and the volumes for 1865 and 1866 are in preparation, many of their illustrations being already printed. Among other subjects they will contain five new monographs: "The Crag Foraminifera," by T. R. Jones, W. K. Parker, and H. B. Brady; "Supplement to the Fossil Corals," by Dr. Duncan; "The Crustacea of the Older Formations," by H. Woodward; "The Silurian Brachiopoda," by Mr. Davidson, with an introduction by Sir Roderick Murchison; and "The Fishes of the Old Red Sandstone," by R. Lancaster and J. Powry. Four monographs will be continued from earlier volumes: "The Cretaceous Echinodermata," by Dr. Wright; "The Trilobites," by J. W. Salter; "The Belemnites," by Prof. Phillips; and "The Pleistocene Mammalia," by B. Dawkins and W. A. Sandford. The two new volumes may be looked for before the close of the present year.

—Mr. John Russell Smith has lately published, under the title of 'Shakespeare's Jest Book," that famous old collection, the "C. Mery Talys." An edition of this work was reprinted in 1864 by Mr. W. C. Hazlitt, the editor of Marston and Lovelace, from the only copy then known to exist, which was discovered in 1819 by Mr. Conybeare, and reprinted at the time by Mr. Singer. This copy was imperfect in several places, twenty-six of the tales wanting whole lines, while six were too much damaged to be deciphered at all. A perfect copy has since been discovered by Dr. Herman Oesterley in the University Library at Göttingen, bearing the imprint of Rastell, and the date of 1526; but whether that or the previously discovered fragment is the original has not yet been settled. The difference between the two copies is considerable; Dr. Oesterley's, while it omits three tales, contains four tales, and three "morals," not included in Mr. Hazlitt's reprint.

—The last number of Trübner's "American and Oriental Literary Record," which has now completed its first year, contains a summary of the number of works recorded therein during that time, amounting in all to 4,360 in different languages. Of these 1,775 were published in the United States, 110 in Canada, 22 in Mexico, 69 in Cuba, 135 in Peru, 128 in the Argentine Republic, 40 in China, 78 in Holland and India (relating to the Dutch possessions), and 55 at Constantinople. The number of English books published in India and catalogued in the "Record" is 343, which is considerably less than those in its native languages and dialects, amounting to 411 Sanscrit works, 29 Gujarati, 78 Hindustani, 92 Hindi, 105 Marathi, 369 Bengali, 28 Malay, 13 Malayman, and 25 Canarese, most of which have now been for the first time introduced to Europe. The "Record's" list of works on special subjects is much the largest ever published, its fifth number, for instance, embracing 122 on the "Zendavesta and the Zoroastrian Faith," and 186 on our late civil war. The Dante celebration of last spring brought forth a literature of its own, of which the "Record" chronicled 134 specimens, in Italian, French, German, and English. Thus much for what the "Record" has already done. In future numbers we are promised a full account of Mexican literature during the last ten years, and details of the works published in Guatemala, Chili, Venezuela, New Granada, Ecuador, and Bolivia; an important list of works relating to Persian, Arabic, and Turkish literature, besides an interesting account of Jewish literature in Hebrew. Altogether the "Record," brief as it is, is the most valuable work of the kind ever published, and one which no person interested in Oriental studies should be without.

—The difficult feat of two men writing novels, as Beaumont and Fletcher wrote plays, and with the success which crowned the joint authorship of those brilliant masters of our early drama—a feat never attempted, we believe, in England, and but once in this country, when the late G. P. R. James and Mr. Maunsell B. Field produced between them a forgotten novel, "Adrian, or Clouds of Mind"—this remarkable feat, we say, has been, and still is being, accomplished in France, by two writers of repute, Emile Erckmann and Alexandre Chatrain, who have written together at least six novels within the last four or five years. These novels, which are published with the names of both authors interlinked on their title pages—"par Erckmann-Chatrain"—are worthy of being better known than they appear to be in England and America, redeeming, as they do, the character of French fiction, which is at present under a cloud outside of France, and against the sins of which they are at once a protest and a corrective. They differ as widely from the common run of French novels as Freytag's "Debit and Credit" did, and does, from those of Germany, showing the possession of certain qualities which are rather English than French, and which, so far, have found their fullest fruition in the author of "Waverley." The earliest works of the Erckmann-Chatrain firm, "L'illustre Docteur," "Contes Fantastiques," "Contes de la Montagne," "Maître Daniel Rock," and "Contes des Bords du Rhin," attracted but comparatively little attention, although they prepared the way for the large circle of readers which these writers can now command. It was not until the appearance of "L'Invasion, ou le fou Yégof," four years since, that they began to have a name. This novel, which originally appeared in the "Revue des Deux Mondes," is a history of the invasion of 1814, related by an old huntsman of the Vosges, who witnessed it, and the desperate deeds of a handful of peasants who attempted to resist it, headed by a visionary and madman, "le fou Yégof." It was followed the next year by a volume containing "Confidences d'un Joueur de Clarinette," a simple but most pathetic story, told by its hero, a poor village musician who had been crossed in love, and "Les Amoureux de Catherine," a vivid and truthful picture of village love. Then came "Madame Thérèse," the history of a *cantinière* who followed the republican armies or

1792, and was left for dead after an engagement with some Austrian troops in a village of the German Vosges, where she was found and borne to the house of the village doctor, who restored her to health, fell in love with her, embraced her republican notions, and finally married her. Within the last three years the greatest of the Erckmann-Chatrain novels have been published—"Le Conscrit de 1813" and "Waterloo (suite de Conscrit)," which describe the incidents of a soldier's life, and with such vividness and truthfulness that it is not easy, while reading them, to regard these works as fictions. The air of *vraisemblance* is admirably kept up, the authors never for a moment forgetting the personality and surroundings of the young soldier whose autobiography they are writing, and whose condition they realize perfectly. Never before in fiction was the story of the latest of the Napoleonic wars so well and so effectively narrated; every page is a picture; and what a lesson runs through all, if only the French people had the wit to see it! The subsequent works of Erckmann-Chatrain are "L'homme du Peuple," a story of the Revolution of 1848, issued last year, and "La Maison Forestière," which was recently published. Of the authors of this remarkable series of novels we know little, except that they were born in one of the eastern departments of France, and were brought up together from childhood. Like the gallants in the old comedy who always "hunted in couples," they never write except together. "We hold the pen by turns," they have said, "and we should be sorely puzzled, as regards many pages of our works, to say by which of us they were written." It will not be long, we fancy, before the Erckmann-Chatrain novels will be translated and republished here. At any rate, the two best could not fail to be successful.

—A strange and wild, but remarkable, genius was Alexander Petöfi, a Hungarian poet, whose writings have been lately translated into German by K. M. Kertbeny. The son of a poor butcher, Petöfi learned nothing at school, from which he ran away to become an errand boy, a soldier, a bad actor, and, what is much the same thing, a vagabond. He managed, however, to pick up one or two modern languages, and to be a poet. An Hungarian newspaper, whose "poet's corner" he probably filled gratis, having encouraged him, he set out one day in the middle of winter to walk from Debreczin to Pesth, with his manuscripts under his shirt, a stout stick in his fist, and only three shillings in his pocket. Reaching Pesth, he introduced himself to the leading poet, Vörösmarty, who, after hearing him recite his poems, said, "You are the only lyrical poet that Hungary has ever had, myself not excepted. We must take care of you." From that time Petöfi was a made man, his mind and his poetry refining with wonderful rapidity; the latter, indeed, flowed from him with marvellous fluency and ease. He became a journalist and a politician, and when the Hungarian Revolution broke out served as an aide-de-camp under General Bem, disappearing at the battle of Schässburg, where Bem only saved himself by plunging into a bog. Petöfi's body was never found; no trace was left of him except his poetry, which has left its mark in Hungarian literature. It is by turns like that of Byron and Burns—like Byron's in energy and fire, though much inferior to it in feeling and thought; and like Burns's in its intense nationality. Petöfi seems indeed to have been to Hungary what Burns was to Scotland—the poet of the land and the people. So far as we know, none of his poems have yet been rendered into English.

THE PROTESTANT CHARITIES OF EUROPE.*

When a book begins its travels, *paucis ostendi gemens*, an ambitious title is often as unfortunate for it as for the human traveller to whom Horace compared it. "James Prince, of Boston," making the grand tour, found that he was served and charged at the hotels according to the common estimate of a prince's revenue, and it was not until he changed the equivocal title that he was allowed the exemptions of an ordinary guest. In styling this book "The Charities of Europe," the publisher has secured a taking name at the risk of a keen disappointment on the reader's part when he finds that it is only a dozen of the *Protestant* charities of the *Continent* of Europe that are here described. Nothing is said of the great English and Scotch charities, nothing of those of Belgium, Italy, Austria, or the other Catholic countries; and of the Protestant establishments of France, Holland, Switzerland, and Germany, which certainly are to be counted by the hundred, only fourteen are here included. Nor does the writer attempt to give any general view, or even a list of those which he omits to describe.

Indeed, this book is but a chapter in the history of the charities of Europe, a history which still remains to be written or compiled by somebody tolerant enough to do justice to Catholic and Jew, Greek, Armenian, and Mohammedan. Mr. De Liefde is not such a man. He looks upon all who are outside of his church as enemies or insignificant persons, and takes frequent occasion to gird at Papists and Pantheists. Yet we owe him many thanks for the book which he has written. It is not perfect nor all-embracing, but it is a good beginning, and we apprehend that the author himself will see the importance of continuing it. He has the credit of writing the most complete and recent account of several of these establishments which has appeared in English, and of having collected more information of a personal nature in regard to their founders and managers than could easily be found in any language.

The plan of the work is simple, and, perhaps, the best for the author's purpose, though not the most instructive to the collector of statistics. We have, first, some little description of the place where the establishment is; then a minute account of the life, character, and religious experiences of the founder and his friends; then some details of the history and management of the establishment; then a few statistics; the whole being interspersed with observations and reflections such as would naturally occur to a person telling the story of such an institution. In this way the interest of the reader is kept up, his love of personal incident and dramatic situations is gratified, and he learns to admire and love the benevolent characters who appear and disappear as the story goes along. But he does not always get a clear impression of the working and results of each establishment, or how it is related to the others, or what is necessary to complete its usefulness. Nor is there much method in the arrangement of the chapters. The first establishment described is that of Herr Wichern, near Hamburg, for neglected and vicious children, founded in 1833; the second is Pastor Fliedner's Deaconess House, at Kaiserswerth, also founded in 1833; but the same volume contains Father Zeller's School at Benggen, founded in 1817, the Deacon House at Duisburg (1844), the Asylum for Discharged Prisoners at Lintorf (1850), and the Orphan Home at Neuhof, opened in 1825. It is evident that neither the order of time, nor of classes, is here followed; nor does it appear that the establishments are described in the order in which they were visited by Mr. De Liefde. In the second volume there is greater uniformity, several establishments of the same class being treated successively; but among the eight there described, there are at least six different classes, and the dates of foundation range from 1819 to the present time.

Indeed, the whole arrangement of the volumes, as well as the style of writing, shows an artless desire to get the facts before the public, without the slightest regard to any method—logical, chronological, or practical. This entire neglect of rhetoric, as we Anglo-Saxons understand that art, is sometimes laughable enough; but, on the whole, it gives a pathetic charm to the recital, in which good faith, humanity, and good sense are at least as conspicuous as bad writing and the lack of an index. This latter deficiency, indeed, is, in part, made up by the running titles at the head of the pages—a style of printing which we would recommend to American publishers.

The best known of all the establishments described by our author is, probably, that of Herr Wichern, commonly styled the *Rauhe Haus*, a name emended by Mr. De Liefde into *Ruge Hoos*. His readers, we fancy, will keep to the old name, but they will learn much that is new from the author's chapters.

We could wish that he had noticed more fully the strong opposition existing in Prussia to the peculiar brotherhood founded by Wichern, in connection with his original enterprise. There must be some reason in the censures passed by Dr. Von Holtzendorff and others who have attacked this interesting order, and we would gladly have seen the matter discussed by Mr. De Liefde.

It will at once occur to persons familiar with American reformatories, how wide is the difference between all these and the multiform establishment of Wichern. Perhaps that which resembles it most closely is the Reform School of Ohio; and this not only in its family system, but in the religious tone of its instructions, and the brotherly relations of the teacher to the pupils. No girls, however, are received at Lancaster, Ohio, while they have been long taught at the *Rauhe Haus*. Our House of Refuge at Randall's Island receives both boys and girls, and so do those at Pittsburgh, Baltimore, and Providence; but, we think, the feeling against associating vicious boys and girls in the same reformatory is growing stronger in the United States. Mr. De Liefde favors their association under proper restraints, and we commend what he says to our countrymen.

We cannot notice, in detail, all the establishments described by our author; we must pass over Fingado's, at Lohr-Dinglingen; Pastor Heldring's, at Hemmen; Suringar's "Dutch Mettray," at Zutphen; and others, of which we would gladly speak. But we cannot omit all mention of Pastor Bräm's unique colony at Neukirchen, in Rhenish Prussia. We call this a colony, not because it is a farm school, like the French Mettray, and its Dutch copy, but because its plan is to colonize neglected children in the families of

* "Six Months Among the Charities of Europe. By John De Liefde. Volumes I. and II., pp. 433, 490." Alexander Strahan, publisher, London and New York.

a wide district without a long previous residence at a reformatory. This has been for twenty years the favorite plan of Bräm, as it was, also, that of old Zeller at Benggen.

"I thank God," wrote Father Zeller, in 1829, "that so many refuges have been opened from the Baltic to the Lake of Geneva. But, dear friends, the establishments are not sufficient, and *but for God's gracious care they might even turn hot-beds of corruption. I therefore beseech you not to rely on them, and least of all on the large ones.* To strike at the root of the evil, the rescuing of neglected children *must become a concern of the Christian family*, and their education must be carried on in the Christian family circle. If in each community only two or three of the poorest children were trained by a Christian schoolmaster, or some other head of a family, something good would be effected. . . *Gradually all existing establishments for training poor children would be superseded.* What is the reason there are no children from Steinthal in our establishment? Because, so long as the Spirit ruled in Steinthal, through that man of God, Oberlin, no child was neglected in the community. And how was it that there were no neglected children at Steinthal? Because there were always some married couples there who voluntarily took the orphans of their deceased neighbors."

During the eighteen years from 1845 to 1863 nearly 300 children were provided for by Bräm, on the principles of Zeller, and with very successful results. The cost of supporting these children has been about fifty dollars a year for each. This is considerably less than their cost in large reformatories, either on the Continent, in England, or in America; while the system itself is believed to be much better for the child, provided the visiting agent (*Diaspora-Pfleger*) attends faithfully to his duty. Such a system has been recommended in Massachusetts, but, apparently, without any knowledge of the Neukirchen experiment.

We wish we had room to speak of Jean Bost's establishments at Dordogne, in France; but we can only refer our readers to the book itself, and to an article which appeared last April in a London magazine, called "Meliora." In some respects this article is more full than Mr. De Liefde's chapters.

The typography and illustrations of the volumes are good, and the work itself deserves a faithful reading by all philanthropists.

NORTH OF THE ZAMBESI.*

It would probably not be an easy task to decide whether Dr. Livingstone's sixteen years' continued residence in South Africa (1840–1856), during which he explored the region of Lake Ngami, discovered the Victoria Falls, and traversed the interior of that continent from the Cape of Good Hope to Loando on the Atlantic, and thence to the mouths of the Zambesi on the Indian Ocean, or his more recent series of African journeys, embracing chiefly the valleys of the Zambesi and its tributaries and Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa, has been more productive of important or interesting results. Nor would a judgment of that kind strictly belong to the sphere of a literary review of the book before us. The results of both the great travelling periods of Dr. Livingstone's active life are almost universally known as a part of the record of African exploration. What we cannot refrain from stating here by way of comparison is that, as a book of travels, the "Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi" is, in many respects, greatly superior to the "Missionary Travels and Researches in South Africa," which described the explorer's earlier labors. The new narrative, owing perhaps in part to the co-operation of the younger brother, both as observer and writer, is so rich throughout in lively, terse, and graphic sketches of tropical scenery, of vegetable and animal life, of human savagery in its manifold forms, and of endlessly varying incidents, and so replete with interesting observations, instructive natural comparisons, and piquant or humorous remarks, that we would fain declare it a masterpiece, were it not obviously an unartistic as well as unsystematic mass of details, descriptions, and reflections. But this *négligé* forms one of the principal charms of the book, though it also diminishes its scientific value. The freshness, though not the form, of a diary is preserved throughout. We are made to accompany the traveller from the beginning to the end of his journeys. We observe and study with him everything in its parts, rarely anything at once in its entirety. The characteristics of tribes, individuals, regions, towns, or animal species are seldom presented to our eyes in connected sketches; we must slowly learn them ourselves, so to speak, by repeated glances. We are nowhere troubled with scientific disquisitions—geological, historical, ethnological, or philological. No attempt is made by our guide at the solution of problems.

Dr. Livingstone appears in this book almost exclusively as an exploring traveller; his character as a missionary seems but accidental, though the zealous Protestant is everywhere visible. The more gratifying are the earnest philanthropic spirit and ardent love of liberty which pervade every chapter of this narrative, the subject of which is a part of the world teeming with many blessings of nature, but also scourged with the worst of evils—ferocious beasts, venomous reptiles, desolating droughts, and, worse than all, brutish ignorance, internecine feuds, and a remorseless slave-trade, the latter being carried on alike by Christian Portuguese, Mohammedan Arabs, and heathen natives.

In order to give the reader an idea of the character of the country which forms the scene of the traveller's new explorations and discoveries, we will condense in the following, as far as possible in his own words, a part of the narrative of his earlier excursions into the valley of the Shire, the principal northern tributary of the Zambesi.

The first trip to the Shire was undertaken in January, 1859. A considerable quantity of duckweed floated down the river near its mouth, but was insufficient to check the ascent of our explorers' boat. As they approached the villages the natives collected in large numbers, armed with bows and poisoned arrows, some dodging behind trees and taking aim, the women being sent out of the way. At one place at least five hundred were assembled, and the boat was ordered to stop. Dr. Livingstone went ashore, and explained to the chief, Tingane, a well-made, grey-headed man, over six feet high, that they were English, and that their object was neither war nor slaving, but to open a path for peaceful intercourse and exchange of goods. The chief at once became friendly, called his people together, and made the declaration of the explorers known to them. The presence of the steamer, and some information, already gained by the natives, of the efforts of the English at sea to stop the slave-trade, the terrible scourge of the country, contributed to this favorable result. The belief of the natives in a supreme being, the creator and ruler of all things, facilitated here as well as elsewhere the communication by the missionary of some of the rudimentary tenets of the Christian religion, the interpreter indulging in his habit of winding up with, "The book says you are to grow cotton, and the English are to come and buy it," an addition which, considering the practical side of English philanthropic enterprises—we beg Dr. Livingstone's pardon—was not an empty joke.

The party followed with delight the meanderings of upward of two hundred miles of the river, now explored for the first time. All its lower part was at least two fathoms deep, but it became shallower higher up. Care was now necessary to avoid the suspicions of the African crowds watching on the banks day and night. At 15° 55′ south latitude further progress with the steamer was arrested by magnificent cataracts, which, in honor of the president of the Royal Geographical Society, a generous patron of the expedition, received the English name of "The Murchison." To risk a land journey was, under the circumstances, deemed imprudent, and the steamer, aided by the current, soon rapidly glided down the Shire on its return to the Zambesi. The hippopotami always got out of its way; the crocodiles, on the contrary, mistaking it for some huge swimming animal, sometimes rushed at it with great velocity, keeping about a foot from the surface, raising the head out of the water when only a few yards from the expected prey, and then, without touching it, suddenly going down to the bottom like a stone.

The second trip on the Shire was begun in March of the same year. The natives were now found friendly, and readily sold rice, fowls, and corn. Amicable relations were entered into with Chibisa, the most intelligent chief by far of the Cataract region, a remarkably shrewd African. He spoke in terms of high self-consciousness of his past career of battle and dominion. He had done a great deal of fighting, but it was always others who began, and he was invariably in the right. Awed by his power and wisdom, the people feared and reverenced him. He spoke as if he fully believed in himself; the people, too, believed in him, and, trusting in his medicines, bathed in the river without fear of crocodiles.

Opposite Chibisa's village, Dr. Livingstone and his companion, Dr. Kirk, left the vessel and, accompanied by a number of Makalolo Africans, started on foot for the discovery of Lake Shirwa. Their way led them through a mountainous country. The people were ill-disposed, some of the guides treacherous, others ignorant. At last they pushed on without guides, or only with crazy ones; "for, oddly enough, they were often under great obligations to the madmen of the different villages. . . . These poor fellows sympathized with the explorers, probably in the belief that they belonged to their own class, . . . and often guided them faithfully from place to place, when no sane man could be hired for love or money."

The Manganja who inhabited that region, at the time unscourged by slave-hunting, showed themselves independent, defiant, and threatening; but the friendly bearing of the travellers prevented a collision, and their

* "Narrative of an Expedition to the Zambesi and its Tributaries; and of the Discovery of the Lakes Shirwa and Nyassa. 1858–1864. By David and Charles Livingstone. With map and illustrations." New York: Harper & Brothers. 1866.

perseverance was finally crowned with success. On the 18th of April they discovered Lake Shirwa, a large body of bitter, slightly brackish water, without an outlet, abounding in leeches, fish, crocodiles, and hippopotami. It appeared dotted with islands, some rising out of it like hills and covered with trees. The shore near the place of discovery, which was the base of Mount Pirimiti, was covered with reeds and papyrus. The country around was very beautiful, and clothed with rich vegetation, and the waves, breaking and foaming over a rock on the south-eastern side, added to the beauty of the picture. The length of the lake may be sixty or eighty miles, its breadth twenty. Lofty mountains, called the Milanje range, perhaps eight thousand feet above the sea level, stand near the eastern shore; on the west stands Mount Zomba, a little less high, and some twenty miles long.

The object of the explorers being to gain the confidence of the people by degrees, they soon returned, by another way, to the Shire, and down that river to the Zambesi, and it was not before August that they again steamed up the former stream. The object of this journey was Lake Nyassa, of which they had already gained some information. We now receive a fuller description of the Shire and its environs. This river is narrower and deeper than the Zambesi. It drains an exceedingly fertile valley of from fifteen to twenty miles, bounded on both sides by ranges of wooded hills. Those on the left bank, for the first twenty miles, are close to the river; then comes Morambala, a detached mountain about 4,000 feet in height, and wooded up to the very top. A small village peeps out from its slope, perched above musquito-range, in a pure and bracing atmosphere. The mountain was covered here and there with numerous species of ferns, lemon and orange trees grew wild, and pineapples had been planted by the mountaineers. Horn-bills, hawks, monkeys, antelopes, and rhinoceroses sheltered among large trees at the base. A hot fountain boiled up near the north end, sending off a fine flowing stream of water clear as crystal. A few clumps of palms and acacias appeared west of Morambala on a plain rich in all sorts of game.

Beyond Morambala the Shire winds through an extensive marsh, a broad expanse of fresh green grass. Further north stands the dome-shaped Mount Makanga and then several others with granite-looking peaks, forming the eastern boundary of the valley; another range of metamorphic rocks bounds it on the west. A broad belt of palm and other trees crossed the fine plain on the right bank; marks of elephants and other large game were abundant. Two pythons lay coiled together among the branches of a tree; they were both shot. The banks of the marsh were here and there fringed with gardens of maize, pumpkins, and tobacco, belonging to the natives on the hills. Higher up a deep stream emptied into the Shire, flowing from a broad lagoon which sends off the duckweed of the latter river. At different parts of the stream men were busy filling their canoes with the lotus root, which is extensively used as food.

The little steamer could not carry all the hands needed; to lighten her some were put into the boats and towed astern. In the dark one of these was capsized, and one African perished. This happened on the first day. It cast a gloom over the travellers. Besides, the steamer leaked badly, the cabin floor was almost always wet, and the cabin a breeding-place for musquitoes.

The country improved as they ascended; the rich valley became less swampy and adorned with trees. Both banks were dotted with hippopotamus traps. One of these animals, frightened by the steaming vessel, ran directly under a beam-trap, was immediately struck by the poisoned spear-head, and, in its agony, plunged back into the river soon to expire, furnishing a feast to the natives.

Tingane's village was now reached again. His war-drums could speedily muster some hundreds of warriors, armed with bows and poisoned arrows of superior workmanship. Of these the slave-hunting parties of the half-caste Portuguese Mariano, the desolators of the country, stood in great awe. Tingane's people were friendly, and covered the banks with a variety of articles for sale. A little above the village the Ruo joined the Shire. A short way beyond it lay Lake Mukulu, called by our explorers Elephant Marsh, on account of the vast herds of those animals frequenting it. Some eight hundred of them were in sight at once. A majestic mountain, now surnamed Mount Clarendon, loomed in the distance, and further north the end of the Milanje range rose in form of an unfinished sphinx, looking down upon Lake Shirwa.

The following descriptive paragraph, the fullest, we believe, of the book, may serve to complete our scanty extracts, as well as to show the sketching power of the author or authors:

"The Shire marshes support prodigious numbers of many kinds of water-fowl. An hour at the masthead unfolds novel views of life in an African marsh. Near the edge, and on the branches of some favorite tree, rest scores of plotuses and cormorants, which stretch their snake-like necks, and in mute amazement turn one eye and then another toward the approaching monster. By-and-bye the timid ones begin to fly off, or take 'headers' into the stream; but a few of the bolder or more composed remain, only taking the precaution to spread their wings ready for instant flight. The pretty ardetta, of a light yellow color when at rest, but seemingly of a pure white when flying, takes wing, and sweeps across the green grass in large numbers, often showing us where buffaloes and elephants are by perching on their backs. Flocks of ducks, of which the kind called 'Soriri' is most abundant, being night-feeders, meditate quietly by the small lagoons until startled by the noise of the steam machinery. Pelicans glide over the water, catching fish, while the scopus and large herons peer intently into pools. The large black and white spur-winged goose springs up and circles round to find out what the disturbance can be, and then settles down again with a splash. Hundreds of linongolos rise on the wing from the clumps of reeds or low trees, on which they build in colonies, and are speedily high in mid-air. Charming little red and yellow weavers remind one of butterflies as they fly in and out of the tall grass, or hang to the mouths of their pendant nests, chattering briskly to their mates within. These weavers seem to have 'cock nests,' built with only a roof, and a perch beneath, with a doorway on each side. The natives say they are made to protect the bird from the rain. Though her husband is very attentive, we have seen the hen-bird tearing her mate's nest to pieces, but why we cannot tell. Kites and vultures are busy overhead, beating the ground for their repast of carrion; and the solemn-looking, stately-stepping marabout, with a taste for dead fish or men, stalks slowly along the almost stagnant channels. Groups of men and boys are searching diligently in various places for lotus and other roots. Some are standing, in canoes, on the weed-covered ponds, spearing fish, while others are punting over the small intersecting streams to examine their sunken fish-baskets."

THE WAR MUSE.*

POETRY of the war—not *the* poetry of the war, as if Mr. White had gathered up either all the verse that was not poetry or all the poetry that was not verse which the war produced. His purpose was a different one from that, and a better; it was to select all that appeared worthy of preservation on any account. Merit has not been the only consideration. Verses that at all worthily or spiritedly celebrated any important event in the war, which expressed truthfully any mood of popular feeling, or which embodied any type of character, whether enduring or the transitory creation of the circumstances of the day, have been deemed peculiarly fit for this collection. We cannot agree with him when he says that "no poem of conspicuous worth elicited by the war will be found lacking in these pages;" but we can give him credit for a sufficient variety of all kinds to express every phase of emotion that came to the surface during that eventful period of civil strife. The pieces have been culled from kitchen and from flower garden alike. Volumes, monthly and weekly magazines, daily papers, street ballads, have been ransacked, and the characteristic specimens are put together in true democratic order. Longfellow's poem, "The Cumberland," is in close proximity to Brownell's "All We Ask is to be Let Alone," which is immediately preceded by Francis J. Child's droll version of Lilliburlero. Clarence Butler's "Apocalypse," William Ross Wallace's "National Anthem," and Bryant's "Our Country's Call," are followed by Fitz James O'Brien's rollicking lines, entitled "The Seventh," set to the tune of "Gilla Machree." This is as it should be, for this is as it was. The call, the rally, the charge, the retreat, the victory, the disaster, the wail for the dead heroes, the widow's lament, the mother's broken-hearted sigh, poured out simultaneously, and were mingled with the wild chorus of the soldiers, the rude camp song, the hoarse laugh of the populace, the mad rhyme of the fanatic, and the ribald doggerel of the satirist. There were noble strains and strains that were exceedingly ignoble, and the noble and ignoble alike bore the burthens of the people's heart in those years of prayer and passion, of inspiration and demoniac possession, of wrath and the praise that God brings out of wrath. All the chords of feeling were swept at the same instant by the same swift hand, and the effect was not harmonious on the human ear. The prevailing spirit, however, was grand and high, and we think Mr. White was no more than just to the popular sentiment when he included in his collection so many of the solemn hymns which expressed the undertone of the national feeling. He was right in printing a fair proportion of the effusions of the Southern bards, too, for they were inspired, or perspired, by the war as much as ours were; and if, in point of intellectual, moral, and literary character, they are far below the productions of the Northern minstrels, they serve to declare the more forcibly the immeasurable difference in the source from which the inspirations came.

Mr. White includes in his little volume "The Present Crisis," by Lowell, which was published many years before Sumter fell. This, also, is well; and it

* "Poetry of the War. By Richard Grant White." American News Company. New York. 1866.

would have been not unfitting to admit one or two more pieces of the same period; one or two of Whittier's, for instance. For the war did not begin in April, 1861; then it came to the arbitrament of arms; but the moral warfare had been raging for a generation before that; and that ideal strife found poetic expression in some of the noblest lyrics that the heart of America has put in words. The later war, the battle on the field, has not, it must be confessed, given birth to much poetry of a high order. It has created no poets; it has brought few poets into prominence; and it has touched no poets of eminence to issues finer than they had attempted already. The war-pieces of Longfellow and Lowell fall far below those that were prompted by a different muse. Even Whittier's war poems are no better, to say the most, than the best things he had done before; in our judgment, they are not as good. Mr. Boker, excellent as he was now and then in description, did not surpass himself; and Mrs. Howe had earned high fame as a poet years before she wrote the "Battle Hymn of the Republic." Mr. White concedes this fact, and accounts for it by saying that great events are no pledge of great inspirations, and that the poet does his best when his material does not oppress his genius, but stands in easy relations to it for mastery and manipulation. This is no doubt true; but it is also true that no inspirations of an exalted order come from war. Its terrific forces, its passion, its violence, its hideous noise and smoke, the fierce brute elements it stirs up and lets loose, are fatal to all free and beautiful expression of poetic feeling. Only one species of poetry, and that not the highest, is born of the war spirit—the poetry of description; and that owes its charm to the same rush and breathlessness that characterized the battle itself—though to this there are exceptions, such as the "Marseillaise," "Mourir pour la Patrie," and others. Brownell's "Bay Fight" and "River Fight" are splendid things in their way, but they are simply fights finding voice in words. They reproduce the actual conflict at the moment of its raging; the thunder of the cannon, the shouting of the captains, the crash of the timbers, and the flame of the conflagration roar and glare in every line. They are powerful pieces; but they can hardly be called poems.

In a war like ours, especially, where the people themselves fought, and the poets were among the combatants, the poetic spirit had the least possible opportunity for expression. Tennyson may sit in his study in the Isle of Wight and celebrate the charge of the Light Brigade, the rumors whereof came to him from the other side of the world. Campbell could sit quietly and at his leisure pen the "Battle of the Nile." But our poets were trembling for their homes; the battle was raging in Pennsylvania; they could almost hear the noise of the guns; their wives and daughters were ministering to the wounded men; the telegraph had one end of its wire attached to their heart-strings, and with an incessant vibration made their whole being throb and shake. It was impossible, under such circumstances, to obtain the needful calm for thought. The imagination was bewildered, the fancy distracted; incidents could not be sifted; poetical events could not be detached from the rest; the sentiment of history could not be disentangled from the occurrences of history; still less could those occurrences themselves be distilled or transfigured into sentiment. There will be better poetry after the war than there was during the war. When the full results of the war shall appear in a new social order marked by industry, peace, and fine intellectual development, among the loveliest products of that better era will be a poetry as much sweeter and grander than that contained in this volume as that hoped-for time will be blessed above those gloomy days. Nevertheless, we thank Mr. White for his collection, and his publishers for presenting it in such an attractive form.

LUCY ARLYN AND THE STORY OF KENNETT.*

ANY one who happens to read "Lucy Arlyn" and "The Story of Kennett" within a short period of each other, will be likely to notice many points between them both of resemblance and contrast. In our own mind, the thought of one is almost sure to suggest the other. In the first place, they both treat of peculiar phases of American life, of two peculiar religious beliefs, and of narrow localities which these beliefs have stamped with a sharp individuality. Then, both books are written by popular authors who do not handle their unusual materials now for the first time. Mr. Trowbridge has long been accredited as one of the best delineators of New England character, while Mr. Taylor, dwelling in a Quaker community in the heart of Pennsylvania, has opportunities for observation and study of his surroundings which would entitle him to speak of them with the highest authority. Furthermore, in each case the story is of rustic life—arcadian and poetical, yet with a strong admixture of grotesque, absurd, and even tragic elements. Each conceals the denouement of its plot until the end, with equal success, while the plots themselves both turn on the same virtue, woman's patience.

Beyond these respects we do not pretend that the two novels have any connection. "Lucy Arlyn" is much longer than "The Story of Kennett," it is crowded with characters, intricate and elaborate in invention, and, in spite of its fidelity to nature in certain parts, is a thoroughly "sensation" novel, with many of the defects inherent in that kind of literature, while "The Story of Kennett" is simple in plan, moderate in tone, with a more artistic proportion of *dramatis personæ*. But these natural differences are not the contrasts we alluded to; they lie in the manner of treatment of those portions already pointed out as bearing a likeness to each other.

"The Story of Kennett" is laid in the end of the eighteenth century, in the neighborhood of Kennet Square, Pennsylvania. This village contained then, as it does now, a controlling population of the Society of Friends; and, according to Mr. Taylor, an outside class of a liberal sort of people who affiliated with the Friends, and yet belonged neither to them nor to any other denomination, a class which has actually arisen out of the latter-day divisions of Orthodox, Hicksite, and Progressive Friends. The prologue assures us that the reproduction of the manners and customs in Kennet in 1796 is quite genuine. Except for this explanation, and the description of costumes, with certain other outward appearances, we confess we should not have been stirred from this present 1866. It was not so with Judd's "Margaret." There one was torn willy-nilly from the nineteenth century and planted in the eighteenth, so that when he lifted his eyes from the page once more to face the world around him, the reality had become unreal, and the vision of the old time was the only true thing. And yet "The Story of Kennett" does not seem to be a picture of to-day either. Except outwardly, as before, we do not see Kennet. We do not see real Friends. Perhaps we do see *Quakers*. Quakers are the sect beheld from the outside; but the Society of Friends can be known only by the most delicate interior affiliation, by spiritual *rapport*, or by the highest refinement of appreciation. Mr. Taylor's handling of them ever since he first began to weave them into verse or romance has effectually proved him to be one of the "world's people." He sees them externally, perhaps, well enough. He says that they wear drab, have placid faces, and unruffled manners; which is not to be disputed. He knows some of their habits—that they generally sing through their noses in preaching, that they sit with oppressive quietness in their meetings, which they bring to an end by shaking hands, and that their women are educated with a certain peculiar independence. This is also quite correct. But of the main point, that inner life which makes the society the distinctive one that it is, and has given it all the influence it ever had, rendering it worthy the most honorable place in the world's esteem, Mr. Taylor never seems to have any comprehension. He alludes to it, but does not understand it. What admiration and love for Quakers he does possess, we are forced to say has always seemed to us to have been cherished in the way of business—as unique *matériel* for stories, and which he treats with a kind of fondness, as he does the landscape, the different weathers, the birds, and all those things which combine to make a nice picture. In nothing does this lack of appreciation show more than in those passages intended to be humorous. There is a want of delicacy and tenderness about them which a true Friend must feel with an unaccountable resentment, as if some foreign and profane hand were meddling with his Penates. Not that his own sense of fun is not frequently stirred to the depths by the oddities of some of the "dear old Friends" in the gallery, and that he would not relish keenly a close reproduction of the peculiarities which have so stirred his sense of the ridiculous; but he requires that whosoever undertakes the task should have ears to hear more than the mere nasal twang which the minstrels mimic, and eyes to see something besides "drowsiness" and "luxurious satisfaction" beneath the row of broad-brims on the elders' seat. Such a scope as there was for a varied group in that Kennet meeting! And yet Mr. Taylor used only his two unvarying moulds, a better and a worse one, into which he pours all his conception of Quaker character.

The scenes of "Lucy Arlyn" are enacted in a New England village not named, in which there is a small band of "spiritualists" daily adding more and more to their numbers. The descriptions of the meetings and "circles" of this sect are as vivacious and vivid as may be. It is impossible to read them without being moved in some sort. The majority of people will, of course, cry out at their heresy. Those who have never seen any "manifestations" will set down the whole as pure fabrication—characters unnatural—occurrences impossible. Those who are not without some similar experi-

* "Lucy Arlyn. By J. T. Trowbridge." Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866. Pp. 364.

"The Story of Kennett. By Bayard Taylor." G. P. Putnam; Hurd & Houghton, New York. Pp. 418.

ences will marvel at the power which has made the page glow with life, even though they may differ in the conclusions which the author has drawn. Mr. Trowbridge exhibits all sides of the picture with the confidence and power of one who has not only seen but felt what he is talking about, and we are forced to recognize with alternate laughter and wonder his Murk, and Archy, the Burbles, and Miss Lingham, and, indeed, almost every member of the "circles," despite some blemishes of high coloring and occasional inconsistencies. It must also be added, in discrimination, that the comical aspects of the system supported by "Lucy Arlyn" are given with more ability and certainly more agreeableness than the serious ones; for, while in the former the author is master of his subject, in the latter it is master of him, and, although he draws with ever so much fidelity the immense and awful side of the mystery which rises up before him, he injures it by failing to resist the temptation of presenting the reader with his inferences along with his facts, and thus creating a general confusion between his realities and his doubtful sequences. It is here that Mr. Taylor, if he has not achieved a success, has avoided a danger: the discussion of the doctrines of the religion which colors his story—performance difficult to weave into narrative without the double reproach of being inartistic and irreverent.

Mr. Taylor gives us two practical jokers, Joe and Jake Fairthorn, who, with their young aunt, Sally Fairthorn, do the active jesting, as one may call it, for "The Story of Kennett." It is difficult to refer to these characters with a smile; it was impossible to read of their dull and coarse antics with anything like one. They are utterly dead and cold to all that is funny. The two boys tumble about, get into the mud, play rough and cruel tricks, and do innumerable violent and disagreeable things for which nothing could excuse the chronicling except the power of infusing into them a humor entirely beyond and apart from themselves. Even with that we can scarcely imagine them laughable. Miss Sally Fairthorn's charm seems designed to consist in "boisterousness." She is described as a charming young brunette with endearing impulses, such as kicking her horse, "urging her heavy horse against" a young man in order to snatch a fox's brush from his hat; striking, boxing, and snatching generally amongst the rustic youth of the neighborhood. She catches her clothes on every projection as she rushes wildly about, sometimes tearing them half off her; she tumbles down on the least provocation, and, when he is present, is assisted to arise by a young carpenter who loves her and who takes advantage of these little occasions to put his arm around her waist. Miss Betsy Lavender is a degree better than the rest of the "comic cast," but she is only very rarely and very feebly amusing.

Now there *is* such a thing as low comedy, and we have even heard *coarse* jokes that, spite of disapproval, we were obliged to laugh at. Mr. Trowbridge gives us some very rough humor, but humor it is, of the genuine ring. Compare Archy's lamentable adventure with the "bunting corset" with any of the Fairthorn performances; yet the Fairthorns are perpetually "shrieking with laughter," while Archy is generally in a state of woe. Recall the philosopher Murk by the brookside "impressed" that he would be invited to breakfast on the trout his own conscience would not allow him to catch. Recall the same sublime ward, as you may dub him, of Socrates and Swedenborg, operating unbidden on the paralyzed legs of the helpless and indignant colonel, while Dr. Biddikin near by rises on his toes, joins his thumbs, and talks about "invisible intelligences." Recall the whole of the first "spiritual circle," Archy's astonishment at "jerking," Ann Mari' and her mother with their questions to the spirits: "Swedenborg, be you here?" etc., etc. These and other scenes are so rich in laughter-provoking qualities that we can afford to forget, if not to forgive, the whole Biddikin underplot, which is violent and painful, as it is theatrical and distorted.

Narrowing space forbids us to carry the parallel further than a few brief words in conclusion. If we were forced to find the distinguished traveller somewhat soporific, and to question if novel-writing were his true vocation; if, since he draws from life, as the prologue tells us, we are not to cavil at the truth of his sketches, and may only wonder why a history so singularly unlovely as that of Mary Potter and Alfred Barton was presented for the delectation of the public,—we cannot condemn him for the monstrous faults of which "Lucy Arlyn" must stand accused. Mr. Trowbridge permits his hero to neglect his wife and child, to become involved with another woman in a sort of "spiritual" flirtation—which he justifies him in concealing from his wife because "women never understand such things"—and to ignore common sense and common virtue in various ways, for the sake of pursuing his "spiritual" investigations; finally restoring him to his wife not only still in the character of a hero, but of one exalted by great experiences and fitted to teach others, instead of a penitent, humbled and enlightened. If Mr. Trowbridge proves that an earnest seeker after the truths of "spiritualism" may innocently do those things which would warrant the charge of moral obliquity in another man, he deals a heavier blow at his system than any of its enemies could. For the general reader, then, his book, being of doubtful tendency, can scarcely be recommended. For whoever would study American, and particularly New England, society and character, it has an unquestionable historical value. No corresponding worth, we apprehend with all deference, can be ascribed to "The Story of Kennett," which, for the rest, is to "Lucy Arlyn" as the material to the unspiritual.

DRAPER'S CHEMISTRY.*

THIS is an enlargement of the manual published by Dr. J. W. Draper in 1846, a manual which "satisfied so completely the public wants that it passed through more than forty editions." It can hardly be doubted that the enterprise of the publishers will give a like success to this new edition. The book is of convenient shape and size, is profusely, though coarsely, illustrated, contains as much physics, besides as much chemistry, as medical students and other smatterers expect to learn, and is provided at the bottom of each page with a series of questions well calculated to reduce to a minimum the amount of thought to be devoted to the subject-matter, whether by teacher or student. In short, the book is a very fair one of its class, and, if anything is to be regretted, it is that American schools and colleges should be content with manuals of chemistry of this description. The objections we make to the book would equally apply to most of the other American text-books on chemistry.

Chemical phenomena and principles often involve and depend upon the laws and facts of physics and the mathematical sciences, but the science of chemistry has its own peculiar laws and phenomena above and beyond the laws and phenomena of the antecedent sciences on which it in part depends, and these peculiar chemical laws and facts it is which form the proper subject of a text-book on chemistry. Dr. Draper has given two-fifths of his book to pure physics, to an exposition of some of the most familiar principles of heat, light, and electricity. If he had placed a few chapters on arithmetic and geometry at the beginning of his book he would only have begun a little further away from his proper subject, and the book would have been still more convenient for those students who have no knowledge of the elements of the sciences whose principles are necessarily assumed in the study of chemistry. "Text-book on chemistry" is a misnomer for a book which is two-fifths physics.

The evils of this unseasonable association of physics with chemistry appear very strikingly in the lecture on the laws of combination. We are told that "it has been shown in the first lectures that material substances possess an atomic constitution." Now, in the first place, the proposition that matter is composed of indivisible particles is one which is and always must be incapable of demonstration; and, secondly, the phenomena and experiments explained in the opening lectures are purely physical in their nature, and have nothing whatever to do with the atomic constitution of matter in the chemical acceptation of that phrase. The experiments refer to cohesion and to the expansion or contraction of bodies under the influence of heat or pressure. But Dr. Draper proceeds:

"*It follows, therefore* [that], when substances combine with each other and give rise to new products, the union takes place by the atoms of the one associating themselves with the atoms of the other; and as these atoms possess weight and other properties which are specific, there are certain circumstances, easily foreseen, which must attend such combinations. 1st, The constitution of a compound body must always be fixed and invariable. . . . 2d, The proportions in which bodies are disposed to unite with each other can always be represented by certain numbers; these numbers being, in fact, the relative weights of their atoms. . . . 3d, If two substances unite with each other in more proportions than one, those proportions bear a very simple arithmetical relation to one another."

An inexperienced student would inevitably infer from this statement that the laws of chemical combination followed from the atomic theory, and that the atomic theory had enabled chemists to foresee the circumstances of chemical combination. This is the absolute inversion of the historical and logical order of events. Chemists observed the definiteness and immutability of chemical compounds, and the simple multiple proportions in which such elements as form more than one compound with each other unite, and they subsequently invented the atomic theory to give distinctness and expression to their views of the sensible phenomena. Dr. Draper makes that appear to be antecedent which was consequent, and represents the atomic constitution of matter as a positive fact, from which resulted the fundamental laws of chemical combination, whereas the atomic theory is a mere imagination, incapable of proof, but useful because it en-

* "A Text-Book on Chemistry. By Henry Draper." New York: Harper & Bros. 1866.

ables us better to classify and interpret the phenomena of chemical combination and decomposition. To implant in the student's mind such a misconception of the logic of chemistry on the very threshold of the subject is a grave error.

It is not often that the experiments are so described that an inexperienced student could repeat them without assistance by simply following the directions of the book. Those who believe that chemistry can only be learned tools in hand will find this a serious objection to this text-book. They who hope for the universal introduction of the French system of weights and measures will be sorry to find Fahrenheit's thermometer and English weights and measures used in a new text-book which is likely to have a wide circulation.

The memory of the student will be sufficiently tasked with holding fast the most important facts and best methods of chemistry. An elementary text-book should never contain descriptions of obsolete experiments, antiquated apparatus, or inaccurate methods; nor should it even mention unimportant facts and insignificant details. In the chemical portion of his book we cannot think that Dr. Draper has been always fortunate in the selection of his matter. Thus, why describe at length Thilorier's clumsy and dangerous carbonic acid apparatus when Natterer's condenser has completely superseded it; or why describe the making of hydrogen with potassium when every chemist would use sodium, because the latter metal is five times cheaper? By dwelling on Davy's experiment for the isolation of the obscure metal barium, our author is led into two misstatements, viz., that barium is grey and that its specific gravity is 1·5; the facts being that it is gold-yellow and that its specific gravity is about 4.

The order in which the elements are studied is in many respects most extraordinary. Thus ammonia and the hypothetical metal ammonium are treated of in connection with boron and silicon, substances to which they have not the remotest resemblance. Cadmium, tin, and chromium are discussed together in one lecture, although three more unlike metals, in their chemical aspect, could hardly be selected. Arsenic and antimony are widely separated from their congeners, nitrogen and phosphorus. In short, no attention whatever seems to have been paid to the natural groups into which we are now able to divide the chemical elements.

Dr. Draper not only uses the old dualistic formulæ throughout his book, but he also gives to his students, in the few remarks he makes on the unitary system of notation, an unfair bias against this new method. In the present confused state of chemical nomenclature and symbolic notation, while professional chemists are divided between two opposing systems, we hold that the author of an elementary manual is entirely justified in giving the preference to either system; but that he will do well, whichever system he himself adopts, to explain the other so fully and clearly that his students may be able to read understandingly chemical treatises which are expressed in the symbolic language and notation which is not that of their text-book. A faithful and thorough student of Dr. Draper's book will find, when he has finished it, that he is not in a condition to understand a very important part of the chemical writings of to-day.

Upon the pages of this most elementary manual the name of Draper occurs much more frequently than that of any other philosopher, living or dead. A text-book on the bare elements of a science may, in our opinion, be very properly written without a single citation of authorities, or allusion to the contributions of any particular man or men; but if the names of discoverers and inventors are to be coupled with the mention of their labors and results, if original memoirs are to be occasionally referred to with conspicuous particularity, it is important that due discrimination between great things and little should be observed, and that proper care should be exercised lest the student acquire an altogether distorted view of the relative magnitude of chemical lights. In Dr. Draper's book this care does not seem to have been taken.

Our author sacrifices one out of the fifteen pages devoted to the important subject of animal chemistry to an irrelevant explanation of Prof. J. W. Draper's theory of the circulation of the blood, which is thus stated: "The cause of the circulation of the blood is to be found in the chemical relations of that liquid to the tissues with which it is brought in contact. . . . . The systemic circulation takes place because arterial blood has a high affinity for the tissues, and venous blood little or none." Prof. Draper has a perfect right to hold this speculative opinion, which is a pure hypothesis without a shadow of experimental proof, but our author has no right to say of it that it "is now generally admitted to be true." The contrary is the case. Sharpey and others have demonstrated experimentally that the heart is the *primary* and *sufficient* cause of the circulation of the blood, and this is the opinion almost universally held by physiologists. What shall we say, then, of Dr. Draper's sweeping assertion: "It is now on all hands conceded that this organ [the heart] discharges a subsidiary duty?" It is to be regretted that the introduction into a text-book on chemistry of a page of utterly irrelevant matter should lead our author into such serious misstatements and his many readers into the corresponding errors.

A NEW VERSION OF SOPHOCLES.*

THE biographical essay with which Mr. Plumtre prefaces his translation of the seven great tragedies of Sophocles presents in a modest, attractive way such incidents as are known and knowable in the poet's life. They are few and unimpressive, but they show us, against the background of the lovely Athenian sky, a very noble and beautiful form, splendidly developed by gymnastic training, exquisitely chastened by temperance and purity, and sweetly transfigured by thought. The poet lived in great times, and with us it is thought essential that the events of the time he lives in should appear in the life and works of an earnest man. But in Sophocles the events of his time appear only as sublimated in lofty and serene ideas. He led the chorus of victory in celebration of the battle of Salamis when a youth of fifteen. In the course of his life the greatest social and political revolutions occurred: sacred wars; the Samian war; the Peloponnesian war; the Sicilian expedition, with the destruction of the Athenian army and navy; the Council of the Four Hundred, of which he was a member; the banishment and the recall of Alcibiades; Socrates was born; Æschylus was at the height of his fame; Pericles rose to his full glory; Athens was devastated by plague and torn by political convulsions. Ever and anon the form of the poet is seen towering up as general or as counsellor, but his genius remained unseared by the heat of the conflict and unstained by the smoke. His plays bear scarcely a trace of the fierce disorders or of the fitful glory that marked the epoch of his long career. The critic's search for political allusions is almost wholly in vain. Even such outward occurrences as the plague at Athens, which caused an awful destruction of human life, pass like mere shadows across his mind. Yet his plays could have been written only when they were. His age is in them, but the incidental part, the personal strife, the partizan bitterness, the local rage, are all strained out and we have nothing but the sublime faith, hope, and love of a great soul sweetened by sorrow and humbled by meditation. This imparts to the tragedies of Sophocles their undying charm. These plays are eternal. To read them is like bathing in cool waters at midsummer's noon; it is like walking in shady groves melodious with the songs of birds; it is like sitting in the company of serene ideas clothed in translucent forms. The firmness of the thought, the calmness of the judgment, the depth of the reflection, the perfect balance and ease of the intellectual movement, the exquisite art which allows no indistinct or needless word, exercise, all combined, a fascination not over the mind alone, but over the heart, help to exalt our ideas and make them palpable at the same time.

Mr. Plumtre's translation deserves great praise. We have not examined it minutely, but we have taken it up at some of the most familiar passages and found it accurate, easy, dignified, and poetical. It is done in blank-verse, simply and unpretendingly; the language is well chosen, so as to be clear and intelligible to the reader while preserving as much as possible of the quiet antique cast which befits the old tragedies. No scholastic notes encumber the pages; no pedantry obtrudes itself between us and the poet. The version is left to attest on its own part the faithful scholarship of the translator and the loving spirit in which his task has been performed. The volumes are beautiful specimens of the book-maker's art.

THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW FOR APRIL.

THE number of the "Review" before us is, it may be safely said, the best that has ever appeared. Whether a better one can, with the materials at the command of the editor, be produced for a long time to come may fairly be questioned. The only fault we feel tempted to find with the "Review" in general is that it is apt to contain, as it seems to us, a superabundance of what may be called purely narrative articles, such as "Our Diplomacy during the Rebellion" and "International Arbitration"—articles which owe their value almost entirely to their skilful and accurate arrangement of facts with which the public is already tolerably familiar. We are far from doubting the value of articles of this kind; but a review should, we think, aim, as far as possible, at supplying either the philosophy of subjects, or facts in relation to them which the mass of readers cannot readily find elsewhere. We do not mean to say that any quarterly has ever come up to this standard, but we feel satisfied that all quarterlies which fall short of it fail, *pro tanto*, to perform their proper function.

* "The Tragedies of Sophocles. A New Translation, with a Biographical Essay. By E. H. Plumtre, M.A." 2 vols. Alexander Strahan, London and New York.

"The Error of De Tocqueville" points out the extent to which De Tocqueville's views of the impossibility of coercing into obedience to Federal authority any State which chose to resist, affected European opinion of the events of the late struggle. De Tocqueville's mistake is, of course, now patent; but the reasoning which led to it was sound enough. The error which crept into his conclusion was due to his ignorance of the character of the people, an ignorance which in him was excusable, inasmuch as a great number of Americans shared it, as was seen at the outbreak of the war.

The article on "Military and Martial Law" distinguishes between two codes which are often confounded. The latter is defined by the writer to be "the will of the commanding general, exercised in accordance with the laws of war and the usages of civilized warfare." To it belong military commissions, as distinguished from courts-martial, the extreme extension of whose jurisdiction, though pardonable in the extraordinary exigencies of the late rebellion, was injurious to civil liberty, and will be still more so if it comes to be cited as a precedent in the law of nations. Nevertheless, the writer believes that history will give a general approval to the acts of our Government in its desperate strait, and will wonder at the moderation with which it exercised that vague and formidable authority, "the war power." The contradictory functions of the judge-advocate are very forcibly set forth and the appointment of a military judge recommended. The power vested in the President of dismissing with disgrace any officer without a trial, although it has been confirmed by Congress, is deprecated by the writer as involving much injustice and being discordant with the whole system of military law. The question, we would suggest, is akin to that of removing civil officers in the same summary manner, whereas they also were appointed not simply by the President but by the Senate in concurrence. One of the most useful checks upon the patronage of the Executive would be to oblige him to give his reasons for revoking his own nominations and to solicit the necessary permission.

Under the heading "Character," Mr. Emerson invites us to read about nature and spirit, morals and religion, ecclesiasticism and theology, Judaism and Christianity and Paganism, the English religion and the American religion, and many other things besides pertaining to the condition of the world at large. With him all these things have their root in character. "Character is the habit of action from the permanent vision of truth." "There is no end to its sufficiency." "Whenever the sublimities of character shall be incarnated in a man, we may rely that awe and love and insatiable curiosity will follow his steps." "The moral sentiment puts us at the heart of nature." The essay reminded us all through of the wonderful address delivered before the senior class of the Cambridge Divinity School, in 1838. It is less poetical and imaginative than that, less spontaneous and intuitive; it is the work of the scholar who has read many books and the thinker who has tested many theories, rather than of the youthful seer whose eye followed the flight of ethereal principles. But the thoughts are essentially the same. Observation, reflection, experience, toil, confirm the prophecy of the young enthusiast. The conservatism which is supposed to be inevitable in man after forty appears at its minimum in one or two sentences like these: "We must have days, and temples, and teachers;" "the Sunday is the core of our civilization." Those who have apprehended that Mr. Emerson, in his late studies of scientific books, had been falling away a little from his high faith in the immutable verities of the human conscience and spirit, may feel entirely re-assured by this most recent expression of his thought. More deliberate statement of the transcendental philosophy on its moral side has never been made. The merit of the essay, in a philosophical point of view, is far greater than it will appear to a casual reader. Worlds of reading and speculation are packed away in these fine, incisive sentences, consisting of a few short English words. The meaning lies deep, layer on layer, and the deepest meaning is the most spiritual; the intellectual discernment is keen; the moral discernment is surpassingly far-reaching.

"The New York Herald," by Mr. Parton, is very interesting, but the concluding portion hardly fulfils the promise of the opening. The early struggles of "James Gordon Bennett, Editor and Proprietor," are ably sketched, and Mr. Parton's analysis of that distinguished person's character is an excellent lesson in morbid anatomy. The conclusion he draws from Bennett's course is not novel, but is well put, namely, that success in journalism in this country is only to be achieved by the supply of accurate and early news; and that any editor who does this well, may snap his fingers at the public and the moral law, and feel sure of being able to live like a duke. We should, however, have liked a more detailed account of the various outrages on decency committed by the *Herald*, partly from pure curiosity and partly as an interesting contribution to the study of human nature.

In "Dante and his Latest English Translators" we have an interesting review of the efforts which have been made to render the "Divina Commedia" into our own language, from Milton's version of three or four lines to Dayman, Ford, Rossetti, and Parsons's more or less complete translations, of last year. Mr. Rossetti and Mr. Parsons seem to have pleased the reviewer most, who, while admiring the ingenuity displayed by Dayman and Ford in their triple rhyme, expresses his very decided opinion that the undertaking is futile because of the constraints of a measure to which our tongue cannot bend. The triple rhyme, according to the list on page 519, was first attempted in 1843, and, spite of its undeniable difficulties, has found no less than seven adherents. We do not gather, however, that any of these went so far as to preserve the with one or two exceptions invariable female rhyme of the original, of which the following (Inf. XV., vv. 43–51) may be taken as a specimen:

> "I had not courage, from the path descending,
> To walk beside him, but my head I lowered,
> Like a man reverently his journey wending.
> 'What fortune,' quo'th he, 'or what fate untoward
> Netherward hath brought thee, ere thy summons sounded?
> Or who to keep the way hath thee empowered?'
> 'Above ground,' answered I, 'while naught confounded
> My tranquil life, I wandered in a valley,
> Before the fulness of my age was rounded.' . . ."

"Carlyle's Frederick the Great" is not so much a review of the book as an analysis of the author's character, and is the ablest attempt to furnish the rationale of Carlylism we remember to have seen. "The President on the Stump" is a keen and brilliant criticism of the President's recent public performances, and incidentally of his policy of reconstruction. The speech put in Mr. Johnson's mouth at the close, as the one he *ought* to have delivered to the first Southern deputation which waited on him, is a masterpiece in its way. The whole number is one of extraordinary interest and excellence. The literary notices are still better than the essays; one or two of them—such as that on Swinburne's "Tragedies," Bushnell's "Vicarious Sacrifice," and Higginson's "Epictetus"—have never, we believe, been surpassed in this country as pieces of critical writing.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

Honor May.—Leighton Court. A Country House Story. By Henry Kingsley. Ticknor & Fields, Boston. (B. H. Ticknor, New York.)

The Toilers of the Sea. A Novel. By Victor Hugo.—The Adventures of Reuben Davidger, Seventeen Years and Four Months Captive among the Dyaks of Borneo. By James Greenwood. Harper & Bros., New York.

Cerise. A Tale of the Last Century. By G. J. Whyte Melville. Chapman & Hall, London; J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

United States Christian Commission for the Army and Navy. For the Year 1865. Fourth Annual Report. Philadelphia, March, 1866.

Life of Emanuel Swedenborg. By William White. With an Introduction by B. F. Barrett. First American Edition. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia. (James Miller, New York.)

Civil Theology and an Opening of Heaven. By Leonard B. Vickers. By the Author, New York.

Influence of Climate, in a Commercial, Social, Sanitary, and Humanizing Point of View. A Paper read before the American Geographical and Statistical Society. By J. Disturnell. D. Van Nostrand, New York.

Christ and the People. By A. B. Child, M.D. William White & Co., Boston and New York.

Prophecy, Viewed in respect to its Distinctive Nature, Special Function, and Proper Interpretation. By Patrick Fairbairn, D.D. Carlton & Porter, New York.

Camp Songs for the Soldier, and Poems of Leisure Moments. By General William H. Hayward. Henry A. Robinson, Baltimore.

The Field and Garden Vegetables of America. By Fearing Burr, Jr. J. E. Tilton & Co., Boston.

The Gospel according to St. Mark. By John Peter Lange, D.D. Revised by William G. T. Shedd, D.D. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

The Border Rifles. By Gustave Aimard. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia. (F. A. Brady, New York.)

Fine Arts.

WHAT IS ART CRITICISM?

There is much writing about art which is not criticism, and is nevertheless called by that name. Of this there have been several forms to be seen in American periodicals, succeeding each other after a fashion, but not wholly independent of each other; in fact, rather confused with each other. It will be well to name these forms of non-critical writing upon art. The primeval newspaper notice—which announced that so-and-so had painted a remarkably fine picture and had invited the editor to see it, and which was followed by the announcement that somebody else had raised mammoth strawberries this year and had sent the editor a basketful—was not criticism. The painter and the gardener had each the gratified journalist's best bow; that was all. Everybody understood it who noticed it at all; friendly

interchange of little civilities, but certainly not criticism. The affectionate laudation, unquestioning about relative merit or positive good result, admiring the painter as an "artist" and the picture as a "work of art," was not criticism. It might have answered partly, it might have sufficed to make the necessity for criticism a little less imperative, if it had been accompanied by some love of the things suggested or represented by works of art. In times when painting was natural to man, people were not very critical. Probably Cimabue's compatriots admired him and his works, if without affectation, without discrimination as well, and the "Joyful Quarter" became so without rigid examination into the merits of the picture that caused the joy. But then the people cared a great deal about the subject of that picture and the subjects of all such pictures. Such unquestioning admiration as theirs would be good if we could have it again, but it would not be criticism. The patriotic congratulation which identified two or three painters dead and two or three sculptors living with the glory of America, and glorified them in company with two or three poets, two or three inventors and a novelist, was not criticism. It answered as well as self-praise generally answers, and, being the very reverse of true criticism, has made the need of that criticism even more pressing than it would otherwise have been.

These forms passed away; they were of the primal type; they were succeeded by something that looked like criticism and partook of its nature, namely, discussion of art and works of art according to the principles of this or that school. One writer took this ground, another writer took that; they differed widely in their views of art in general and works of art in particular; they were alike in one thing only, that each looked at all things from an avowed or easily guessed stand-point. This would have answered well enough if only the people had known enough about the matter to judge of the schools themselves. This plan of discussion does answer pretty well in (say) theology and in politics. In all such controversies the speakers or writers are known to occupy such-and-such platforms of principle and are not expected to quit them. But in these controversies the listeners or readers are apt to have such a knowledge of the platforms that they know how to judge the arguments put forth from them. In suits at law there are two speakers occupying very different positions in regard to the argument, each trying to prove something, and it is expected of a very miscellaneous public of a dozen to get at the truth; but then this public has some knowledge of the matter and knows what to expect and what allowances to make. It is not so in matters of art, and therefore there are serious objections to this plan of discussion when applied to questions of art. But, in any case, it is not criticism. It is not the advocates but rather the jury who are critics; the latter, at least, do not take sides to begin with.

Criticism does not take sides, but sees all sides and all opinions with absolute evenness of perception. Criticism must recognize all the contradictory facts and all the apparently irreconcilable data, and must see all with equal clearness. It is the business of criticism to look into the matter, to examine all the facts in order to ascertain the essential facts, and to proclaim these when ascertained. Inasmuch as printed criticism can seldom be exhaustive, except in the case of very important works indeed, a printed criticism of a work of art should occupy the space allowed for it with the statements of those facts concerning that work of art which are the most necessary to state. It may be that a more thorough preliminary examination must have been made before a short paragraph is written —the paragraph being critical in its aim—than before an extended review. The exigencies of the periodical press in most cases forbid extended reviews and call for briefest paragraphs. It seems, then, to be true that there is no case in which "to be sure you're right" is more important than in writing brief critical notices for a weekly or daily journal.

In the case of critical remarks upon pictures and statues, there are many things about which criticism concerns itself—many chances to be wrong or right. If we take any single instance, we shall find that there is much room for both in the consideration of it. There is Mr. Ward's statue, "The Indian Hunter;" we spoke of it briefly when it was first exhibited, six months ago. A complete critical examination of it would involve a knowledge of the established canons of art and of their application in this case; a knowledge of the sculpture of the human form that already exists in the world, and of the condition under which it has all been produced, for only so can the importance and merit of this sculpture be rightly judged; a knowledge of the external aspect of the human body, of the peculiarities of race which distinguish red men from other races of mankind, and of the relative importance of these peculiarities to the central type; a knowledge of the way of representing in art the abstraction of the form of the human body; a knowledge of the nature of the process of modelling, and so on—it would be hard to make the enumeration logical, and harder to make it complete. And even accurate knowledge of one point does not suffice. The requirements of criticism are vastly more general than the requirements of production, besides being very different from them. It will help judgment very little to be able to pronounce positively upon the truth of modelling of a knee or a wrist—very little, to be sure whether it is a true Sioux or Blackfoot face.

It is pleasant to see, at the stage of development in respect to art which we have reached in America, the question often repeated, "Who is competent to be an art critic?" The question is asked with different motives. Very varying answers would be given if each one who asked were to answer it for himself. It is perhaps asked oftenest by aggrieved artists who feel sure that the writer who has found fault with them cannot be a competent art critic. But whatever prompts the question, it is a good question to ask; it is practical; something will come of it. People who have such a question in their minds will not be so easily dazzled by any elegance or vivacity of style, or so taken up with side issues as to lose sight of the main thing, the essential drift of the criticism.

The question in quotation marks above formed the title of a letter to the *Evening Post* not long ago, signed "Frank Esten." "Who can be art critic?" was the title of another communication to the same journal, in answer to the former, and signed "E. S." We mention these as the latest published remarks upon the subject that we have seen. And before going on to discuss further the matter they treat of and the questions they ask, we mention another contemporary essayist to whose words we may have to refer. Mr. Philip Gilbert Hamerton, an English painter who has written much and with very unequal success on many subjects connected with painting, has begun the publication in the *Art Journal* of a series of papers entitled "Liber Memorialis," from two numbers of which we have learned to anticipate for the completed work a value far beyond anything else that he has published.

We shall not disagree with these writers in respect to the qualification they desire for a critic. The article signed "Frank Esten," if we understand it aright, limits itself to the discussion of external physical forms of art only, and asserts that art critics ought to be educated in these. A safe assertion! We shall differ from the author only in regard to the way to gain the requisite knowledge, and in our objection to his singularly inaccurate, uncritical language, capable as it is of many interpretations. Thus, in the discussion of outline and of "color without light," the words are capable of several meanings, and what the author thought upon these matters the reader strives in vain to discover. We mention this only that we may call attention to one of the requirements in criticism—accurate knowledge of your meaning and power to express it accurately. The paper signed "E. S." considers art from the side of sentiment and thought, and demands the consideration of these in every judgment of works of art. It shows an unusually clear understanding of this little-understood matter, and we regret that we can make no guess as to the authorship of it. But there is one fact toward which both these letters point—which merits and shortcomings alike make clear—that the duty of the art critic for many a year to come must be to teach the principles of that art which appeals to the eye. There is not a line in either letter which does not tend to show that painting and sculpture, the arts, under whatever name, that deal with form and color, are exotics. They are hot-house plants, not natives of other climes alone, but left from other times—fern-trees kept alive from that carboniferous epoch when they grew out of doors. Some men cultivate them because they love them, some because they think it a pleasant thing to have the reputation which the care of them gives; and there is naturally a good deal of difference between the results. There is a great difference between painter and painter. But, great as it is, there is a yet greater difference between the condition of painting now and as it has been.

To instruct the ignorant of art, to interest the careless of art, and especially to guide the enquirer concerning art, seem to us the great objects of art criticism at the present time. The discussion of individual works of art is likely to help in attaining those objects. It is mainly with that view that The Nation undertakes the critical discussion of pictures and statues on exhibition, and would discuss buildings erected if these were not so rarely works of fine art. The thought and feeling of our times find expression in music and in verse far more easily and naturally than in form and color; this, perhaps, we ought not to regret; but, as there is a tendency to return somewhat to those good old ways of expressing thought and feeling, there is need of such examination of their capacities and limitations, such estimate of the more and less favorable manifestations of this tendency, as will help along the needed *renaissance*.

Whatever is to be done for art, whether much or little, the artists have the most important part of it to do. For instance, in the matter of landscape painting, the most successfully practised art of all the fine arts in

America, but which is still in its infancy, more is to be gained by the exhibition of a landscape of great merit than by the cleverest writing about the matter of landscape painting. But, the exhibition of good pictures being given, interpretation is at once needed for the people unused to such a spectacle. And, the exhibition of a few good and many valueless pictures being given, as is usual, interpretation is needed for the people *too* used to the spectacle. We want to help in the revival of art from the dry bones of the recent past, and to interest in it the world of intelligent people who now never look that way. The picture galleries afford a means of doing so.

Such, then, being the requirements upon art criticism, the best art critic is he who can best meet them, or who can adequately meet the most of them. Your student of the history of art may not be anything of a critic; make him a diligent student of nature, and he approaches it; teach him drawing, and you help him wonderfully; give him large views and general cultivation, and he is near it; bestow imagination upon him, and he is something of a critic; and, after that, the more experience and knowledge of men and purity of heart and practical skill in processes of art you give him, the better critic is he. The mistake into which many persons fall, with "Frank Esten," is in supposing the knowledge of aspects and of processes the one thing needful. It is just such a mistake as if they should consider imagination or historical knowledge the one requirement. Ruskin, having studied external nature eight hours a day half his life, and having made himself one of the first landscape draughtsmen of the time, is a better critic because of these things; but if there were question whether to take this from him or his imagination, those who value him as a critic should let the former go and keep the latter.

As few men besides painters are able to give their lives to recording aspects of nature, the painter's opinions of any picture are, and must always be, of great importance. A careful landscape painter's remark, made in earnest, upon another man's landscape, should be heeded and treasured up, particularly if he speaks of truth of representation. Mr. Hamerton is turning his attention to the recording and explaining in words, with wood-cut illustrations, some of the phenomena he sees in nature; it is probable that he will never do anything more useful. But it is seldom the mission of artists to be critical—a critical artist has seldom been seen, and if any one reason were wanted for it this one would answer: they of necessity draw their conclusions from too few and too strongly felt premises. They are greater and more important than the critics, and they have a much more delightful occupation than the critics—or, perhaps, anybody else; it is their business, moreover, to teach the critics, who, in their turn, have to try to impart some of the teachings to the outside and indifferent world.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

The Progress of Chemistry in 1865.—The "Bulletin de la Société Chimique de Paris" contains, besides the memoirs read before that society, tolerably complete abstracts of all the chief chemical investigations which are published in Europe and America, and notices of all chemical discoveries and facts of any importance. Its two annual volumes, therefore, present a pretty fair picture of the doings of chemists during the year, and we may learn from them who the working chemists of the day are, and what they have been studying; and we may further get a general notion of the direction in which the science is advancing, and of the number of workers in its several departments. The labors of three hundred and seventy-five chemists in all are cited at more or less length in the two volumes of the "Bulletin" for 1865. The nationalities of these men are very various; France, Germany, England, Switzerland, Austria, Italy, Russia, and the United States are all represented, Germany the most fully, and the United States altogether the most feebly. Only six Americans appear upon the whole list, and of these six four received the greater part of their chemical education abroad. The American contributions are, moreover, insignificant, and of no general scope. That it may not be imagined that this state of affairs is due to the prejudice of foreigners against American productions, it may be well to mention that to the two volumes of the "American Journal of Science" for 1865 only twelve persons contributed papers of a chemical sort, and of these twelve a large portion are rather mineralogists and geologists than chemists. The truth is that there are no positions in this country in which an advanced student of chemistry can find time and opportunity for the prosecution of original researches. The professors in our universities are hard-worked schoolmasters, who are fortunate if they have time and means to acquaint themselves and their pupils with the progress and discoveries of others. Those that grow weary in this harness are apt to turn their attention to some branch of technical chemistry, in which, at least, money is to be made. The evils which result to the community from this state of affairs cannot, however, be conveniently discussed in this connection. About two hundred of the subjects discussed in the pages of the "Bulletin" for 1865 belong to pure organic chemistry, about one hundred and twenty-five subjects relate to pure inorganic chemistry, including in this term mineralogy and analytical chemistry, and about one hundred and fifteen to the applications of chemistry to agriculture, medicine, metallurgy, dyeing and printing, sugar-making, and the various chemical manufactures. It appears, then, that nearly three-quarters of all the investigations here recorded belong to the domain of pure science; their immediate motive and direct effect is to advance and extend the science of chemistry, not to improve an art or manufacture. Of what the indirect effect of these researches upon the useful arts may or may not be, no man who remembers the time when aniline was a chemical curiosity will speak with much confidence. It is to be observed that organic chemistry seems to be the most attractive field for enterprising and ambitious students. This is because this branch of the subject has been the least studied, new principles and new substances lie nearer at hand, and any industrious explorer may find on the confines of the territory plenty of surface-ore which will yield even to the hasty and inexperienced seeker some grains of truth. A majority of the young students who do so much of the task-work of the science choose organic rather than inorganic chemistry, and they work under the lead and inspiration of a few very able men who have exclusively devoted themselves to this branch of chemistry, such as Hofmann in Berlin, Würtz in Paris, Williamson in London, Kolbe in Leipzig, and Kekulè in Ghent. These men and their associates and followers have so developed and magnified the chemistry of the combination of carbon, for this is the best definition of organic chemistry, that to a new student the principles and methods applicable to this branch of the subject seem to be the master principles, and the best methods of all chemistry, and the nomenclature best suited to the clear statement of the facts of organic chemistry seems to be the only nomenclature which can by any possibility be useful in the general science. But it is to be noticed that inorganic and technical chemistry together still claim and receive the larger share of the time and attention of working chemists; and so long as this is the case we need not fear that the theories and notation of organic chemistry will have any undue influence upon the development of the general science.

Acetylene.—Berthelot has lately demonstrated the formation of acetylene ($C_4 H_2$) during incomplete combustion of hydrocarbons. A very simple experiment will demonstrate this for gases or volatile liquids. Fill a glass tube of about 300 cubic centimetres capacity with any gaseous hydrocarbon, like ethylene or marsh-gas, for example, or pour into the tube a few drops of a liquid hydrocarbon, like ether, benzine, or acetone; then add a few centimetre cubes of the ammoniacal chloride of copper, inflame the combustible vapor, and hold the tube almost horizontally, turning it between the fingers so as to spread the cupreous reagent over the inside of the tube; there will immediately appear the red cupreous precipitate which characterizes acetylene. This experiment is an excellent lecture experiment, especially brilliant with ether. Berthelot has before demonstrated the formation of acetylene when organic compounds are exposed for a long time to a red heat, but he declares that the amount of acetylene formed by this new method of incomplete combustion is much greater than that formed from the same compounds by heat alone, and thinks it possible that a new method of preparing acetylene, more advantageous than any now known, may be based upon his observations. But not only is acetylene produced by the combustion of hydrocarbons in partially closed vessels; it is always formed when an organic compound burns in the air with a sooty flame. Berthelot procured acetylene from the imperfect, or smoky, combustion of coal-gas, benzine, turpentine, petroleum, and other less familiar hydrocarbons. These observations explain in part the peculiar smell often perceptible in a room lighted by gas. The acetylene thus carried into the air has fortunately no poisonous effect in itself, but its presence is a sign of incomplete combustion, and such imperfect combustion may generate a gas which is pre-eminently poisonous, the oxide of carbon. This formation of acetylene is, furthermore, not without an important bearing on the general theory of combustion. The hydrogen of hydrocarbons has been supposed to burn first, leaving the carbon free and incandescent. But if, as Berthelot asserts, naphthaline ($C_{20} H_8$) generates acetylene ($C_4 H_2$) in burning, it must be that a part at least of the naphthaline loses its carbon before its hydrogen. $C_{20} H_8 - {}_4 C_4 H_2 + C^4$. In reality, the combustion of hydrocarbons does not take place by a single decomposition, but by a series of decompositions. Berthelot's investigation adds acetylene to the intermediate substances already known

to be formed during the decomposition of hydrocarbons into the carbonic acid and water which are the ultimate products of their combustion.

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This book discusses matters of immediate and engrossing interest pertaining to Reconstruction at the South. It is the record of observations made by the author during a journey of several months in a number of the Southern States after the cessation of hostilities. He had every opportunity to note the effect produced upon the people of the South by the complete annihilation of their military power, and to observe the change caused by the reconstruction policy of the President. He was brought in contact with representatives of all classes, from provisional governors to rice negroes, and he gives full accounts of his conversations with various persons with reference to what is called the "negro question." He describes the conventions held in North and South Carolina and Georgia to act upon the policy of the President; the present condition of things at Andersonville, Salisbury, and Florence; scenes in the track of Sherman's army; and the characteristics of social life in the interior of South Carolina and Georgia.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Saturday Evening,
April 14, 1866.

Some small improvement has taken place in general business during the past week. The steadiness and partial improvement in gold and bills have led some merchants to believe that the lowest points have been touched for the present, and hence goods have moved more readily, though there has been no great recovery in prices. Wool is 1½ to 2 cents better than it was a week ago, though still 4 to 5 cents below cost; provisions are rather better; and there is an improved enquiry for breadstuffs at rather higher figures than those which were current a week ago. In the grocery trade no improvement in prices is quoted, but at the quotations goods move more freely than they did. The same is true of hides. In the dry-goods trade, importers complain that even at the decline they can only sell small lots.

Gold improved this week to 128½, closing this evening at 126⅝. The advance was mainly due to the news from Germany. It seems that the threatened hostilities between Austria and Prussia led to a panic on the Frankfort Bourse, and 5-20s were done at a rate equal to 69½ in London. At this price there is a profit of 5 per cent. in gold on their importation, and $1,500,000 are said to be on their way. On this expectation, so many bears in gold closed their "shorts," and so many speculators bought for the rise, that, from being worth ⅛ to 3-16 per cent. a day for delivery, gold was actually lent "flat" on Friday. Exchange felt the effect in the same degree. Before the news of the Frankfort panic arrived, bankers' bills were offered at 106. On Thursday they sold at 107¾, and an advance to 108½ was generally expected. These anticipations were not realized. The highest rates of the week were those of Thursday, and this morning good bills were offered at 107 to 107¼. On reflection, it does not seem likely that the German quarrel can exercise any lasting influence upon our markets. In the first place, it is generally doubted whether the dispute will lead to actual war; and secondly, in the event of war, the first panic over, our securities would be likely to rise in public favor as German stocks declined. As to the importation of 5-20 bonds from Europe, a very simple principle governs the case. Of bonds held in first hands—*i. e.*, in the hands of the bankers who imported them from this country—a considerable proportion may be returned to us for the sake of the profit on the exchange. Of bonds held by investors, few or none will come home. To estimate the quantity of bonds to arrive, therefore, some guess must be formed with regard to the quantity still remaining in first hands in Europe. Nothing positive, of course, can be ascertained on the subject; but German bankers here say that their correspondents have been in the habit of disposing of their bonds quite as fast as they received them, and that the aggregate amount in first hands in London and Frankfort will not exceed a very few millions. Meanwhile, several millions have been sold here to arrive. Should the next advices report an actual outbreak of war in Germany, it would be fair to expect 5-20s to arrive in considerable parcels for two or three weeks to come. Should the war blow over, none would come, and the parties who sold short here, and sent to Europe to buy, might lose money on the operation.

The United States Senate passed the loan bill on Tuesday, and on Thursday it was signed by the President and became a law. Nothing has yet transpired with regard to Mr. McCulloch's policy under the act. He regards it as insufficient, but at the same time expresses to his friends his belief that he can, even with the limited authority conferred upon him, do much towards restoring the currency to a specie standard. His first step will probably be to offer a new loan in exchange for debt certificates, deposit certificates, clearing-house certificates, interest-bearing legal tender, 7.30 notes, and ordinary legal tender. Nearly six months have elapsed since he offered a funding loan, and the market is ripe for a new issue. Opinions differ as to the probable character of the new bonds. Some expect new 5-20s, while others, claiming acquaintance with the private views of the Secretary, are confident that a very long 5 per cent. bond—say 90 years—will be offered to the public. A 90-year 5 per cent. bond would probably sell for par in large amounts. There are many, however, who, in view of the low rate of interest paid by Great Britain on her debt, would consider 5 per cent. too much for the United States to pay for a bond running for three generations. In view of the prospect, bankers and dealers in Governments are prepared to be beforehand with the Secretary, and have already bid up 7.30 notes to 100¾, and compound-interest notes to within ¾ to 1 per cent. of their nominal face value. Fortunately for the Government, Mr. McCulloch is at liberty to sell his bonds when, and as, and at the prices he pleases. Thus, if a combination of speculators bid up this or that class of securities in order to extort money from him, he may decline to receive such securities in payment of loans except at such a price as he may deem reasonable. He might, for instance, offer $100,000,000 of bonds in exchange for ordinary legal tender and debt or deposit certificates; the effect would be to bring down the price of 7-30 notes and compound legal tenders, and at the decline he might fund them at fair rates.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets during the past week:

	April 7.	April 14.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104¾	104⅞	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds, old	104	103¾	...	¼
5-20 Bonds of 1865	104	103⅞	....	⅛
10-40 Bonds	91½	92	½	....
7.30 Notes, second series	99⅞	100¾	⅞	....
New York Central	92¾	92½	....	¼
Erie Railway	79	72½	....	6½
Hudson River	110	109 ex. d.	4	....
Reading Railroad	101¾	104¼	3½	....
Michigan Southern	81½	80	....	1½
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	80½	79¾	....	¾
Chicago and North-western	26½	26⅞	⅜	....
" " " Preferred	55½	55¼	....	¼
Chicago and Rock Island	116	119½	3½	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	90¾	91¼	½	....
Canton	48	52½	4½	....
Cumberland	43½	44½	1	....
Mariposa	11¾	13	1¼	....
American Gold	127¼	126¼	....	1
Bankers' Bills on London	106¼	107¼	....	1
Call Loans	6	5	....	1

The stock market continues feverish, excited, and variable. There is a clique in almost every stock, and the bears, thoroughly cowed by their defeat in Michigan Southern, appear to have temporarily abandoned the field to their opponents. Favored by the ease of money, these cliques are piling up stocks in great blocks, and borrowing money on them of the National banks. Should a speculative fever break out, such as we had in 1863 and 1864, they will be enabled to dispose of their property at a profit. Should the market continue as at present, a "brokers' market," in which the "outside public" take no interest, they will hold on until a tightening of money, or some other accident, compels them to realize, and then we shall have a panic. Speculation during the past week has run chiefly upon Reading and the light miscellaneous stocks. Reading advanced at one time to 105. It has been announced that the directors have determined to pay hereafter semi-annual dividends of 5 per cent. The announcement is of doubtful authenticity; but it is not at all doubtful that there is a large short interest in the stock, and that the bulls are going to try to bleed their opponents. The earnings of the road will naturally be smaller this year than last. An active movement has developed itself in Canton, Cumberland, Quicksilver, and Mariposa. Each of these fancy stocks has risen considerably on grounds of varying soundness. Government is said to be about to buy certain land belonging to the Canton Company, and the purchase would, if effected, enable the directors to cancel several thousand shares of stock. Quicksilver has risen on a theory that a new demand is to arise for the product of the mine. No special grounds have been assigned for the improvement in Cumberland, Mariposa, and the other light fancies. They rose simply because, to the Street speculators, they seemed to be "the fashion." Erie has declined heavily—6½ per cent. in a week. The earnings of the road for March show a falling off equal to $260,000. This decline in traffic was pretty generally expected, and it is widely believed that it will continue throughout the year. Michigan Southern lies dead on the market, and the price declines slowly. In the course of a few weeks it may again sell at 65 to 66. The litigation growing out of the recent corner is still pending before the courts. Hudson River advanced 4 per cent. on the dividend, but is now rather offered at the advance. New York Central is inactive. It is understood that the Albany bill is sure of becoming a law. It will add a trifle to the gross receipts of the road, but so much stock has been bought to sell on the news of its passage that the good news is not unlikely to be followed by a decline in the price.

1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71		
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52		
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87		
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40		
Paid Annuities	10,242 55		
Paid Taxes	38,076 52		
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94		
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63	
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82		
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30		
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25		
Real Estate	782,307 34		
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85	
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00		
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73		
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03	
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

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NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over - - - - - - - -	$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over - - - - - -	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - -	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - - -	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - - -	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force.

Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

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☞ Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

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INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - -	$2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - -	3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - -	77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.
CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,
BROOKLYN, N. Y.
OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

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ASSETS - - - - - - - - - - -	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

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We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, and EXCHANGE of GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues; to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, and GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

THE
MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,
COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET,
JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

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Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

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GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT
PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

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These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

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At Springdale, Northampton, Mass. Number limited to Forty.

Aware of the principles Dr. Denniston proposes conducting it upon, we are induced to recommend his establishment for the treatment of Chronic Diseases of various kinds. We believe it contains all the advantages of similar establishments, and have confidence in the skill and judgment, experience and prudence, of Dr. D. to direct the application of the various remedial treatment according to the exigencies of the individual cases.

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Geo. Hayward, M.D., J. M. Warren, M.D.,
Edw. Reynolds, M.D., M. I. Perry, M.D.,
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BOSTON, February 29, 1848.
Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D.,
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late
WM. GALE & SON,
SILVERSMITH,
487 BROADWAY, cor. BROOME ST., NEW YORK,
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590 Broadway, Metropolitan Hotel,
while the premises
572 & 574 Broadway, Metropolitan Hotel
(which will be ready in July),
are being prepared for permanent occupancy.

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THE WEED MACHINES,

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CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.
CHARTERED 1850.
Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.
JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.
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MAKE THE

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS,

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., } Medical Examiners.
GEORGE WILKES, M.D., }
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

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THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

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OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

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Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices $60, $75, $100, $125, $150, $175, $200, and $225. Factory and Warerooms, 481 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

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GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT PIANO-FORTES

Have taken Thirty-two First Premiums, Gold and Silver Medals, at the Principal Fairs held in this country within the last ten years, and in addition thereto they were awarded a First Prize Medal at the Great International Exhibition in London, 1862, in competition with 269 Pianos from all parts of the World.

That the great superiority of these instruments is now universally conceded is abundantly proven by the FACT that Messrs. Steinways' "scales, improvements, and peculiarities of construction" have been copied by the great majority of the manufacturers of both hemispheres (AS CLOSELY AS COULD BE DONE WITHOUT INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT RIGHTS) and that their instruments are used by the most eminent pianists of Europe and America, who prefer them for their own public and private use, whenever accessible.

STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their

PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT,

which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that ALL their patrons may reap its benefits.

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The Nation.

VOL. II.—NO. 43. THURSDAY, APRIL 26, 1866. { SIX DOLLARS PER ANNUM / SINGLE COPIES, 15 CENTS

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The Week.

THE overworked President made two speeches last week, one to a procession of negroes and one to a procession of discharged soldiers and sailors. The first was brief and remarkably incoherent. Eight or nine times in the course of five minutes the negroes were told that the day would soon come when they would see who had been their true friend, more their friend than any other man, and who had been riding the colored man for the sake of being carried into power. There was little else in the speech. The second, a longer one, was less rambling, but the display of ill-temper, as it must be called, was even greater than in the speech to the negroes. The policy of reconstruction which the President approves was once again explained and "the soldiers and sailors expressly" were asked to support it. The President took it for granted that the Congressmen who oppose it are not seeking a different method of "triumphantly passing through our third ordeal;" but that it is their purpose to gratify the "feelings of resentment which animated us when the excitement was running high," and "to destroy the States." Incidentally the President said that it was easy to impugn motives, and that he seriously intended to be the "tribune of the people."

IN three cases already the civil rights bill has appeared in the courts. In Baltimore, on the 14th instant, a colored man sued his employer, the captain of an oyster boat, for wages withheld from him. The magistrate admitted the negro's testimony, the captain acknowledged the debt, and the money was paid. On the 18th instant, a person of color was for the first time admitted as a witness into the State court of Maryland, at Annapolis, the counsel introducing him claiming the right to do so under the provisions of the bill. Previously, on the 11th instant, a case occurred in Indiana in which the bill seemed in a fair way to be tested in a United States court. The turn it took is worth recording. A negro had sued a white man for breach of contract. The defendant, in his answer, set up the 13th article of the State constitution, which forbids negroes to enter the State, and debars them from making or enforcing contracts. The plaintiff demurred, maintaining that for three reasons that article was void, the third reason being that it conflicted with the 1st section of the civil rights bill. The justice decided in favor of the plaintiff. The case went into the U. S. Circuit Court on appeal, and the decision of the justice was there sustained, but on the ground that by the Constitutional Amendment abolishing slavery a negro is a citizen of the United States, and as such qualified to make and enforce contracts. The civil rights bill, the judge held, had not yet been officially promulgated, and for that reason, and for that reason only, the plaintiff could not rely upon it.

IT seems to be beyond a doubt that the disease at the Quarantine is not ship fever, but the true Asiatic cholera. As yet it has not reached the city. The steamship *England* has arrived from Halifax with all on board well. The total number of deaths aboard her after she left Liverpool was 250. On the *Virginia* the deaths up to Sunday were 61, and the number of persons under treatment was 70. Both vessels and the hospital steamer *Falcon* are at the lower quarantine ground. The Board of Health is proceeding very vigorously. At the last meeting it was decided that temporary hospitals should be provided in various parts of New York and Brooklyn; that the services of physicians whose treatment of cholera was successful during its former visitations should be at once secured; that an order should be put forth interdicting the sale of certain unwholesome articles of food, including, among others, veal and other young meats, and that the underground population of New York and Brooklyn should be removed from their cellars to healthier abodes. For the moment, in sanitary matters, our unsuccessful republic of New York is a republic opportunely tempered by a dictatorship.

ON Saturday a criminal action was brought against Otto Burstenbinder, a dealer in nitro-glycerine, who is charged with violating the United States statute which makes it a misdemeanor to ship any explosive materials liable to ignite by friction without first packing them securely, and marking the name and the description of the articles on the outside of the package. Nitro-glycerine, or Nobel's blasting oil, is not manufactured in this country, and we believe that Burstenbinder is the only importer. At any rate, a quantity of it in a pine box, and without the precautionary marks, which he forwarded to San Francisco, caused the terrible accident there which cost seventeen people their lives, and which has been followed by the still more awful catastrophe at Aspinwall. There is a theory that nitro-glycerine is not subject to spontaneous combustion, and this Mr. Burstenbinder probably knew. But there is a well-known fact that a quantity of nitro-glycerine did, not long since, explode, spontaneously to all appearances, at the Wyoming Hotel, and this also he probably knew. So, unless we suppose him ignorant of the statute above-mentioned, he lies under a dreadful responsibility. All the nitro-glycerine in the city has been removed by order of Mayor Hoffman, and is now stored in a detached magazine, with a guard over it.

MR. RAYMOND, of the Committee on Foreign Affairs, has made a preliminary report on the fishery question. It appears that the treaty of 1783 gave American fishermen in colonial waters the same rights as are enjoyed by British fishermen. In the treaty of 1814 the fisheries were not mentioned; and in 1818, to allay troubles that had arisen, a convention was made under which we were debarred from fishing within three miles of land. Troubles again arose, for the English held that the line of exclusion should not follow all the sinuosities of that winding coast, but should be drawn from headland to headland of all bays, the great as well as the small. The crown lawyers maintained that the war of 1812 and the treaty of 1814 annulled the treaty of 1783, and invalidated all concessions made by it. The dispute was never settled, but in 1854 the Reciprocity treaty made the fisheries completely free. Now the Reciprocity treaty is at an end, and the question arises, What treaty defines our rights? If the treaty of 1783 was annulled by war and treaty, is that of 1818 good, which was an-

nulled by treaty alone? Mr. Raymond thinks not, evidently believing war to be no more powerful than treaties in its nullifying effect.

In a recent suit in Massachusetts, involving a promissory note, the defendants demurred to the declaration required in the writ, because on the copy of the note annexed there was no indication of the stamp which was affixed to the original. The Supreme Court, on an appeal from the Superior Court, decided that "a revenue stamp is no part of the note and need not be copied; nor is the validity of the note affected by the want of a stamp, unless it is omitted fraudulently." Judge Hoar pronounced in effect the same decision in the case of a deed to which no revenue stamp was affixed. Whatever may have been the intention of Congress in framing the internal revenue law, he was "clear in the opinion that a statute of the United States, undertaken to invalidate an instrument which by the laws of the State is valid, would be unconstitutional. The Government may exact a penalty for failure to affix the stamp, but cannot make void the instrument for lack of the stamp."

A committee of the Chicago Academy of Sciences have been examining the flesh of swine, slaughtered in that city, with a view of finding out whether the *trichina spiralis* exists in American pork. They report that 1,394 hogs were examined, and that of these twenty-eight, or more than one in fifty, were diseased. In some cases the number of worms in a cubic inch of meat was as high as 18,000. The advice given by the committee is such as the public has heard before: hogs are not to be allowed animal food; pork must be well cooked, or well smoked, or desiccated, before it is eaten; pickling does not destroy the trichina.

C. C. Clay has been released upon his parole and goes to Alabama, which he is not to leave without permission. General Grant, Senator Wilson, Mr. R. J. Walker, Mr. Thaddeus Stevens, and others recommended his liberation, none of them believing him accessory to Mr. Lincoln's murder. Mr. Stevens, it is reported, if he had his way, "would try him as a belligerent, confiscate his property, and let him go." If Mr. Stevens really made this brilliant suggestion—which we doubt—he ought to explain in what the offence of a "belligerent" consists, and before what tribunal the offender is indictable. Clay's release, we presume, disposes of the story lately set afloat by the correspondents that a mass of astounding evidence had been discovered proving Davis, Mallory, Clay, and many more to have been implicated in the assassination conspiracy.

There are many cooks at work upon the scheme of military administration, both as regards the standing army and the militia. The war proved again and again what no man with any knowledge of history required to be proved, the utter absurdity and wastefulness of an old system. There is great danger, nevertheless, that its essential faults will be re-established. The influence of private and class interests is much too evident in the discussion of the matter to allow us much confidence that an efficient, well-guarded, economical, comprehensive plan of national defense can be wrought out during the present session of Congress.

The Cincinnati *Gazette* calls attention to one or two incidents in the career of Mr. Henry S. Stanberry, who has just been nominated for the judgeship of the Supreme Court, which are worth notice. It is now pretty well known that he was the gentleman who supplied Mr. Johnson with his legal objections to the civil rights bill. But in addition to this, he made a speech at Cincinnati, in 1861, in which he demonstrated that there could be no war, because all the Government could do was to enforce the law, after indictments had been presented by the grand juries and warrants had been placed in the hands of the marshals. But there were neither marshals nor grand juries in the South, and therefore the Government could do nothing. The Union was to perish, like the Queen of Spain who was burnt up in the presence of the courtiers, owing to the absence of any functionary duly authorized by court etiquette to lay hands on the royal person. Mr. Stanberry insisted in an argument equally luminous that Sherman's treaty with Johnston was an official recognition of the restoration of the revolted States to their old status in the Union—the cessation of hostilities leaving everything as it was before the war. Mr. Stanberry is, we believe, a man of the very highest character, and a lawyer of very unusual attainments, and we confess we have on general principles the strongest objection to seeing enquiries instituted into any man's political views for the purpose of ascertaining his fitness for a seat on the judicial bench. But then the truth is that the Supreme Court does not simply declare the law; it to a certain extent shapes the polity of the country, and the opinions of its judges as to the fundamental structure of the Government are, and will be for some time to come, of the last importance. Mr. Stanberry's mind, whatever else it may be, is not that of a statesman, and a judge of the Supreme Court ought to be a statesman. His total want of humor, or, in other words, of a sense of the just relation of things, was well illustrated by his objection to the civil rights bill, on the ground that it would give citizenship to the gipsies, and might possibly lead to a legalization of mixed marriages by Congress. In the atmosphere of one-third constitutional law, one-third general jurisprudence, and one-third political expediency, in which the Supreme Court passes its time, there is some danger that Mr. Stanberry would be asphyxiated. He needs the sharp air of the common law to secure the healthy action of his mind.

The managers of the Boston theatres are said to have combined to resist prosecution under the law prohibiting them from excluding colored persons from their entertainments. The penalty, apart from the loss of custom, is a mere fine, and these gentlemen, who ought to "advertise in the New York *Herald*," believe that prejudice has not yet become too dear a luxury.

Five gentlemen one after another, ex-Governor Tod, of Ohio, being the last, have recently taken occasion to rebuke a piece of political knavery which is so disgracefully common that it must sometimes be successful. They announce that when the "Johnson National Union Club," the one with Mr. Montgomery Blair at the head of it, printed their names in its list of vice-presidents, it was guilty of borrowing them without leave. In this latest instance the trick seems to have been practised more boldly than usual, and the exposure of it is correspondingly public.

We see it stated in a Chicago paper that a tobacco firm of that city, which employs some thirty hands, is making trial of the eight-hour system. Their experience is said to show that as much work is now done in eight hours as ever was done in ten, and therefore they are paying the same wages as before. We very much hope the experiment may continue to give satisfaction to both parties, and we are glad to see it tried. Just as soon as it is proved that as much of a given kind of work can be done in the short day as in the long, we have no doubt that the wages of eight hours and the wages of ten will be the same. And whenever it is proved true of all kinds of work that as much of it is done in eight hours as can be done in ten, there will be no need of the legislatures interfering. Meantime, the movement has reached Washington, and a resolution has been introduced in the House which looks to the establishment of an eight-hour rule in the District of Columbia. The Massachusetts House rejected an eight-hour bill on Friday. It had already passed to a third reading a bill providing for an inspector of children in manufacturing establishments, and of apprenticeships.

Our French correspondent told some weeks ago the story of the seizure in Paris, by the Prefect of Police, of the whole edition of the Duc d'Aumale's "Histoire des Princes de la Maison de Condé." As our readers know, that great safeguard of freedom, the right of every citizen to prosecute government functionaries for illegal acts before courts of law, has never been enjoyed by Frenchmen, and, of course, there is as little disposition to concede it, even under the Empire, as ever before, although without it all other rights may be said to be a mockery. Of what use would Magna Charta or the *habeas corpus* be to a man

who, when a police officer choose to lock him up or seize his goods under a government order, had no better remedy than a protest? In France you may sue an official, but you must first get leave from the Council of State; which is, of course, tantamount to not being able to sue him at all. The Duc d'Aumale sought the required permission, and his counsel was heard on the point of law. The result has been a decree, stating that as the prefect who made the seizure acted under the orders of the Minister of the Interior, his superior officer, the Duc d'Aumale, the publisher, and all others concerned, may go about their business, for the prefect they may not sue.

Some idea may be had of the way in which foreign names are mangled between the telegraph and the printer, by a chain of blunders in one of our daily papers last week, in a despatch from Berlin. Instead of "the fortresses of Glatz, Casel, Neissef Forgan, Wittemburg, Spandan, and Madgeburg are to be armed," one should have read Cosel, Neisse, Torgau, Wittemberg, Spandau, and Magdeburg. The same paper once described the journey of the Tunisian embassy from Leghorn to Paris by the unheard-of route of Mt. Sinai! *Mt. Cenis* was, of course, intended. An explicable if not excusable blunder was that in which the entire press of this country participated some time ago, when the Czar (Alexander III.) was said to have declared that Lithuania was worse governed now than it had been under Nicholas. The *Czas*, a Polish newspaper of Cracow, was the author of a statement otherwise so unfilial on the one hand, and so self-damaging on the other.

Laboulaye has betaken himself to Strasburg, and written a letter, through the press, to the liberal constituency of the district. It is noted as a singular circumstance that, in a department chiefly inhabited by Catholics and Israelites, the rival candidates are both Protestants.

A co-operative society of journeymen printers, at Paris, has received the Imperial warrant, much to its surprise and to the great joy of the 24,000 printers of the city.

Italy reckons 164 public libraries and 46 not accessible to the public; 33 belong to the Government. Of these, 39 are devoted to special subjects, including literature and science (11), and fine arts exclusively (3). The 210 libraries contain 4,149,287 volumes. The taste of readers is indicated by the fact that out of 988,510 books called for in 1863, 183,528 pertained to mathematics and the natural sciences; 121,496 to history and physiology (the classification is not ours); 70,537 to philosophy and morals; 54,590 to religion; 193,927 to law. The students of the fine arts had occasion for 261,689 works.

A suppressed letter of Mazzini's has just come to light. It was written immediately on hearing of his election at Messina, but was withheld from publication for political reasons by his assumed friends. The substance of it is, that the republican of thirty-four years' standing may, for the sake of Italian unity, hold his political doctrines in abeyance, but can never stultify himself by taking the oath of allegiance to a monarchical government. He thanks the electors of Messina for their generous protest, in a spirit of firmness characteristic of Sicily—an island, he adds, in which "I was not born, and which, it grieves me to reflect, I have never visited."

The autopsy performed on the body of a young officer recently deceased of typhus at Tournay, in Belgium, discovered the extraordinary fact that the usual position of the vital organs was completely reversed with him, and that the heart, instead of being on the left side, had worked with perfect regularity on the right. One only regrets that Molière's "médecin malgré lui," who has had the laugh against him for nigh two centuries, was not able to attend this curious case. He might then have re-affirmed with gravity: "Yes, that used to be so; *mais nous avons changé tout cela*, and we practise medicine now on an entirely different theory."

The Russian nobility were repulsed last month in a firm but respectful endeavor to extend the constitutional privileges not only of their own order but of the entire country. They asked, first, that their wishes might be allowed on all occasions to go straight to the ear of the Emperor himself, and thereupon be examined by the legislative power; thence to be submitted to the administration, and considered by the full cabinet of ministers. They asked, further, that the deputies of the assemblies of the nobles and of the territorial assemblies should have the inalienable right of voting in the deliberations of the legislative power on questions arising out of the petitions of the assemblies. The Emperor replied that it was not the business of the nobility to take the initiative in fundamental reforms like this. So the nobility of St. Petersburg contented themselves with ordering a portrait of Prince Schterbatoff, their head, who had proposed the unsuccessful address to the throne.

CONGRESS.

Washington, April 21, 1866.

The week has been fruitless of legislation upon the vital and overshadowing question of restoring the Union. Instead of this, the House has occupied nearly the whole of each day's session upon the bill to re-organize the army of the United States, a very important measure, upon the details of which opinion is greatly, if not hopelessly, divided. The House Committee on Military Affairs, at the head of which is General Schenck, of Ohio, has matured a bill differing most materially from that which has already passed the Senate. The House bill proposes many radical changes and reforms in the service, the most vital one being a thorough revisal of the whole list of army officers by a board of generals, to determine what officers shall be retained in the service. Of course this feature meets with bitter if not general opposition from officers of the present army and their friends in Congress. The House bill also proposed to retain the present Veteran Reserve Corps, with its officers, as a permanent feature, constituting ten regiments, and increasing the army to a total of fifty-five regiments of infantry, instead of fifty, as provided by the Senate bill, which also dispensed with the Reserve Corps. The House has added two regiments of colored cavalry, and, by a close vote, has adopted an amendment proposed by Mr. Conkling, of New York, providing for mustering out all officers of the Veteran Reserve Corps. In fact, the bill has been so cut up and amended in all directions by the House as to be now scarcely recognizable by its own father, and it is now generally thought that it will be killed at last without becoming a law.

Whether the army bill which passed the Senate will share the same fate remains to be seen. That bill, however, has the advantage of being approved, in its main features, by Lieutenant-General Grant, Major-General Meade, and other generals of the highest rank, who have considered maturely the details of our permanent army organization.

The President's recommendation to Congress, that the test oath of July 2, 1862, be modified so as to permit officers of the Revenue and of the Post-office Department to be appointed in the rebellious States without the necessity of swearing that they have never aided the rebellion, is to be reported against by the Judiciary Committee of the House. Yet the Secretary of the Treasury and the Postmaster-General are positive in the opinion that the Government cannot get along and collect its dues at the South without a relaxation of this law.

The scheme of national telegraph lines, to be owned and operated by the Government, has got so far as the appointment in the Senate of a select committee, of which John Sherman is chairman, to investigate and report upon the subject. Such a system would unquestionably be a great popular benefit; and it is furthermore easy to see that the Government might make the lines self-supporting for greatly less than a moiety of the prices now charged for telegraphic messages, even were it found that the claim of the friends of the scheme was not wholly borne out—namely, that telegraphic communication can be reduced to the present price of letter postage, or three cents for a message of ten words or less. One principal motive which should influence the Government in favor of the speedy establishment of telegraphic lines of its own, at least over all our leading post-routes, is the present enormous cost of the Government's own telegraphing business. It is understood that

Postmaster-General Dennison is favorable to the scheme, and the present is certainly a most opportune season for carrying it into effect.

DIARY.

Monday, April 16, 1866.—In the Senate, the bill to rescind the order of President Lincoln designating the Sioux City and Pacific RR. Co. to construct a branch of the Union Pacific Railroad was discussed at length and laid over. Also, a bill for relief of certain naval contractors. A bill was passed to incorporate the District of Columbia Canal and Sewerage Company.

In the House, Mr. Hill offered a constitutional amendment to base representation upon voters. Mr. Jenckes offered a joint resolution to make elections of representatives to Congress uniform in all the States, and to provide a registration of voters, and to require loyalty as a test. Referred. Mr. Ingersoll offered a resolution looking to the establishment by Congress of the eight-hour system of labor throughout the District of Columbia. A motion to lay it on the table was lost—yeas, 15; nays, 92. Laid over.

On motion of Mr. Farnsworth, the Judiciary Committee was instructed to enquire into the propriety of confiscating lands purchased by the late Confederate States, and used for prison camps, etc.

April 17.—In the Senate, a joint resolution making an appropriation to enable the President to make treaties with certain Indian tribes was passed. The bill to amend the *habeas corpus* act of 1863, so as to save U. S. officers from prosecution for acts done by military authority, was debated at length.

In the House, resolutions of the convention of Texas in favor of a Southern branch of the Pacific Railroad were received, and referred to the Pacific Railroad Committee. The day was spent upon the bill for re-organization of the army.

April 18.—In the Senate, the bill to pay certain contractors an extra compensation for vessels of war and steam machinery was debated at length.

In the House, the army re-organization bill again occupied the day. An amendment providing that all officers of the Veteran Reserve Corps except those detailed for duty in the Freedmen's Bureau shall be mustered out of service and put on the same footing with other disabled officers, was adopted—yeas, 59; nays, 43.

April 19.—In the Senate, Mr. Wilson moved to reconsider the vote by which the Senate rejected the admission of Colorado as a State. The motion to reconsider was opposed by Messrs. Sumner and Grimes, who argued that the population of the Territory was too small for a State, and that its constitution denies suffrage to men of color. Made a special order for April 24.

In the House, a bill to regulate the terms of U. S. Courts in the Eastern District of New York was passed. A bill to increase the salary of the Commissioner of Pensions from $3,000 to $4,000 was passed—yeas, 61; nays, 51. The day was again occupied by the army bill.

April 20.—In the Senate, a joint resolution to extend the time for the construction of the first section of the Western Pacific Railroad was passed. The bill to protect United States officers from prosecution for acts done under military authority during the rebellion was debated at length. An amendment offered by Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, to limit its operation to acts done in the rebel States, was lost—yeas, 10; nays, 29. An amendment excepting from the protection of the bill "acts done with malice, cruelty, or unnecessary severity" was adopted—yeas, 18; nays, 16. The bill was then passed—yeas, 30; nays, 4. Adjourned to April 23.

In the House, several private bills were passed, and the bill for the re-organization of the army was further debated and amended.

April 21.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, several speeches on the state of the Union were made, but no business was done. Adjourned to April 23.

THE FREEDMEN.

The event of the week for the freedmen has been their celebration at the Capital of emancipation in the District of Columbia. The actual anniversary of this great event is April 16th; but the unpropitious weather caused a postponement till the 19th, and the date thus selected was doubly pregnant with associations of freedom. We are glad to adopt the *Times*' report of the proceedings as telegraphed by its Washington correspondent:

"The colored people turned out almost *en masse*, arrayed in their very best, and entirely through their own effort arranged and carried out one of the most successful celebrations ever witnessed in this city. There were two colored regiments in the procession, fourteen civic societies, with banners and regalia, several ward clubs very strong in numbers, and a number of school and juvenile societies. The procession was over a mile in length, and filled Pennsylvania Avenue from the Capitol to the White House, and must have contained 8,000 persons. The march was enlivened by music from six brass bands and several drum corps, all composed of colored musicians. The American flag was proudly borne at brief intervals along the entire procession, and as the swarthy column moved along the Avenue, with flashing bayonets and fluttering flags and waving banners, the sight was very imposing. There were many excellent portraits of President Lincoln borne in the column, draped in mourning or wreathed in evergreens, and many grateful and touching allusions to him on the banners and devices. The column complimented the Freedmen's Bureau, Gen. Grant's headquarters, the White House, the Capitol, and all the public buildings, by marching past and cheering them. The President made them a brief speech, and the cheers of the column at the Capitol induced an adjournment of the Senate at 1:30 o'clock. The House did not adjourn, though while the procession was passing the east front of the Capitol almost every member left his seat to witness it. On returning to Franklin Square—the place of rendezvous—speeches were made by Gen. Butler, Gen. Howard, Senator Wilson and others. The whole affair has been conducted with remarkable order and decorum. Not an intoxicated or disorderly person has been seen on the streets, and the colored people have elevated themselves in the estimation of many of the prejudiced whites by their creditable conduct. So generally did they participate in the event that nearly every kitchen, laundry, barber shop, restaurant, or hotel dependent upon them has been virtually suspended in its operations to-day. The weather was very delightful, and all outward circumstances contributed to the success of the celebration."

—On the same day there was a large procession of the negro population of Hampton Roads and the surrounding country, in honor of the passage of the civil rights bill. Perfect order prevailed, and addresses were delivered by several officers of the department and the Bureau.

—On Saturday forty-eight colored prisoners at the Washington jail—men, women, and children, who all stood committed for petty offences—were, with their own consent, released and sent on their way to Louisiana in charge of Mr. C. L. Howe, an agent of the Bureau. One hundred and twenty-five other freedmen accompanied the party, with a more or less definite prospect of employment and good wages.

—Section 12 of "an act prescribing additional punishments for the commission of offences against the State [of Florida], and for other purposes," provided for stripping the freedmen of their private arms. Trouble seemed likely to ensue, when, upon the protest of the assistant commissioner of the Bureau, and the resolute opposition of Gen. Foster, Gov. Walker was induced to consult the attorney-general, who decided that the section in question was unconstitutional.

—Gen. Tillson is enquiring, through the agents of the Bureau in Georgia, whether the civil authorities are in good faith endeavoring to protect the freedmen by arresting and punishing those who abuse them; and whether the temper of the whites is so unmistakably improving as to render the presence of the Bureau unnecessary at no distant day.

—Long ago General Banks imposed a tax upon the white people of Louisiana for the support of colored schools. He imposed it, but no one collected it until Mr. Conway became assistant commissioner of the Bureau for the State of Louisiana. When General Fullerton relieved Mr. Conway, the collection of the tax was stopped, if not by order of the President, at any rate in pursuance of advice which the President telegraphed to New Orleans. But the Bureau, trusting to the income from this source, had established many schools and had been allowed to run heavily in debt to the United States quartermasters for the means of carrying them on. It became necessary to pay the borrowed money. After General Fullerton had left the State, General Canby, despite the objections of the civil authorities, ordered his provost-marshals to proceed in the work of collection. The tax had been imposed by competent authority, he said. This collection has now for the second time been stopped by the President. A correspondence has recently taken place between him and Governor Wells in relation to this matter. The governor tells the President that the people of the State are in anxious expectation of relief from him, more especially since his proclamation of peace. The President responds, that all orders for the collection of taxes by the Freedmen's Bureau are suspended. It is exceedingly doubtful, therefore, whether General Banks's favorite plan of making Louisiana educate all its ignorant population without distinction of color will ever be carried into effect.

—Another interesting decision touching the present value of former property in human beings comes from Georgia, having been read by Judge Speer at the April term of the Sumter Superior Court. In 1860, it appears, James W. Armstrong sold Columbus W. Hand and others three negroes, for whom he received the notes of the purchasers. Upon these notes the suit was brought. The plea of the defendants was that the seller had warranted the men slaves for life, and that by the abolition of slavery there had been failure of consideration and breach of covenant. The court held that the covenant only warranted the title and *status* of the slaves as the law then stood, and that the covenant was repealed by act of Government. Judgment was therefore entered for the plaintiff; but the case will probably go up to the Supreme Court.

—The text of the constitutional amendment adopted by the Texas convention on the subject of education is before us, and enables us to correct a wrong inference which we made last week from Gov. Hamil-

ton's speech. The amendment provides for a perpetual school fund by the appropriation of certain lands and other State property, but the blacks are expressly excluded from the benefit of this fund, and the legislature is forbidden to pass any law admitting them. Whenever a specific educational tax is ordered, the contribution of the blacks is to be set apart for public schools for them; "and it shall be the duty of the legislature to encourage schools among them."

Minor Topics.

A PUBLIC vice, by no means new, but we fear gaining ground, is a sentimental sympathy with criminals. The story of the Frenchman who, upon trial for murdering both his parents, besought the judge to have pity on a poor orphan, is no longer absurd, for society, taking the place of the judge, is ready to grant the desired pity. Society felt *so* sorry for pretty Mary Harris, who could not help feeling very badly at being shut up in a dirty jail, and being tried before horrid men; but society thought nothing about the other woman in the case. We are all perfectly familiar with, and can account for, the morbid feeling which leads people to gloat over details of murders and to hanker for relics of executions, from the palmiest days of Newgate down to the recent cases of Pellicier and Gonzales, photographed with the immortal Captain Waddy grasping their collars with a now-I've-got-you air, and of the murderer of the Deering family, marched to the photographer immediately upon his arrest. These are the exceptional acts of individuals, but is society really bent on becoming itself *particeps criminis?* No sooner is a criminal, by some accident, past saving by disagreeing juries and the granting of new trials, than everybody concurrently sets to work to find good reasons why, in *that* particular instance, the penalty should not be inflicted. Strange to say, the prime movers are apt to be not the professors of crime, but men of the highest standing; and, stranger still, the basis of their plea is likely to be the youth and innocence of the culprit. In the State of Vermont no man could possibly devise a murder for which he would actually be hung, for the public head has so softened there since the renegade Redding was executed by Ethan Allen that a murderer would be treated as Uncle Toby treated the fly. Massachusetts—the State where crime is supposed most certain to receive swift punishment—happening to have had an executive of weaker stuff than she had when justice, by the execution of Dr. Webster, received the most impressive vindication the country ever saw, has at last executed the Malden murderer, Green, after delaying so long that the lesson of the act is past. A prominent journal of this city prints a special account of the execution, editorially characterizing it—the account—as "painfully interesting." That it was fully meant to be so is quite evident. We quote a few sentences to show how artfully the dodge of youth and innocence is worked up:

"He was frightfully excited. Every pore of his skin seemed to be a pulse. Throb! throb! throb!

"And all the while that infernal hammer! hammer! hammering!

"The wretched man seemed to cling to me as if he had been wild for some friendly heart to lean on. I did not push him away, but fondled the poor boy. He quickly became quiet, and talked with composure.

"'I will die like a man,' he said, 'and yet I can't help feeling that I am to be executed more to satisfy the prejudice of the people than for justice. People look on me as if I was a monster some six feet high; they seem to think that their lives will not be safe if I am not executed.'

"I could not deny the statement, ridiculous as it seemed when one looked at the slight form, which quivered from time to time, as he lay quietly on my breast.

"This morning I saw him again at nine o'clock.

"He was entirely changed.

"When I asked him how he was,

"'I am happy,' he said, calmly and sincerely.

"I have not the heart to relate his religious conversation, boyish and simple and quiet as it was. He lived a boy, silent about religion; he died a boy, talking about religion."

Now we say nothing here upon the propriety or impropriety of apital punishment, but only protest against the growing sentimentalism that has only sympathy for the criminal; that holds that a man who has committed a foul deed is, therefore, proved to be lunatic or idiot; that depicts the executed murderer as a martyr, forgiving upon the gallows all his enemies—*i. e.*, the witnesses, prosecuting attorney, the jury that convicted, and the judge that sentenced—all but the sheriff, who has learned to love him during his confinement and is always his dearest friend. Is crime to be punished? that is the real question. Hanging is by some called judicial murder; but the murders which difficult convictions and pardoning executives encourage—what sort are they, theorist? Let the chances of punishment be doubtful, and crime will give itself the benefit of the doubt. Criminals split heads rather than hairs; they cannot appreciate the finely-drawn distinctions of a commission *de lunatico inquirendo.* Moral responsibility and moral insanity they neither understand nor regard; but legal responsibility they do; and if this man, who killed that man, is hung, or is not hung, they know it and infer accordingly, deriving therefrom all degrees of courage up to that degree by which a trial becomes a pleasant little excitement in an otherwise dull life.

THE scene in the Senate last week between Messrs. McDougall and Conness, in which the former defended himself against the charge of habitual drunkenness, and therefore of constant unfitness for legislative duties, by relating an anecdote in which profanity and obscenity were combined in about equal proportions, was almost as discreditable to the rest of the body as to the two actors in it. It is not greatly to be wondered that there should be States inside the vast area of the Union which send men to Congress who care very little for parliamentary proprieties, and who, in fact, have very little respect for the restraints which the usages of older or more civilized societies impose on men's tongues as well as on their fists. There will always, for instance, be of necessity a good deal of roughness in the manners of border communities, and the men they send to represent them in Congress will, in nine cases out of ten, for reasons too numerous to be stated here, oftener fall below than rise above the average of their constituents. But then it is the business of the Senate to see that they are forced to submit to the rules of the body, and that the safeguards it has provided for the dignity and decorum of its proceedings are not violated with impunity. Mr. McDougall's outbreak was very repulsive, but was it on the whole more repulsive than the helpless, passive silence in which the Senate and its presiding officer listened to him? When he had said all he had to say, and had driven the ladies from the galleries, and disgraced the Government and the country, a mild remonstrance was heard to issue from the Chair. The senator was informed that his language was improper and that he must not repeat it. The naughty man accordingly sat down, no doubt overwhelmed with confusion, and the decent Christian portion of the nation which feels the Senate's honor to be its own, will, of course, feel satisfied hereafter that drunkenness and ribaldry cannot have a hearing in what ought to be the most august assemblage in the world.

Are we never to see a Congress which will have the courage and self-respect to punish this sort of outrage by promptly expelling the offender? Somebody ought, at all events, on such occasions, to have the manliness to rise and move that blackguard language, when uttered in the legislature, be, according to parliamentary usage, taken down, and then, if not properly atoned for, move that the offender be expelled. Even if the motion were not successful, the credit of the body would be to a certain extent saved by showing that a portion of it, at least, winced under disgrace. And nothing could do more to promote care on the part of constituencies in the selection of representatives than the exhibition of more sensitiveness on the part of Congress touching the behavior of its members. If districts and legislatures knew that foul-mouthed drunkards would be turned out of their seats the first time they made a display of their weaknesses, legislatures and districts would not so often send them to Washington.

The special attention of the reader is directed to the Financial Review on another page. Its place among the advertisements is by no means significant of its value, but is resorted to only that we may obtain the latest intelligence of the market.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE POWER OF CONGRESS TO ENFORCE EQUAL SUFFRAGE.

WHEN Mr. Johnson was urged, a little less than a year ago, to rebuild government at the South on the basis of equal suffrage, he declared himself unable to see how it could be constitutionally done. The same objection has been raised again and again not only by enemies of the measure, but also by many of its professed friends. It has been generally conceded that the Federal Government has no power to interfere in New York or Connecticut with the right of suffrage, and it is, therefore, asked, with an air of triumph, how it can have any greater right to interfere with similar regulations in South Carolina and Mississippi.

It must be admitted that some of the answers which have been given have failed to convince the mass of the people. Mr. Stevens maintains, and with a strong array of reasoning, that the South is mere conquered territory, as absolutely at the disposal of the Government as was California in 1848. But this doctrine is almost as unpalatable to the conquerors as to the conquered, and even those who believe in it as a matter of law are unwilling to make it a basis of action. Mr. Kelley has cited good authority in favor of the power of Congress to regulate the right of suffrage for its own members in all the States. But this is too broad a doctrine for general acceptance without clearer evidence than has yet been produced. The plea of State necessity has also been raised, and some who do not believe that the Constitution sanctions such an act, have urged that the Constitution should be disregarded in view of the present necessity. This is a dangerous theory, which has been endured rather than sanctioned through the war, and cannot any longer be tolerated.

There remains, however, an argument which has, we believe, convinced a majority of Congress, but which has not been sufficiently insisted upon before the people. The great fact of the total destruction of civil government in the revolted States, by their own formal act, obliterating everything which made it possible to recognize any officer acting therein from 1861 to 1865, has been accepted as true by all parties at the North except the most extreme sympathizers with the rebellion. It has been the keystone of Mr. Johnson's policy, as well as of that of Congress. His second proposition, that it is the duty of the United States to guarantee to all the States a republican form of government, meets with the like universal acceptance. His theory that Congress has no share in carrying out this guaranty was rejected by the entire Democratic party in 1863 and 1864, and is rejected by nine-tenths, or, to speak more accurately, by one hundred and twenty-two out of every one hundred and twenty-three of the Union party now. We do not propose to discuss that question again at present.

Assuming, then, that civil government had perished in the eleven States, that the action of Congress was necessary to re-establish it, and that the action of Mr. Johnson in that direction was unauthorized and void (all of which we have endeavored to demonstrate on previous occasions), it is plain that the way is clear for Congress to adopt such measures as may seem to it advisable for the purpose of restoring these local governments. It has been settled by the most solemn adjudications that, where such a discretionary power is vested in any branch of the Government, no one can question the terms upon which it exercises that discretion, or dispute the validity of its acts by showing that the power might more judiciously have been used in another way.

Congress must provide for each of these States "a republican form of government." Not necessarily the *same* form which existed before 1861. They differed in form, and Congress is at liberty, if it chooses, to give them all one form. If no other form than the one that previously existed is republican, then all the States but one must be anti-republican in form, for they all differ from one another in their framework of government. Equal suffrage is clearly not opposed to the epublican idea, even if it is not essential to it. What, then, is there to hinder Congress from prescribing equal suffrage as the means by which civil government shall be reinstated where it has perished? *Some* kind of suffrage is necessary for the purpose, and Congress being under no obligation, according to the Constitution, to confine itself to any particular method, has a perfect right to choose the best way.

Moreover, the method which Congress would certainly choose, no matter what party should control it, would be the summoning of State conventions. No man can find one line in the old constitutions or laws of the eleven revolted States which regulates the right of suffrage in elections for a convention, and why should Congress restrict it? Why are they *bound* to restrict it, when "the people of the several States" have not done so?

Thus it seems clear to us, viewed in every possible way, that Congress has absolute power to regulate the suffrage according to its will in the reconstruction of the revolted States, as an incident of its power and duty to guarantee to them a republican form of government.

This power may be exercised upon another ground. These eleven States, having justly forfeited their right to recognition by the United States, cannot return at any moment and claim a new recognition as an absolute right. The Federal power may properly impose terms and conditions of recognition. This Mr. Johnson has constantly assumed. He would not recognize any of the re-organized States until they had complied with, at least, *some* of his conditions. If it were true that a State has the absolute right, which some claim for it, to throw up its corporate existence, and to resume it at will, together with all the privileges of the Union, then Mr. Johnson's course during the summer of 1865 would be utterly indefensible. It would have been one long act of monstrous usurpation and tyranny. Mr. Johnson's supporters are estopped from taking any such ground. It is simply political suicide for him to deny the right of the Federal Government to impose conditions upon the return of the States to the privileges which they flung away. And the right to impose one condition being admitted, there can be no limit to the number of conditions. The President made it a condition that all should be allowed to vote for delegates to a convention who were qualified to vote for members of a legislature under the laws of 1860, provided they took a certain oath of his invention, and not otherwise. If the right to restoration was unconditional, where did Mr. Johnson get authority to prescribe that any person should or should not vote? It did not follow, necessarily, that one who was entitled under former laws to vote for an assemblyman was, therefore, entitled to vote for a delegate to a convention. Still less did it follow that no one could vote for the latter officer who could not vote for the former. Was Mr. Johnson's test oath to be found in any constitution or law, state or national? So he made it a condition of recognition that the Constitutional Amendment should be ratified, and, in some cases (for he had no uniform rule), that the war debt should be repudiated. How can his friends, in view of these facts, pretend that the South had any inherent, unconditional right to resume its place in the national councils?

The report of the Committee on Reconstruction, in the case of Tennessee, plainly shows that its members are convinced of the right of Congress to impose terms and conditions upon the revolted States. Eleven members of the committee have reported a bill for the restoration of Tennessee, upon condition that she shall maintain her existing franchise laws. Two other members report that equal suffrage ought to be made one of the conditions. Two oppose all conditions and restrictions.

If Congress has a right to require, as a condition of reconstruction, that a State shall not repeal an existing law, it must have a right to require that the State shall enact a new law. Such conditions have been repeatedly imposed upon new States.

It cannot be said that our doctrines on this subject would give Congress any right to interfere with the elective franchise in the loyal States, except, of course, by constitutional amendment. All we claim is, that when a State has voluntarily broken up its government, and abandoned all its rights in the Union, it cannot resume its place and its powers without the consent of the central Government, to be given upon such terms as the latter may see fit. We concede that it is the duty of Congress to provide for such restora-

tion, but affirm that the mode in which that shall be effected is entirely in the discretion of the legislature.

It follows that a simple act of Congress, passed in the ordinary way, might constitutionally provide for the reconstruction of the revolted States upon the basis of universal suffrage. No constitutional amendment is needed for the purpose. Congress might either offer this as a condition of restoration, or set the work of re-organization actually in motion, whether the late rebels chose to accept it or not. The latter method seems to us preferable, inasmuch as it would bring the whole matter to an issue at once, and would avoid all danger of the work being undone by an accidental defeat at an election, or by any new instance of the treachery of professed friends from which we have already suffered so much. Such a measure would, of course, be vetoed, but we trust it might be passed over a veto. We are confident that it would be sustained by the great body of those who were loyal during the war, when properly explained before the people.

THE TESTIMONY OF MR. STEPHENS.

Mr. Alexander H. Stephens is a man whose remarkable career, whose special abilities, and whose unequalled influence over the people of his State, entitle his opinions to serious consideration. His early political history has been almost forgotten in the fame of his later years, and it will not be amiss briefly to review it here.

Elected in the fall of 1843 to the House of Representatives, as a Whig, Mr. Stephens was continuously re-elected as long as he would consent to serve, which was until 1859. For the first five years of his membership he was considered an ultra Whig, and a particularly earnest friend of the Union. He voted against the annexation of Texas and the war with Mexico. His course during the struggle over the Wilmot Proviso, in 1848, was so liberal as to excite suspicion at the South of his soundness upon the slavery question. He did not, of course, vote for the Proviso; but he refused to join in any factious opposition to it. In 1849, however, he suddenly changed his mode of action, and, in conjunction with Mr. Toombs and one or two other Southern Whigs, defeated Mr. Winthrop's re-election to the Speakership, and entered fully into the factious proceedings by which the business of Congress was so much retarded in 1850. It was currently reported that Messrs. Stephens and Toombs made a direct effort to bully Gen. Taylor into submission to their plans, and were severely rebuked by him. However this may be, it is certain that they were in open opposition to that brave old man, who could never be coaxed or driven into any tolerance of the Southern schemes for disunion.

Mr. Stephens was never in favor of disunion for its own sake, and though he had given much encouragement to its advocates by his action during the lifetime of Gen. Taylor, he was content to accept the subserviency of Mr. Fillmore, and the Compromise of 1850, as a sufficient consideration for the continuance of the Union. On this platform he, Mr. Toombs, and Mr. Cobb, went before the people of Georgia, and the last named was elected governor by 18,000 majority over McDonald, the secession candidate. In the following session of Congress, Mr. Stephens finally renounced his connection with the Whig party, and ever afterwards acted with the Democrats.

In 1854, Mr. Stephens took a leading and decisive part in driving through the infamous Kansas-Nebraska bill. It had been so thoroughly entangled by the shrewd parliamentary tactics of its opponents that its passage seemed almost impossible. Mr. Stephens took the reins from Richardson (of Illinois), the regular leader, and in one day put it further forward than the combined wisdom of its other supporters had been able to do in two months. He has paid dearly for his sagacity since.

The part which Mr. Stephens took in the great drama of secession is familiar to all. Opposing the project with all his power, and in words of singular wisdom and foresight, he nevertheless yielded to the decision of his State, and gave a support to the now extinct Confederacy which was invaluable. But he soon lost confidence in his superior officer, and, although his peculiar position made it unsuitable that he should publicly oppose Mr. Davis, his views were well understood. He was anxious to bring about peace, and, it has always been believed, was willing to restore the Union upon certain conditions, whereas the great desire of Mr. Davis was to prevent its restoration upon any terms whatever.

It will be seen that Mr. Stephens's course has not been always consistent, and that his opinions have vacillated from one extreme to another, varying as widely as was possible for those of a Southern man in political life. This is not necessarily discreditable to him, but it does detract very materially from our confidence in his assurances as to what his constituents will or will not do. They may be neither so loyal nor so obstinate as he thinks, and he may again go with his State in either direction.

Mr. Stephens's statements before the committee are more worthy the name of argument than of evidence. Nearly all that he says, except in regard to the negroes, consists of his own reasoning upon mooted questions of law and policy. We do not find fault with this. The questions put by the committee naturally led him to do so. But we think the people of the North have but little inclination to accept Stephens's commentaries in place of Blackstone and Story.

The legal propositions of Mr. Stephens may be summed up as follows:

1. Each State is sovereign, and has a right to secede at pleasure.

2. Having seceded, every State has an absolute right to return to the Union at will.

3. The Federal Government has no power to impose any conditions upon the return of a seceded State.

4. "The validity of laws depends upon their constitutionality."

5. The constitutionality of laws passed by Congress in the absence of representatives from seceded States is very doubtful.

The fourth proposition, like a good deal more of Mr. Stephens's "testimony," seems to have been taken from the immortal Bunsby. As to the others, it surely needs no argument to prove that a Federal Union upon such a basis would be such a mockery of government as the world has rarely seen. We know of nothing to which it may be compared save to Milton's description of Sin, into whose womb her hideous offspring might return, and from which they might go at pleasure, regardless of her resistance or her suffering. The doctrine of simple secession we can understand, but this doctrine of secession and return at will is something too sublimated for our philosophy. Add to this the conception of a government of thirty-six States which is so paralyzed by the secession of any one that the validity of all legislation had in the absence of that one is doubtful, and our faith in the existence of government at all is seriously shaken.

It is possible that Mr. Stephens does not mean exactly this. It is, indeed, probable (for he is a sane and sober man) that he does not. Yet we have in no way misrepresented his language. The cause of his falling into such extraordinary nonsense appears to have been his confusion of Mr. Johnson's ideas of constitutional law with some of his own, whereas the two are wholly incompatible. The fact, however, that distinguished Southerners should thus in one breath assert their continued belief in the right of secession, and yet claim as indisputable their right to unconditional re-admission, is significant. North Carolina, which has (though by a minority of her people only) declared the ordinance of secession to have been *always* void, may with a good grace claim restoration as a right, however mistaken she may be in supposing that ordinance to be the only obstacle in the way. But from Georgia, which has simply *repealed* that ordinance, with the avowed purpose of recognizing its validity, such a claim is a little brazen.

We do not entertain any unkind feelings toward Mr. Stephens on account of his expressions of opinion, although some of them appear to us very ill-timed as well as unsound. But it is necessary to call attention to the incongruous mixture of Mr. Johnson's and Mr. Calhoun's views which is prevalent at the South, and to point out the endless absurdities which are involved in permitting States, which will not renounce the right of secession, to claim a *right* to unconditional and instant re-admission. We suggest to Congress that whatever else may be dispensed with, no State should be restored to its privileges until it has explicitly declared the ordinances of secession to have been always null and void, nor until it has ratified this declaration by a majority of all the voters in the State. Let us have no more such evasion as was

practised in North Carolina, where, on the same day that 58,000 votes were cast for governor, only 18,000 voted to annul secession.

Mr. Stephens's views upon the questions of *policy* are, that it would probably be inexpedient for Georgia ever again to secede, and that it would certainly be improper for her to assent to any further terms as a condition of restoration to State privileges. He would not personally object to the admission of a limited class of colored people to the right of suffrage, but thinks the people of Georgia would not consent to any such measure. He is quite willing that the negroes should have equal civil rights, and claims that Georgia has conceded these, and will not seek to revoke them. How much of this would have been done without external pressure he does not say, but common sense tells us. He urges the withdrawal of all such pressure for the future, but we regret to see nothing in the past which warrants a hopeful view of such a policy.

The testimony which Mr. Stephens bears to the good order and industry of the freedmen is honorable both to him and to them. It is radically different from the ordinary Southern view of affairs, and is given ungrudgingly. The negroes "are generally at work. There are some idle, but this class constitute a small proportion." Well done, negroes, to act so! And well done, Mr. Stephens, to say so!

FACTS AND OPINIONS ABOUT THE CHOLERA.

When the cholera was at its height in Paris, and the press teemed with remedies of every description, a shrewd resident observer wrote abroad:

"The result of this deluge of communications which drowns out the few sensible instructions of sober physicians, is simply pitiable. Besides stimulating fear by inspiring belief in the exaggeration of a malady against which it is thought necessary to employ such an arsenal of remedies, it happens that these remedies contradict each other, and the public is infinitely more disconcerted, and consequently more exposed, than if it had never been taught anything at all. It is bandied from the Charybdis of laudanum to the Scylla of sulphuric acid, passing through ether, hot and cold vinegar, diacodium, alcohols, cooling beverages, and what not! It is like losing the little sense and reason that is left us."

On the other hand, the great physician Velpeau, when accused at the French Academy of imprudence in countenancing the theory that the cholera is contagious, replied that he thought no harm would come of an honest endeavor to ascertain the truth. And on another occasion, in the same place, he remarked that no one ought to consider himself, if attacked, a lost man, even if there be no doctor at hand. No need to be alarmed on that account. Without a remedy, or specific, or treatment of any kind—nay, in spite of remedies—many patients recover, more than half are cured, and by the most opposite means.

Reviewing the various discussions of the cholera which have occurred during the last six months on both sides of the Atlantic, we cannot but observe much of that confusion which is the twin sister of panic. In the present article we propose to lift out of this confusion a few conclusions which seem to be derived from an unusually large range of observations or to bear the impress of common sense.

While there is no habitable spot in our latitude to which the cholera may not penetrate, and no asylum, therefore, which is absolutely secure from its approach, it has, nevertheless, a tolerably definite range by reason of its decided preferences. According, then, as the subsoil is loose and porous or rocky and compact, the disease will be likely to rage with great or comparatively little violence. The limestone region of Ohio will suffer far more than the sandstone valley of the Scioto. Malarious districts, favorable to fever and ague, will be especially exposed. For these reasons New England will fare much better than the South and West. The cholera will haunt the level of bodies or streams of water, and the stagnant pools along their banks. On the Thames it was observed to prevail much more extensively below than above the point where the sewers discharged themselves. It will be found not far from all putrefying exhalations and all collections of filthy refuse. In the country it will follow the lines of public travel; in cities, the lines of streets; on shipboard, the various divisions of steerage, cabin, and deck.

As to whether the cholera is contagious, infectious, or simply epidemical, and so far capricious in its attacks, there is the greatest diversity of opinions, partly arising from a want of precision in using the terms in question. M. Velpeau, as already remarked, referred with respect to some observations of Dr. Raimbert, which tended to prove the transmission of the disease by bodily contact through a chain of six or seven persons. But this is contrary to the almost universal belief. Dr. Snow, Superintendent of Health in Providence, pronounces it the work of supererogation to attempt to prove that it is not contagious. In 1854 no physician, clergyman, or colored person took it in Providence. The consulting physicians of Boston unite in so strong a statement as that cholera is neither infectious nor contagious, and cannot be propagated by being near the sick *nor by handling the secretions or excretions* from the bodies of the sick or dead. It is almost invariably assumed, as a consequence of this belief, that quarantines or sanitary cordons of any sort are useless; but we apprehend that the following proposition, by Dr. Felix Niemeyer, of Tübingen, Germany, contains a juster view of the case. He says:

"It is, on the one hand, certain that cholera is not communicated directly from one person to another, even under circumstances of the greatest intimacy; but, on the other hand, it is as certainly spread only by patients afflicted with the disease."

With this help it is not difficult to explain why the cholera selects the great routes of travel; why its advance from place to place is no faster than a man may journey the same distance—a fact which Eugene Sue improved as the "motive" of his "Wandering Jew;" why its pace has been quickened since the introduction of railroads; why the common atmosphere of a ship does not ensure the sickness of all the passengers; and other similar problems. Quarantine, therefore, has its uses, but, of course, entire dependence cannot be placed upon it; and M. Chevreul has well remarked that, for scientific and prudential reasons, it is advantageous to consider the cholera contagious, and, as much as possible, to isolate patients afflicted with it.

The same doubt hangs over the nature of the poisonous principle of the cholera as of the Rinderpest. We will not stop to enquire vainly whether it be organic or inorganic, but rather who are most susceptible to its influence. Dr. Hamlin, missionary of the American Board at Constantinople, notes from a large experience that three-fourths of the attacks proceed from improper diet, the use of intoxicating drinks, or both. The rest are superinduced by suppressed perspiration, excessive drinking of cold water, great fatigue, anxiety, or positive fear. In short, the intemperate (in the legitimate sense of the word) are the chief sufferers. Speaking generally, the infirm are attacked rather than the strong and healthy, the aged rather than the middle-aged, misery and want rather than ease and abundance, timidity rather than self-possession. The best prophylatics, then, are strict temperance, wholesome food and proper clothing, uncrowded residences and lodgings, personal and household cleanliness, and composure of mind.

Before deciding on a course of treatment, it is well to ascertain, if we can, the medium of contagion—and if we avail ourselves of this word on the authority of Dr. Niemeyer, it is only in order to define it as he understands it, following other investigators. He considers it established that evacuations propagate the cholera; and by referring to the phenomena enumerated above as inexplicable, except by admitting that the disease is carried from place to place by human agency solely, it will be seen how exactly the two theories complement each other. The steerage having a common sink—a row of houses having a common sewer—it is clear why when a single passenger or a single inmate is attacked with diarrhœa, the whole steerage, the whole house, and ultimately the entire block or street, will become infected. Clear, also, why the cabin and crew, having separate sinks, escape; and why an adjacent street is untouched. Clear, again, why conveyances by water do more to spread the cholera than those by rail. Clear, that quarantines and *cordons sanitaires* have a measurable value. The poison, be it added, is at first latent in the evacuation, but develops in the vicinity of putrid animal and vegetable matter and on soils already described. Hence two very important injunctions: to avoid strange privies, and to separate from those in ordinary use the discharges of cholera patients. Those of public conveyances should be frequently and thoroughly cleansed, and in the receptacles of all such as are fixed a solution of copperas or some other disinfectant should be poured at intervals.

Sudden attacks of the cholera are rare. Generally they are preceded by a characteristic trouble in the digestive functions, the circu-

lation, etc., to which the name of cholerine has been given. These gastric disorders mark the gradual working or incubation of the poison, but the period varies from one to ten days. The symptoms of the decisive attack are diarrhœa and, in the severer cases, vomiting. Then it is well to act speedily, if at all.

And how act? The reader awaits, perhaps, an account of the countless answers to this question. But no; there is a general agreement that the first act should be inaction. Go to bed, rest quietly on your back, keep warm. Drink hot coffee or hot tea, adds Dr. Niemeyer; a vigorous sweat often wards off the cholera; but do n't check perspiration too suddenly. For cramps in the legs, use kneading and friction. To allay the extraordinary thirst which attends the insupportable drain on the fluids of the system, the throat may be gargled, the mouth washed out, or moistened with a teaspoonful of gum-arabic water, or the patient may be fed with small quantities of ice-water, or small pieces of ice almost *ad libitum*.

How to arrest the incipient or prodromatic, and how the confirmed, diarrhœa? It is here that the doctors begin to differ. Dr. Hamlin's method employs laudanum, and, besides having had currency in our newspapers, has just been published in Boston in a tract form, and hence is easily obtainable. Dr. Niemeyer is likewise an advocate of laudanum, but distrusts sinapisms. Dr. Worms, head physician in the military hospital of Gros-Caillou, doubts the efficacy of opium, and impersonates the Scylla to which the French public was tossed from the Charybdis of laudanum. He makes what he calls a mineral lemonade, by mixing from two to four grammes of concentrated sulphuric acid with one thousand grammes of pure or mucilaginous water and one hundred and fifty grammes of syrup, pure or flavored with raspberry. Of this he administers a glassful every hour, rinsing the patient's mouth two or three times after drinking. Rarely, he asserts, are four glasses needed. When the cholera has fairly taken hold, from five to ten grammes of the acid are added to a litre of water, and given every half hour, a glass at a time, and immediately after vomiting. Ice at discretion. No harm will ensue if the dose increases the vomiting.

A physician of the Royal Infirmary at Southampton, England, communicated to the *Times* a still simpler mode of treatment. This consisted of a hip-bath of hot, almost scalding, water containing three-quarters of a pound of powdered mustard—the patient having also his feet in a similar bath with only a quarter of a pound of mustard. Milk-and-water with lumps of ice was allowed to be taken, while in the bath, in any quantity; alternating with ice alone. In half an hour the patient was put to bed with hot tins on his hands and feet, and well covered up with blankets. After the reaction he was fed with plenty of weak broth and iced milk. Dr. Hamlin enumerates ice-water, chamomile tea, arrowroot, crust-water.

A typhoidal state often ensues to protract convalescence; but for this careful nursing suffices, care being taken to avoid too much drinking.

In the appendix to Mr. Catlin's curious pamphlet, "The Breath of Life," the author says:

"From the observations, with their results, on board of a mail steamer, given on a former page, together with numerous others of a similar nature, made whilst I have been in the midst of yellow fever and the cholera in the West India Islands and South America, I conscientiously advance my belief, that in any town or city where either of those pestilences commences its ravages, if that portion of the inhabitants who are in the nightly habit of sleeping with their mouths open were to change their residence to the country, the infection would soon terminate, for want of subjects to exist upon.

"This opinion may be startling to many; and if it be *combated*, all the better; for in such case the important experiment will more likely be made."

HISTORIC DOUBTS ON WILLIAM IV.

Jesting Pilate might well ask, "What is truth?" if he had made a study of history in its details. And Sir Robert Walpole, after "he had sunk," like his great rival Pulteney, "into insignificance and an earldom," might well tell his son Horace to read to him anything but history, "for that must be a lie!" One would think that all the particulars of so momentous an event in the history of England as the passing of the Reform Bill might be known with an absolute knowledge, if any past facts can be so established. Several of the actors in that great drama, including the present Prime Minister and the Lord Chancellor of the reform ministry, yet survive, and all were living, friends and enemies of the act, within a very few years. The testimony of Lord Grey, the Duke of Wellington, Lord Lyndhurst, Sir Robert Peel, of all the household of William IV., might have been had from their own lips by any man forty years old, and the occurrences of that momentous time recorded with photographic accuracy. And yet we have diametrically opposite accounts of the way in which the very cardinal act on which the great measure turned at its most critical instant was brought into play.

The dissolution of the first Parliament of William IV. on the 22d of April, 1831, was actually the crisis of the reform movement. The Tory party in the House of Commons had defeated the Grey ministry on the 19th on the motion of General Gascoigne that the number of the House ought not to be reduced. Before that the second reading of the bill had been carried, but by a single vote in the fullest House ever known. And on the 22d, by a majority of 22, the House refused to go into committee of supply. The question on which the destinies of England depended for the time was, whether the King would consent to dissolve Parliament. He was known to be most reluctant to do so, and in this reluctance he was most passionately supported by the whole force of the Tory party, which had a great preponderance in the Lords. If he dissolved and "recurred to the sense of his people," to use his own words, and if the sense of his people was pronounced in favor of the reform bill, he would be bound to obey it, even at the expense of swamping the House of Lords, if they should resolve obstinately to place themselves across the course of reform—a necessity which he did actually have to encounter the next year, when a list of eighty persons was made out to be raised to the peerage for the purpose of overcoming the hostile majority in the Upper House. Though the personal influence of the King induced a sufficient number of the Tory lords to absent themselves when the vote was taken, the precedent was established and the principle fixed that the House of Lords must give way when the people were resolute to carry any measure of reform, however odious to their lordships. It was, in fact, a revolution—bloodless, indeed, but compelled by the fear of bloodshed, and which the King might well hesitate to precipitate or to permit, if he could hinder.

Of course, the refusal of William IV. to dissolve his first Parliament would not have stopped the reform bill. It would have been carried over his head as well as over that of the House of Lords, if he had tried to block its progress. But it would have been carried in a different way from that in which it was accomplished. The English people were in a revolutionary state at that time, and would not have permitted the palace any more than the House of Peers to stand in their way. It is happy for constitutional governments everywhere that this revolution was effected by strictly constitutional means. So the history of how the King conducted himself in such an emergency becomes deeply interesting. And here the discrepancy begins. Mr. Molesworth, in his history of the reform bill, gives a version of the circumstances attending the dissolution which he states he received from Lord Brougham himself. According to this very picturesque account, the question of dissolution had not been considered definitively by the Grey cabinet until the morning of the 22d April, after the refusal of the House of Commons to go into committee of supply. Then a council was held in such haste that even the great "breeches question" was slighted, and they met, most appropriately, *sans culottes* to meditate their revolutionary plans. It was unanimously determined that Parliament must be dissolved at once. But who was to manage the King? Lord Grey shrank from the interview, and Lord Brougham had to undertake to bell the cat. The Chancellor found the sovereign, whose conscience he had in his official custody, extremely ill-disposed to comply. He was assured that he must do so, or take the responsibility of calling in a new ministry, and of the popular commotions that might follow. His Majesty yielded to the necessity, but fell back on what lawyers call dilatory pleas. Who was to carry the sword of state at so short notice? The cabinet had ventured to give the necessary orders. This was bad enough, but worse remained behind. "Who was to order out the Life Guards? It was too late to give the orders." The Chancellor most humbly informed his Majesty that the ministers had taken that

responsibility, too. "Why, this is treason! And you, my Lord Chancellor, ought to know that it is!" "Yes, sire, I know it, and nothing but the strongest conviction that the Crown and the best interests of the nation are at stake, could have induced us to take such a step." In brief, the Lord Chancellor gained the victory, and led the sovereign in triumph to the scene of action.

This statement the present Earl Grey, the Lord Howick of those times, not unnaturally thinks little flattering to the memory of the King or his late father, whatever it may be to the vanity of Lord Brougham. He accordingly makes his statement, in all important points sustained by documentary evidence. The question as to the dissolution of Parliament came up in the cabinet on the 20th, in consequence of the vote on Gascoigne's motion the night before. The cabinet recommended it. The King took it into consideration and communicated his objections in writing, but yielded to the advice of his ministers. The dissolution was agreed upon, only the time was not fixed, as it was desirable to get some money-bills through the House first. The action of the House on the 22d, virtually stopping the supplies, hastened matters. And, it may be added, the address to the King, proposed by Lord Wharncliffe, in the House of Lords, remonstrating against the exercise of his unquestionable prerogative of dissolving Parliament, has always been supposed to have been strong provocation to the King to employ it without delay. Lord Grey appears to have shrunk from no interview, but to have done his duty regularly and properly. The King seems to have acted with dignity and good sense, and Lord Brougham is nowhere to be seen. It was a memorable day in parliamentary history. The House of Lords as well as that of Commons was the scene of almost riotous disturbances. The Earl of Mansfield refused to stop speaking when the King appeared, and was pulled down into his seat and held there, while Sir Robert Peel, in the Commons, had also to be suppressed by his coat-tails for refusing to take his seat when the Usher of the Black Rod appeared to summon the House to the royal presence. Lord Campbell says of the scene: "Never shall I forget it—it might well convey an adequate idea of the tumultuary dissolutions of the times of the Stuarts. The most exciting moment of my public life was when we cheered the guns which announced his Majesty's approach." Lord Brougham's story is the more entertaining; but Lord Grey's is the more probable, and what one would prefer to believe as most honorable to the great statesman and to the Sailor King. In these days, when we have been stripped of so many striking sayings of famous men through the mousing industry of historic infidels—such as Wellington's "Up, Guards, and at 'em!" and Cambronne's "The Guard dies, but never surrenders!"—it were pity to lose the sailor-like exclamation of William IV. when there was some delay about the royal coach to go to the Parliament, "D—n the state-coach! call a hackney-coach!" It was believed at the time, and made him immensely popular.

THE MORAL OF THE CAR-DRIVERS' STRIKE.

The strike of the car-drivers, which ended, as such things are apt to do, in leaving both parties somewhat worse off than ever, affords an excellent illustration of the way in which the popular common sense disposes of all social movements which have no sound or substantial basis. The car-drivers had a perfect right to strike for higher wages, and the companies had a perfect right not to give higher wages, and to employ new men in the place of the old ones. But the old ones acted as if they really had a vested right not simply to their places, but to their places with such wages as they might themselves be pleased to fix. They accordingly assembled in great crowds at the termini of the roads, hooted and jeered the men who had ventured to take their places, threatened them with vengeance, and in some few cases proceeded to acts of violence. This intimidation was, of course, tolerably effective. Very few men will accept employment if they fear that their doing so will lead to their being mobbed the minute they leave their work. The companies were accordingly obliged to draw off half or two-thirds of their cars, to the terrible inconvenience of the public. With this the public very reasonably found fault. The differences of the corporations with their servants were no affair of the passengers, and furnished no excuse for not keeping the cars running at whatever cost. But, curiously enough, when the companies attempted to do their duty by having the cars driven by new men, they were assailed fiercely by the newspapers and a portion of the public, because the police were employed in the perfectly legitimate function of protecting honest men threatened with mob violence in the pursuit of an honest calling. More than this, they were assailed fiercely because they did not give the drivers whatever they pleased to ask as wages, not because the latter were receiving anything less than the market rate, or, in other words, what their labor was worth, but because the companies had failed to do their duty to the public. The principle on which the outcry was based would in fact justify the cook of a broker who had behaved badly in Wall Street in suddenly refusing to serve up his dinner under ten dollars, and, if discharged, in passing her time on the sidewalk hooting at her successor through the basement windows.

However, in spite of their uproar, and in spite of the sympathy for the movement expressed by the public and a large portion of the press, it died out very soon. The drivers went back to their work at their old wages, and the story of their grievances was heard no more. In fact, beyond causing some inconvenience to old persons, invalids, and lazy people, it made hardly a ripple on the surface of society, although it involved the turning loose of some 1,500 not particularly well-mannered men to inveigh against the tyranny of capital in the midst of one of the most excitable, and, as we saw in 1863, when excited most dangerous, city populations in the world. And the reason why such movements make so little commotion is, that under all the froth and foam of our political and social agitation there lies a stratum of sound common sense—the common sense of the mass of the people who neither spout on platforms nor write letters to newspapers, and which silently condemns and consigns to future oblivion all untenable claims and crazy theories and impracticable schemes. When a good and sound reform is proposed, it seizes on it and embodies it in opinion or in legislation with marvellous rapidity. But let orators or newspapers shout ever so loudly for things that neither the constitution of society nor the existing condition of human nature will admit of, or legislatures make ever so much haste to bring in bills upon it, the unseen popular instinct, the popular sense of the absurd, coldly passes sentence on the movement, it becomes a laughing-stock, and in a few days dies out.

THE POWER OF THE PRESIDENT TO REMOVE FROM OFFICE.

Everybody knows what a fertile source of corruption "rotation in office" is, how much it has done to debase our political life, and how rapidly it tends to exalt the executive above every other branch of the Government; to weaken the force of public opinion, and to fill the public service not with public servants, but with bands of adventurers, whose first allegiance is due to the party chief, and to whom "the country" and "the people" are but names to be used on the stump for the delusion of the honest and simple-minded voters. The evil is every year increasing, because the number of office-holders is increasing, and the work they have to do becoming more complicated. If the Union continues to grow as it is growing now, and no means is taken to bring officials into real dependence on the public, whose bread they eat, the President will before long find himself at the head of a large army of hirelings devoted to his will, and he will use them in such a way as to convert elections into a farce, and to make the very name of public morality a laughing-stock. The custom-house, and post-offices, and all other branches of the service, except the army and navy, are already in a most discreditable condition. The meddling of the officials in elections is a great scandal; but nothing that we have yet seen can even give us an idea of what our children will see, if we leave the President much longer in possession of that power over the bread of public servants which he now exercises.

The public has submitted to it hitherto partly because the Federal officials were, prior to the war, a comparatively small and unimportant body, and partly because it has been generally believed that the power of removal from office without cause, as exercised by the President, was a constitutional one of which there was no means of depriving him except by an amendment, which none of the great political parties would have the virtue or the courage to propose or carry.

Colonel James A. Hamilton has undertaken to expose the error on which the popular submission to the exercise of the power of removal by the President is based, in a pamphlet which lies before us. It was, we believe, written and printed five years ago, shortly before the outbreak of the war, but was withheld from circulation when the storm burst. There was little chance of attracting attention to reforms in the government as long as its very existence was at stake. But the war, which temporarily consigned the question to the shelf, has, now that it is over, bequeathed it an importance which

in 1860 it was far from possessing. Recent events have only increased its interest. It remains still to be seen whether the President will use his power over office-holders to close the mouth of the national legislature, and the eagerness of such creatures as Postmaster Cleveland to do his will only shows how faithfully he would be obeyed if he did.

We purpose making such extracts from Colonel Hamilton's pamphlet as will enable him to tell his own story, and we regret that we cannot publish it entire; but neither can we condense it, as the argument is nakedly legal.

If the Constitution confers this power upon the President alone, either directly or by necessary implication, it is a power beyond the control of Congress, it cannot be directed, limited, or abrogated, and yet we find that in May, 1820 ("Gordon's Digest," page 24, article 195), an act was passed declaring that the term of office of collectors, district attorneys, and others should be limited to four years.

The contemporaneous history of the Constitution is against the assumption that this power was conferred on the President *alone*.

No. 77 of the "Federalist," written by Hamilton: "It has been mentioned as one of the advantages to be expected from the co-operation of the Senate, in the business of appointments, that it would contribute to the stability of the administration."

"The consent of that body *would be necessary to displace as well as to appoint*. A change of the chief magistrate, therefore, would not occasion so violent or so general a revolution as might be expected if he were the sole disposer of offices."

Mr. Webster says: "The unlimited power to grant office, and to take it away, gives a command over the hopes and fears of a vast multitude of men. In the main it will be found that a power over man's support is a power over his will. When favors, once granted, may be withdrawn at pleasure, there is ordinarily little security for personal independence of character."

"The power of giving office thus affects the fears of all who are *in* and the hopes of all who are *out;* those who are *out* endeavor to distinguish themselves by active political friendship, by warm personal devotion, by the clamorous support of men in whose hands is the power of reward, while those who are *in* take care not to be surpassed in such qualities or conduct as will secure favor."

"The consequence of this is, that a competition ensues not of patriotic labors, but of complaisances, of indiscriminate support of executive measures, of pliant subserviency, and gross adulation."

"The patronage of office, the power of bestowing place and emoluments, creates parties not upon any principle or any measure, but upon the single ground of personal interest, and thus they form round a leader and go for the spoils of victory; if the party chieftain becomes the national chieftain, he is apt to consider all who oppose him as enemies to be punished, and all who have supported him as friends to be rewarded."

"Blind devotion to a party, and to the head of a party, thus takes the place of the sentiment of genuine patriotism, and a high and exalted state of public duty."

In order to a clear understanding of this subject, we proceed to present the various clauses of the Constitution touching it:

By article 2, section 2, clause 2, it is provided "that the President shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, ambassadors, other public ministers, and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by Congress; but the Congress may by law vest the appointment of such inferior officers as they think proper in the President alone, in the courts of law, or in the heads of departments."

The following analysis of this clause will show what power the President has under it:

1st. It gives the President power to nominate (this is exclusive).

2d. With the concurrence of the Senate, "to appoint."

3d. What officers? "Ambassadors, other public ministers and consuls, judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not *herein* otherwise provided for."

4th. What offices are otherwise provided for by the Constitution?

(1.) Members of the House of Representatives.

(2.) Senators.

(3.) Electors of President and Vice-President.

(4.) The President and Vice-President of the United States.

(5.) The Speaker and other officers of the House of Representatives.

(6.) A President *pro tempore* and other officers of the Senate.

5th. The President has power, with the concurrence of the Senate, to appoint [to?] "all other offices" which shall be established by law. He cannot create an office by making an appointment or otherwise, because "all other offices must be established by law."

6th. "Congress may by law vest the appointment of such *inferior officers* as they think proper *in the President alone*, in *the courts of law*, or in the *heads of departments*."

It will be admitted that, under this branch of this clause, the President alone can appoint only such inferior officers as the Congress may authorize him so to appoint.

Any other appointments made by him alone, or which are given to the courts of law or the heads of departments, would be a violation of the Constitution and the laws.

It thus appears that in every case where the Constitution gives the President power to appoint, it must be with the concurrence of the Senate. (Congress may give him power to appoint "inferior officers.") We except temporary appointments, which will be hereafter mentioned.

If the power of removal is incident to, or a consequence of, the power of appointment, it is very certain that as the *incident* cannot be more extensive than the *principle*, the power of removal must be as limited and qualified as is the power whence it is derived; and consequently, as the power of the President alone to appoint is limited to "inferior officers," and is only conferred by act of Congress, the power of removal does not extend to others than "inferior officers," and must always depend upon the action of Congress, so also the power to remove in all other cases than "inferior officers" (authorized by act of Congress) must be with the concurrence of the Senate.

But whence comes the power *to appoint* when the Senate is not in session, and the consequent power thereby to remove?

It is certainly without the authority of the Constitution or the law.

It will be said that such appointments and consequent removals during the recess are made by authority of the 3d clause of article 2, section 2, which is in these words:

"The President shall have power *to fill up all vacancies that may happen* during the recess of the Senate, by granting commissions which shall expire at the end of their next session."

Most certainly this cannot be properly said, because the clause only authorizes the President to grant commissions to fill up vacancies, whereas, in the supposed case and in practice, he grants a commission to make a vacancy.

Again—This clause only authorizes the President to fill up vacancies that "*may happen*" during the recess.

What is the meaning of the words "*may happen?*" They mean such vacancies as result from some "accidental occurrence," "without previous expectation," and certainly not by direct removal or by an appointment which creates a removal. Such an act is *premeditated*, and wants every quality of an "accidental occurrence."

In the last case there is no vacancy, and in no sense can a vacancy by removal be said to *have happened*—that is, to be a casualty. Vacancies by casualty might occur during the recess, and it was, therefore, necessary to provide for such vacancies by temporary appointments.

It may be remarked that, when this clause was formed, the convention had the subject of vacancies under consideration, and if they had supposed it possible that there could be a vacancy by removal during the recess, they would have made provision for it, or have applied this clause to it, by saying "or by removal" after the words "may happen."

From these considerations it may be confidently asserted that there can be no appointment to a vacancy occasioned by removal during the recess.

And that all appointments made to fill vacancies occasioned by removals, if such there be, are unconstitutional and void.

There is no power in Congress, in the Senate, or in the President to sanction such appointments.

As to the true meaning of the words "*may happen*," we refer with the utmost confidence to No. 77 of the "Federalist."

Article 1, section 3, clause 2, declares: "If vacancies *happen* by resignation or otherwise, during the recess of the legislature of any State, the executive thereof may make temporary appointments until," etc. The author says: "Here is an express power given in clear and *unambiguous terms* to the State executives to fill '*casual vacancies*' in the Senate by temporary appointments."

We have also the authority of the same author—Alexander Hamilton—in a letter written by him to James McHenry, Secretary of War, dated May 3, 1799 (ten years after the debate in Congress on the subject of removals), in which he says: "In my opinion, vacancy is a relative term, and presupposes that the office has been once filled. If so, the power to fill a vacancy is not the power to make an original appointment.

"The terms, which *may have happened*, serve to confirm this construction. They imply casualty, and denote such as, having been once filled, have become vacant by accidental circumstances." . . . .

"It is clear that, independently of the authority of a special law, the President cannot fill a vacancy that happens during the session of the Senate." ("Hamilton's Works," vol. 5, page 258.)

It is thus made quite clear that this clause does not authorize the President to grant a commission to fill a vacancy caused by removal, because that is not a vacancy by a "casualty," and that he has not the power to grant a commission which by appointment creates a vacancy, because that is not exercising the power to fill a vacancy which has already happened.

If the President has the power to create a vacancy by removal during the recess, he can have no power to fill up such vacancy, under this or any other clause of the Constitution.

The following conclusions are advanced as inevitable and invincible:

The President, if he possesses the power of removal, cannot exert that power by making an appointment during the recess.

If the power of removal results from the power to appoint, there can be no removal by the President alone during the session of the Senate.

If the President alone has the power to *remove* other than "inferior officers," the vacancy occasioned *thereby* must continue until the session of the Senate, because he has no power to appoint without their concurrence, except in the one case, to wit: to *fill a vacancy* which *may happen*—that is, which is the consequence of an "accidental occurrence."

These are all logical and safe deductions from the various provisions of the Constitution—whether the power of removal by the President alone be granted to him by article 2, section 1, clause 1, or whether it results from the power to appoint.

We call upon those who entertain the opinion *that removal is an executive power, conferred by the above clause*, to show whence is derived the power of the President to make *an appointment*, to grant a commission, to fill a vacancy so made.

In the first place, if this clause had been intended to be a grant of power, the Convention, governed by that wise forecast which distinguished them,

would have declared, "All executive power, *not otherwise conferred or denied* by this Constitution, shall be vested in a President of the United States."

When the illustrious men who assembled to perform that great work, "a Constitution of government for the people of the United States," [were met?] their first effort in "arranging a system of organization" was to decide how many and what departments there should be.

They decided that there should be *three great departments:* The legislative, the executive, the judicial. And, as next in order, their constituent parts, the mode of their choice, and their respective powers; and in doing this they had to deal with every variety of suggestion and opinion.

The system of organization having been thus completed, they proceeded to declare:

Art. 1. "All legislative powers herein granted shall be vested in a Congress of the United States, which shall consist of a Senate and House of Representatives."

Art. 2. "The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America" (not "all executive power *herein granted*," as in the case of the legislative).

Art. 3. "The judicial power of the United States shall be vested in one Supreme Court, and in such inferior courts as the Congress may from time to time ordain and establish."

This done, they proceeded in each case, and under each article, to declare specifically and in detail what powers were conferred on each department, and what were denied.

This allotment and detail of powers prove that the first article in each case was intended as a mere designation of a department, and not a grant of power to either of those great departments.

It is very certain the assumption that these articles were to be considered as granting, or as intending to grant, powers, would have made the Government, instead of it being, as it is, one of precise and delegated powers, one of an unlimited character, and particularly would this be the case as to the Executive, in regard to which the people entertained a morbid sensibility, and indulged an unreasonable jealousy.

On examining the detail of powers given and denied to the respective great departments, many of those which are universally recognized as executive powers are expressly conferred on the legislature.

The power "to declare war, to coin money and regulate the value thereof;" while the power to make treaties, to appoint to office, clearly executive powers, are given to the President, together with the Senate; on the other hand, the President has the unqualified power to receive ambassadors and other public ministers, to commission all officers; with one exception, to grant reprieves, and pardons for offences against the United States; to command the army and navy of the United States and the militia of the several States when called into the service of the United States; to require the opinions in writing of the heads of departments; to see that the laws are faithfully executed; on extraordinary occasions to convene both Houses or either of them, and in case of disagreement to adjourn the legislature. He has also a qualified veto.

In this enumeration of executive powers, some so very unimportant, we do not find that "dangerous power" of removal, as Mr. Madison calls it.

Can it be supposed that this was a careless omission?

The attention of the Convention was directed to one case of removal, by impeachment; it was directed to vacancies during the recess, and yet the vast power of removal by the President alone, we are told, was left to inference, to construction; and yet vacancies, occasioned by its exercise during the recess, are not to be filled until the session of the Senate.

It is surely much more reasonable to believe the Convention intended that the only removal by the President could be made by appointment, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

It is well known that there are other powers, as clearly executive as is that of removal, which are not conferred or denied by the Constitution, to wit:

The power to *grant charters of incorporation to cities and towns, and to associations of individuals, for the purposes of trade and commerce,* and also the power to establish "fairs and markets" (see "Blackstone's Commentaries," "*Prerogative*"), which by the same rule of interpretation must be "vested" in the President, as well as that of removal. Why not?

The argument is: the power of removal is an executive power; as all executive powers not given or denied are vested in the President by article 2d, this power of removal, the power to grant charters, the power to establish "fairs and markets," and all other executive powers, are also vested in him alone.

It is not to be believed that the advocates of this latitudinarian construction will be willing to push their opinions, at this time of day, to their legitimate and logical results.

In No. 69 of the "Federalist" there will be found an enumeration of the powers of the President, and a comparison of these with those of the governor of New York and of the king of Great Britain.

The power of removal by the President alone is not found in this enumeration, but the power to "erect corporations, with all the rights incident to corporate bodies," and to "establish fairs and markets," are referred to as clearly defined executive powers, not given to the President.

The inference is a strong one that all executive powers, if any, not denied or elsewhere conferred, are not vested in the President by the clause now under examination.

No part of the Constitution was so unscrupulously assailed during the discussion before the people, or in their conventions, as was the executive power.

And as far as our researches have extended we do not find that this dangerous power, on this unlimited and dangerous construction of the Constitution, was ever hinted at as being vested in the President, or as having been supposed to be.

Influenced by these considerations, we are compelled to believe that, in the arrangement of the system of organization by the builders of "The Great Temple of Human Liberty," the clause referred to was intended to be a mere designation of the executive office, and was in no respect to be deemed a grant of power.

If this be so, there remains no ground whatever on which to rest this claim of power, a power which, in its practical operation as exercised since 1829, has tended more to degrade the parties and politicians of our country than all other powers or practices.

It has essentially thrown all the offices of the Government into the arena of party, to be scrambled for and clutched as "the spoils of victory" by the most unscrupulous demagogues and knaves.

The power of removal was not known to have been used until 1829 to reward or punish party services or offences. The whole number of removals during *forty years*, from 1789, did not exceed seventy-three, more than half of which were made by Mr. Jefferson, as we learn from Parton's "Life of Jackson." He further says, referring to the removals in 1829: "The estimate of 2,000 includes all who lost their places in consequence of General Jackson's accession to power; and though the exact number cannot now be ascertained, I fear it will not be less than 2,000."

Admitting that the decision of 1789 and that the law of 1820 distinctly recognize the power of the President alone to remove, and that the Constitution, by article 2, vests this power in him, we aver that those laws and this article cannot confer upon the President *alone* the power to make an appointment or to grant a commission, because both of these powers are expressly provided for by article 2, section 2, clauses 2 and 3.

If the advocates of this executive power shall insist that the power of removal draws after it the power to appoint, they must admit that the power given to the Senate to remove by a sentence, upon the trial and conviction upon impeachment, gives that body the power, in such cases, to appoint.

The potency of removal, in the last case, must be equal to that of the former. Both are absurd.

If removal is an undefined power it might be reached under clause 16 of section 8, article 1, which gives the Congress power "to make all laws which shall be necessary and proper for carrying into execution the foregoing powers" (all powers enumerated in that section), "and all other powers vested by this Constitution in the Government of the United States, or any department or officer thereof."

Removal is a power vested by the Constitution in the Government.

If it is not included in the power of appointment (we think it is), if it is not vested in the President by article 2, which assumption we are confident cannot be sustained, let an act be passed declaring that the President shall have power to suspend any officer during the recess, for cause, and to appoint another in his place until the end of the next session of the Senate; and, whenever the Senate shall be in session, he shall nominate the person so temporarily appointed to the Senate, or some other, and with their advice and consent shall appoint him to office, and with such nomination he shall state the cause for such suspension; and further, that whenever the President shall nominate to the Senate a person to fill a place thus occupied by another, he shall give his reasons for the removal of such incumbent.

This course, while it would afford to the President all the power necessary to enforce the laws, would secure officers against the exercise of a selfish or capricious control.

Suspension and removal, being exceptional and for cause, would be considered disgraceful, whereas the existing practice of removal for opinion's sake removes all idea of disgrace.

The stability of administration would be secured, and the public would be much better served.

But, above all, the hope of spoils being blasted, the sordid, selfish, and degraded demagogues would be compelled to seek their bread by some other employment.

RESULTS.

First. The Constitution has not vested the power of removal in the President *alone*, expressly or by necessary implication.

Second. The second article is not a grant of all executive power not denied or given elsewhere.

Third. The power of removal is embraced by and results from the power of appointment.

Fourth. If the power of removal is vested in the President, he has no power to appoint during the recess, in order to fill a vacancy occasioned by the exercise of that power.

Fifth. The President has no power to make an appointment or issue a commission during the recess, except "*to fill a vacancy*" occasioned by an "accidental occurrence."

Sixth. Removal by the President, if he has the power, does not create a vacancy which he can fill by granting a commission during the recess.

Seventh. If the power of removal is not vested by the Constitution in the President alone, the Congress has power to repeal all laws now existing which affirm or admit such a power, and to declare that it is a power resulting from the power of appointment, to be exercised with the concurrence of the Senate.

SAISON DES SEMAILLES. LE SOIR.

FROM VICTOR HUGO'S "LES CHANSONS DES RUES ET DES BOIS."

TWILIGHT begins:
Hid in a sheltering arch, I sit and wait,
And see, how from the day which hurries, late
Brave Labor, on the threshold of the gate,
One more hour wins.

Far down the field,
Dew-bathed, I see, with fluttering rags and feeble hand,
An aged man, who casts into the furrowed land
Handfuls, in which the harvest time has hid and planned
Its future yield.

His shadow black,
Gigantic, walks beside him through the dust,
Like master! Oh, how well the sower must
Believe, that days fly freighted with no idle trust,
And turn not back!

While to and fro
He journeys, patient, on the lengthening plain,
I watch, unseen, the showering of the grain;
And, as he fills his hand, and sows again,
I marvel how,

With subtle jars
Of rustling sound, the shadow, fold by fold,
Spreads up its wings, until the sower's bold
And solemn motion seems to lay its hold,
Upon the stars.

H. H.

M. LABOULAYE'S ELECTION.

THE last discussion in the French Parliament has been followed by a most interesting incident. You remember, probably, that for the first time since the establishment of the Empire some members of the majority, uniting themselves in what they term a "third party" (*tiers-parti*), offered an amendment to the address in which they timidly and modestly claimed more liberties for France. Ministerial responsibility, the presence of the ministers in the House, the repeal of the law which has placed the press under the absolute control of the Government, the obligation of the Government to choose the mayors in every township from among the elected municipal counsellors—such was the programme of the third party. Their amendment was strongly opposed by the Minister of State, M. Rouher, who plays in our political system the part of *ministre-orateur*. He has no portfolio, but is the mouthpiece of all the other ministers and of the Emperor. Notwithstanding his rhetorical efforts, the amendment was supported by sixty-five votes, the largest opposition vote on record since the foundation of the Empire, representing, as it did, the fourth of the whole House, which is only composed of two hundred and forty members. Among the members who voted with the majority was a certain M. de Bussierre, deputy of Strasburg. M. de Bussierre's course was, it seems, not approved in Alsatia. The discontent was all the more justified as at the last elections M. de Bussierre, during his canvass, had promised to give his support to all liberal measures and ideas in the House of Representatives. He received so many reproachful letters that he sent his resignation to Count Walewski, and now he offers himself for re-election to the electors of the district of Strasburg. He has found a formidable opponent in the person of M. Laboulaye, whose name is familiar to every American. The very choice of M. Laboulaye as the liberal candidate is very significant. M. Laboulaye is not bound to Alsatia by any tie; he was not born there, and owns no property in this province. I doubt if for years he has been in Strasburg. The liberal electors of that town choose him because he represents now liberalism in its purest form, abstractedly of any dynastic or party spirit. M. Laboulaye does not belong to what the Government calls the *anciens partis;* he has never mixed actively with politics and never held office under any government. His position in France can only be compared to the position which John Stuart Mill occupied in England before he became a member for Westminster. He is a scholar and a philosopher rather than a statesman. But, under the present circumstances in France, liberals do not enter Parliament with the hope of being entrusted with office and responsibility. They have no other ambition than to protest against despotism, to claim just liberties, and to make solemn appeals to the heart and to the conscience of the nation. M. Laboulaye is admirably fitted for this mission; his liberalism is most enlightened and pure; he cannot be accused of being a revolutionist, a partizan. By his books and his public lectures he has already exercised a most beneficent influence over the new generation in France. Let us hope that in Parliament his influence may soon be extended to the whole nation.

It is no exaggeration to say that the eyes of France are all turned now on Strasburg: the electoral duel, which will take place in a few days, between MM. de Bussierre and Laboulaye, will be watched with the keenest interest. We see on one side a wealthy man, respectable in his private life and much liked for his personal qualities, but subservient to the Empire and supported by all the influence of a powerful administration, by all the officials, by all the enginery of centralization; on the other side a stranger to the country, without any influence but that of his name, his reputation, and his public virtue. I do not venture to predict which side will be victorious; but I feel quite sure that nobody in America who knows what support M. Laboulaye has given to the good cause during the American war will be indifferent to the result of this election.

I was not much mistaken when I chose as the title of some articles on the state of Europe, some time ago, these words: "The Unsettled State of Europe." Political affairs look more ominous than ever, and we are fast approaching a crisis. Rumors of war are rife. Austria and Prussia are both making preparations for a struggle. Why the two great powers of Germany should threaten each other, I am at a loss to understand. A war between them would be a stupendous folly; but that is, perhaps, the reason why it will take place. As nobody has ever gone to the bottom of Hegelian philosophy, nobody suspects to what limits can be carried the absurdity of German rulers and diplomats. Where now is concealed the phantom of German unity? It was shown for a moment to the German nation at the beginning of the war with Denmark; but it soon disappeared, and we only see hovering in the German sky the black eagle of Prussia and the double-eagle of Austria; the minor sovereigns feel themselves between the hammer and the anvil; they answer evasively to the notes in which they are asked which side they would take in case of a war. Fancy the distress of the young Bavarian sovereign, disturbed by such unpleasant questions in his enjoyment of Wagner's and Schumann's music, the trouble of mind of the King of Saxony, and of the King of Würtemberg—not to mention the many smaller stars which would vanish so soon in the night of a German war. Italy, meanwhile, is arming also; she will attack Austria on the Mincio if Prussia attacks her in Germany. And what says the Emperor of the French to all this? He rubs his moustache and is waiting for what diplomatic jargon calls "eventualities." The Danubian Principalities are left without a sovereign, since Couza, the unhappy imitator of our Cæsar, has been quietly dismissed. "O imitatores, servum pecus!" Russia is advancing an army towards the Danube, and the *Gazette* of Moscow, the organ of the old Muscovite (that is, National) party, writes threatening articles in which the occidental powers are given to understand that since emancipation has made Russia the country of sixty millions of freemen, she will no longer submit to the humiliating conditions of the treaty of Paris, and is going to resume in the affairs of Europe the position which is due to her. So matters everywhere have a very alarming look. The dogs of war are not yet loosed; but they seem to be getting impatient and restless. May America at least give to those who love peace and liberty a more consoling spectacle! May the spirit of faction subside, and the whole country, forgetting the past, or at least only remembering of it what is most noble and cheering, enter the path of moral and material progress. I would not tell my American friends, "Rest and be thankful," because rest is not the lot of human existence. I would say, "Watch and be thankful." I see no differences now in the United States which cannot be settled without violence, no wounds which cannot heal, no dangers which cannot be averted with firmness, prudence, and magnanimity.

A. L.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, April 7, 1866.

I AM afraid you will get tired of the very name of reform in my letters. Yet at this moment an English correspondent cannot well write about anything else. It is not that people are particularly excited about the matter, but that reform, like a carriage at the door of a theatre, "stops the way." Till we get rid of it, we cannot talk or write of any other political topic. Will the bill pass, or will it not? is a subject the "pros and cons" concerning which I have heard discussed till I am sick of the question. The general voice of "society" is certainly against the passage of the bill; and, as a matter of calculation, I believe the verdict is correct. Somehow or other the agitation in favor of reform appears to me not to have been a success-

There have been public meetings at Rochdale, Bradford, and all the chief manufacturing centres, which, so the reports inform us, were very crowded and very enthusiastic; but in the country at large there has been hardly any response to the demand for an expression of public opinion. There is nothing, for instance, like the popular agitation which was beginning to spring up throughout England on the subject of Jamaica just before the Government resolved to appoint a commission of enquiry. Mr. Gladstone's tone, both at Liverpool and at Manchester, was hardly that of a man fighting a winning cause, and Mr. Bright as usual damaged a good case by uncalled-for exaggeration. He stigmatized the coalition between the moderate Whigs and the Tories as a "dirty conspiracy." Now I utterly disagree with the Liberals, of the class represented by the *Spectator* newspaper, who are haunted by the bugbear of seeing "intelligence swamped by numbers;" but it is absurd to surmise that they are not honest in their opposition to the bill. In order to uphold what they believe to be right, they have broken with their party—in the case of members of Parliament jeoparded their seats—and injured their political prospects because they dread the notion of seeing political power entrusted to the working classes. I think they are wrong, but to stigmatize such men as "dirty conspirators" is a mere piece of oratorical clap-trap. The Liberal press represents fairly enough the feeling of the country, but while the *Daily News*, the *Daily Telegraph*, and the *Star* are strongly in favor of the bill, the *Times*, the *Morning Post*, and the *Pall Mall Gazette* are dead against it. However, next Thursday the bill comes on for the second reading, and before I write next we shall know more about its chances. At present the Government counts on a majority of twenty to thirty; but then no calculation can take account of absentees.

On Easter Monday we had the annual review of the volunteers at Brighton, the Prince of Wales being present himself on the occasion. Everything, I believe, went off as usual; but by this time our "civic defenders" have become a bore, and we hear very little of the great volunteer movement. I have always regarded this movement, which was called into being some five or six years ago, at the time of one of our periodical panics about a French invasion, as an essentially short-lived one. I believe it did good to the credit of England abroad, as showing with what rapidity we could raise a volunteer army in case there was any threat of invasion—though this fact could hardly have needed proving to any one at all acquainted with England; but I utterly disbelieve in the volunteer system becoming a normal institution of the country. The novelty of the thing is dying out, and the sort of romance which attended its first beginning is dying out also. Men are growing ashamed of walking about the streets in uniform and playing at soldiering. So, gradually, the movement is passing away, and will pass out of existence altogether in the course of a year or so, supposing no fresh apprehension of danger to take hold of the public mind. The only part of the movement that will live is the practice of rifle-shooting. The taste for practising with rifles is one very consonant to ordinary Englishmen's feelings, and I have no doubt we shall have in consequence a large body of good rifle-shooters amongst the civilian population. But to own a rifle and spend sufficient time on shooting to become a good marksman implies a liberal allowance of money and leisure, and the nucleus left of the volunteer army will consist practically of men of birth and fortune. The movement, in fact, has never been a popular one, in the true sense of the word popular. The cost of being a volunteer was, at the lowest calculation, twenty pounds a year, and therefore it is needless to say that the number of volunteers who really belonged to the working class was extremely small. The bulk of the privates consisted of the small farmers, clerks, and tradesmen. Oddly enough, I attribute a good deal of what is called here the "conservative reaction" to volunteering. The country squires and noblemen took very kindly to the movement, and gave not only their money but their time to its promotion. The consequence has been that the landed gentry have got an influence over the lower and middle class which they never possessed before. On the whole, this influence is beneficial; it tends, as far as it goes, to break down those class barriers that are the curse of English life; but, on the other hand, while it has increased the sympathies between clerks and yeomen and the squirearchy, it has somewhat diminished the sympathy between the former class and that of the workingmen. The volunteers, who represent the bulk of the borough constituencies under the existing franchise, have learned to represent the prejudices of the class from which their superior officers are drawn. Brown and Jones and Robinson, who have shot with a marquis and been drilled by a member of an old country family, are far less democratic in their prejudices than when they had never donned a uniform or heard the word of command.

On Tuesday last I was present at the funeral of the ex-Queen of the French. If you care about the details of the ceremony, the number of mourning coaches, and the list of the mourners, you will find them given at length in our daily newspapers. Your French correspondent will doubtless give you the French aspect of the ceremonial. From an English point of view there were one or two features about the occasion worthy of note. Our royal family was most fully represented in the person of the Duke of Cambridge, the Prince of Wales, and a special aide-de-camp of the Queen; but of the English aristocracy there was, oddly enough, not a member of any importance present at the funeral, with the doubtful exception of Lord Clanricarde. If the gathering at the funeral was intended as a demonstration of respect to the deceased lady, it was a very remarkable one. Viewed as a political demonstration in favor of the House of Orleans, it had no significance whatever. Louis Philippe was never personally popular in England, and the whole policy of the monarchy of July in reference to the Syrian business, to the Spanish marriages, and to the Tahiti affair was singularly offensive to English national feeling. On the other hand, Napoleon III. has studied English feelings carefully, and has outlived, in this country at any rate, the animosities which were occasioned by the manner of his assumption of power. He is now more or less of a popular hero with us; and, with the exception of a few staunch old Tories, Englishmen are ready enough to accept his dynasty as an accomplished fact. I do not say for one moment that this English good-will makes his throne any the more secure, or that the fact of our being disposed to believe in the permanence of his dynasty is any strong reason for believing his son is likely to succeed him. There is not a nation in the world where popular instincts with regard to the feelings or conduct of other nations are more fallible than our own. The only reason I allude to the public good-will towards the Empire, which is the fashion of the day, is to guard you from thinking that the crowds who assembled on Tuesday to see a whole bevy of princes had any abstract preference for Orleanism over Imperialism. The Prince of Wales (according to a French phrase, for which I know of no exact English equivalent) "affiche's" the most pronounced Tory sentiments, talks of the Tories as "we," and is said to entertain a very unfriendly feeling towards the Emperor as the representative of democracy and universal suffrage. For some time past Napoleon III. has expressed a wish that the Prince and Princess should visit him in Paris; but hitherto the wish has not been fulfilled, owing to the reluctance of the Prince to be a guest of a Napoleon. It is the tradition of the House of Hanover that the heir-apparent should always entertain opposite politics to those of the reigning sovereign; and therefore as the Queen has always inclined to the Whigs, it is natural the Prince should ally himself with the Tories. Possibly his presence at the funeral might be regarded as a sort of protest against the Empire; but even this I doubt personally.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, March 30, 1866.

THIS week we have had a strange mixture of religion and revelry—*stabat maters, misereres*, and the sermons of Father Felix in our churches, and balls, concerts, and routs in the *salons* of our *beau monde*. Nor has the voice of scandal been silent, for many rumors have gone the round of our clubs and cafés of dishonorable tricks at the gaming-table, romantic adventures and hostile meetings, all associated with well-known names, which prudence, however, forbids my mentioning here.

You will have seen from the papers that our Imperial Opera is no longer to be attached to the civil list. It is to become a public speculation, and it is generally believed that the present director, M. Perrin, will be at the head of this enterprise. Richard Wagner was admitted to the Conservatoire last Sunday, and for the first time the march in the "Tannhäuser" was executed by the orchestra and choruses of the *Société des Concerts*. The march was *encored*, although it was the last piece on the programme. The Abbé Liszt was present, and at his side sat a rich and beautiful American lady, who seemed to share the abbé's delight in listening to the execution of the great German maestro's work. M. Semet has now in rehearsal at the Opera Comique an operetta called "La petite Fadette," the libretto of which is taken from Madame George Sand's novel of that name. The same maestro is also engaged upon an opera in three acts, to be entitled "Punchinella." M. Semet is the author of the music of "Gil Blas," "Des Nuits d'Espagne," and several other popular works. Verdi is now at his villa Santa Agata, near Basseto, writing a new opera to be called "Don Carlos"—the words from Schiller's play of that name. This opera is to be brought out in Paris.

Writing of music, I hear that Sweden is going to send us another nightingale, even more marvellous in vocal powers than Jenny Lind. The name of this marvellous warbler is Marie Taskatt. If we may believe the Stockholm newspapers, this lady's voice surpasses everything that has been heard since the time of Malibran. I suppose you have heard that Jenny Lind is

to sing at Cannes in Easter week. This will be the first time that the French will have heard this famous lady in their own country.

Prince Napoleon left Paris on Wednesday evening for Toulon, where he will embark in his yacht, the *Prince Jérome*, for Naples. The prince is accompanied by some celebrated connoisseurs in painting, and intends ransacking the old *châteaux* and country villas, where he has been told some excellent copies of the old masters are to be found.

Prince Lucien Bonaparte, the distinguished philologist, has returned from Spain and brought with him a cabinet of curiosities, which he intends to open to the public.

The French Imperial Academy intends next year to celebrate its 200th anniversary. Upon that occasion two *fauteuils* are to be given *in partibus* to two ladies—Madame Dudevant, better known as George Sand, and Rosa Bonheur, the eminent cattle painter.

Notwithstanding the exhibition of 1867, our annual *salon* is this year well supplied by our principal artists. Already 5,000 first-rate pictures have been received. The two which seem to attract greatest attention are a landscape called "La Remise de Chevreuils" and "La Femme au Perroquet," both by Courbet. The latter picture represents a woman in a state of nudity playing with a parrot, and has already been purchased for a large sum by M. Nieuwerkerke, director of the *Beaux Arts*. There is also another picture, a portrait of a lady, and entitled "La Veuve." The lady is dressed in deep mourning and has in her hands a bouquet of violets. Now, although the catalogue contains only the two words, *a widow*, opposite the number of the portrait, there is a story connected with it full of poetic terror. The lady is the Countess O——, who, although now only twenty-four years of age, has been twice widowed. She is said to be of humble birth, but when only sixteen years old her great beauty attracted the attention of the Marquis de D——, who married her. On leaving the church, however, the marquis was assassinated by some obscure rival, and the lady was left a widow with an immense fortune. The *marquise* retired to a convent, where she remained till her twentieth year. She then made a journey to various parts of Europe, and visited, among other places, St. Petersburg, where one of the most wealthy *boyards* of Russia placed at her feet his heart, his diamonds, and his millions. The marriage was celebrated in the house of the bridegroom's mother, in a remote part of Russia, some distance from his own estate. The newly married couple left for their new home in a magnificent sleigh. On the way they were attacked by wolves, and the count, in trying to defend his bride, made a false step, fell out of the sleigh into the snow, and was immediately devoured by the wolves. The horses, mad with terror, dashed off with immense speed and did not stop till they arrived at the count's château, which was brilliantly illuminated for the reception of the newly married couple. This story, I am assured on good authority, is perfectly authentic.

The inhabitants of Marseilles, who have long been mourning over their lost quarantine laws and their much cherished Lazaretto, are determined to make an effort to get them back again. A deputation from that city is expected to reach Paris to-morrow in order to present to the Emperor a petition for the re-establishment of a new Lazaretto at Frioul, an island near the mouth of the river, and that a quarantine of fourteen days shall be imposed upon all vessels coming from a suspected port.

There has been great irregularity of late in the transmission of telegrams between France and England and France and Prussia, owing to the breaking of several of the telegraphic wires.

There has of late been considerable outcry in France against the system of burying people immediately after death, and the opinion of those who are opposed to this system, which prevails here, is that many people are buried whilst only in a state of trance. M. Lalu, curé of Gizay, has just written a letter in one of our provincial journals in which he says: "Having been summoned to assist my brother curé of Nieuil, I have just witnessed a fact which has greatly excited the people of the neighborhood. A woman named Redegonde Deguesseau, who was supposed to be dead, was to have been interred in the morning and the relations were all in attendance, when the person who had laid out the corpse, as she was completing her work, fancied she discovered a slight movement in the right arm. Upon examination the woman was found to be still alive! I immediately went to see her and found no pulse, no movement. But on close examination I fancied I saw a swelling of one of the arteries of the neck. I let a few drops of brandy fall upon her teeth, which were clenched in such a manner that it was impossible to separate them. And shortly after a slight hissing noise was heard. The woman continues still alive (twenty-four hours after) in the same comatose state."

It appears that the Commissioners for the Exhibition of 1867 have by some means or other given offence to the Emperor of the Celestial Empire. His Celestial Majesty has turned quite sulky, and refuses to allow any of the products of his realm to be sent to the World's Fair.

A curious kind of industry has sprung up of late in France. Two-sous pieces, struck in 1852, are now being eagerly bought up, principally by silversmiths, for five sous each. It appears that in 1852 one of the employees at the mint accidentally let fall into the cauldron filled with copper an ingot of gold. Fearing that he would be discharged if the accident became known, he concealed it, and the coins were struck off. It was not till the ingot was missed that the workman mentioned the circumstance. The matter was kept in secresy for some time, but it is now pretty generally known, and everybody is on the look-out for the two-sous pieces of 1852.

Our prefect of police is now very seriously occupied with the question of clubs. Owing to the enormous sums that have recently been lost by the sons of some of our best families, great complaints have been made against the sanctioning of gambling at these establishments. M. Pietri is now determined to enquire into the matter, and to take such measures as may satisfy the just demands of those who are deeply interested in the matter. Another cause for this enquiry is the recent discovery of numerous dishonorable tricks at the gaming table.

Paragraphs are continually finding their way into our daily papers reporting the intention of M. Guizot to quit the Protestant religion and become a Catholic. I can assure you that these rumors are entirely false. M. Guizot is one of the staunchest supporters of the Evangelical Church in Paris. Madame de Meulan, the late wife of this celebrated statesman and historian, was born a Catholic, and only embraced the Protestant faith on her death-bed. At that solemn moment M. Guizot read to her one of Bossuet's sermons on the immortality of the soul.

A very singular bank, called the Bank of Intellectual Credit, is about to be established at Lyons. The idea of this bank was first suggested by Father Enfantin, who, a few days ago, invited to a banquet, at the Grand Hôtel, about twenty persons for the purpose of discussing the question. What the object of the bank is to be I cannot quite understand, but, as a committee has already been appointed to draw up a plan of operation, we shall doubtless soon be enlightened.

A friend of mine, who arrived here from Marseilles the other day, informs me that an English colony is about to be founded in that city, for the purpose of placing England in direct communication with India. Two thousand houses are to be built by the English Crédit Mobilier on land which this company has bought of the Crédit Mobilier of France. The architects were to reach Marseilles on the 7th. These houses, it is said, will be completed in the course of about eight months.

You have doubtless heard of the chiffonniers, or rag-pickers, of Paris, a class of men almost peculiar to this city. Some curious details respecting the industry of this interesting body of men have lately come under my notice. They perambulate the streets of Paris, principally during the night, with baskets on their shoulders, a lantern in their right hand and a long hook in the left, picking up everything convertible into money that may fall in their way—rags, old iron, pieces of paper, etc., etc. Their principal gain, however, is derived from rags, which they sell to marine-store keepers. The number of these traders exclusively occupied with the produce of the chiffonnier is 110, who employ 350 workmen for the purpose of cleaning and sorting the rags. The amount of business done by them is about six millions of francs a year. The number of chiffonniers now in Paris amounts to between 3,000 and 4,000, each of whom is obliged to wear a medal given him by the prefect of police. I may say more upon this question of rags on some future occasion, for it is one particularly interesting to a country largely employed in the manufacture of paper.

RELIGIOUS INTOLERANCE IN ITALY.

FLORENCE, March 29, 1866.

OUR second spring has come just in time for the Easter holidays; senators, deputies, and "own correspondents" have gone home with school-boy glee to enjoy them; foreigners have migrated to Rome for the holy week—"*Pasqua con Dio, Natale co 'tuoi, carnevale con chi puoi,*" says the Tuscan proverb, and the Florentines are by no means pleased that their guests prefer spending Easter as well as Christmas "among their own people" to remaining in the hotels and boarding-houses of the new capital. Their absence is strikingly perceptible in the streets, the cafés, and restaurants, where the *si* reigns once more predominant over the barbarous consonants of the north. At the present moment the seven churches are thronged with peasants from the suburbs and not a few citizens, who take the opportunity of the half holiday to "report themselves to their confessors." The priests have been very busy this year in distributing the Easter summonses, espe

cially the Government servants; by the returns they will be able to calculate who are for and who against them. The radical papers have raised an outcry against the Ministers of Public Worship and of War for allowing their civil servants and soldiers to be "thus tampered with;" but as the priests can only exhort them to confession, and no punishment now awaits the neglect thereof, it would be absurd to use prohibitory measures. In the good old days of despotism, the distribution of the Easter tickets was one of the most powerful weapons of police *espionage*. Tickets were distributed to every member of every household, and a register kept by the parish priest. At the moment that each penitent entered the confessional, he or she returned the ticket to an assistant priest, who checked off the name on the register, placing a cross against the absentees. A copy of the register was sent to the police, and names with crosses against them were synonyms for suspected persons. Not only were they refused passports or sure to be the first arrested in case of an *émeute*, but it was very difficult for them to obtain marriage or even shooting licenses. Even now, when the sacristy and police bureau are at enmity, the country people attach a superstitious importance to "returning their tickets." This morning when my servant went to our butcher for meat, he told her that three hundred and sixty-four days in the year he served us willingly, but that this one day he wanted for himself and men to report themselves at the parish church; that, in short, his shop was empty, but that the Easter Sunday lamb would be first-rate. Telling this story just now to a liberal Florentine Catholic, I asked him whether my butcher was an exception to the rule. By no means, he said; we get our share of calumny, but the epithet of Paolotti (the new name assumed by the old Jesuits) is only too justly applied. I send my children to the "Padri di famiglie," a large school frequented by more than a hundred boys and as many girls. We never fast, but the children refuse to take meat to school either Fridays or Saturdays, because, though none of the masters interfere, *all* the other children plague or avoid them, or throw their meat out of window! It is exceedingly difficult, even after a long residence exclusively among natives, to ascertain how far the conviction that is daily taking deeper root of the incompatibility of the temporal sovereignty of the Pope with social and political progress and liberty, conduces to free the masses from their spiritual subserviency to the head of the church.

The total failure of the reactionary party to fill the benches of the *Sala dei du gento* with their partizans (three only, Cantù, Doudes Reggio, and Martini finding place there); the eagerness with which the report of the commission charged with the examination of the bill for the abolition of the ecclesiastical corporations is looked for; the general approbation accorded to Signor Natoli, late minister of public instruction, for his proposition to take the education of Italian youth entirely out of the hands of the clergy, seem signs of an increasing desire for freedom from moral and religious thraldom; but we must bear in mind that the seventeen millions of illiterate Italians of the literally *inalfabeti*—men and women who do not know their letters—have little or nothing to do either with electing members of Parliament or agitating for abolition or for secular education. On the contrary, if we could only give credence to the number of crosses made by these *inalfabeti* and witnessed by the priests, goodly rolls of petitions against these sacrilegious projects exist and are daily increasing in bulk. The new "challenge of Barletta" from Catholics to Protestants does not bear witness to diminished zeal on the part of the former. In that same town, the scene of the famous challenge and subsequent duel between French and Italians so graphically narrated by the late Massimo d'Azeglio in the book that contributed not a little to arouse Italians to a sense of their degradation, and a desire to emulate the deeds of their forefathers—in that same town a certain Protestant minister, Gaetano Giannini by name, took up his abode, and gathered round himself a gradually increasing flock. The curate of Barletta finding his personal influence insufficient to stem the tide of proselytism, availed himself of a religious festival held in the parish church to arouse the ire of his parishioners. He succeeded only too well. On leaving the church, "armed with instruments found within the sacred precincts" (I quote the ministerial report), the excited multitude rushed to the house of the Protestant pastor and, not finding him, murdered in cold blood three of the inmates, mutilating the corpses in the most fiendish manner. Not satisfied with this, they entered every house suspected of harboring heretics, and, finding no human victims, ransacked and destroyed the furniture and smashed the windows. Nor is this intolerance confined to the ignorant populations of the *Puglie*. The other day, in Milan, a young bride was pelted with rotten eggs and otherwise molested on her way to the Protestant church with her heretic bridegroom; and here in Florence the priests constantly refuse to bury wanderers from the fold. At Cattagirone, in the province of Catania (Sicily), tumults similar to that of Barletta were only prevented by energetic precautions on the part of the local authorities. The *Gazzetta di Romagna* affirms that the clerical agents constantly excite the peasants against all suspected of heresy. The *Corriere Italiano* quotes secret instructions from Rome to the Easter preachers in the Tuscan, southern, and ex-papal provinces to incite the masses to protests in favor of the temporal power of the Pope. As to the Barletta atrocities, the clerical organs make light of them.

"Ministers of Italy," exclaims the *Armonia*, "you are instruments in the hands of the revolution. You assist in the demolition of the religion of the state. The populations abhor heresy and apostacy; these you protect. They expel the Protestant emissaries; you shelter them. You and your party desire the corruption of the people and the ruin of religion; but the people cry Viva God! Viva the religion of Christ! and this will triumph."

The *Unita Cattolica* understands why Catholic missionaries should go and convert "Pagan England," because Catholics believe in no salvation outside the pale of the Roman Church; but cannot see why Protestants, who admit that all believers in God of whatever creed (*sic*) may be saved, should try and foist on Catholics their own special doctrines.

At the last sitting previous to the Easter recess, Deputy Corte presented a motion for the abolition of the first article of the statute which "proclaims the Catholic religion the only religion of the State." He did but express the desire of a large portion of intelligent Italians, who maintain that only when all religious creeds are equally protected by the law can Cavour's formula of a free church in a free state be realized.

After the Easter recess it is hoped that the commissions will be ready to report on Signor Scialoja's financial bills and on the "administration of ecclesiastical property bill." To the passage of the latter many look as the only chance of supplying the deficit, which, if we take a medium figure between the statement of the Government and that of its enemies, stands at 300 millions. The railroads are ceded, the crown lands sold, the very sands on the sea-shore let to contractors; no wonder, therefore, that the eyes of weary tax-payers are fixed on the immense church property as on an anchor of salvation.

The enthusiasm about the *Consorzio Nazionale* (or public subscription for extinguishing the national debt) seems subsiding. As yet the *Gazzetta del Popolo*, the Torinese paper which first started the idea, gives a list of seven millions: King and royal family, 1,225,000f.; Bank of Naples, 1,000,000f.; municipal corporations, 2,100,000f.; private subscriptions, 2,000,000f.; and a Venetian 500,000f. If the payment of all the subscriptions rests on the same chances as the Venetian's, the prospect is not brilliant. At first the anonymous donor was said to be Count Pappadopoli, of Venice, and his family suffered no small molestations in consequence, but the rumor I am assured by members of that family had no foundation whatsoever. The subscriber is a certain Sig. Merrighi, who affirms that 500,000 francs are owing to him by the King for attempts made and expenses incurred, with the written sanction of both his Majesty and Count Cavour, for the recovery of the "Iron Crown" carried off from Monza by the Austrians in their retreat from Lombardy. This credit Signor Merrighi transfers to the *Consorzio Nazionale*.

J. W.

Literature.

LITERARY NOTES.

Messrs. Bangs, Merwin & Co. will sell, at their auction rooms, on the evenings of May 2d and 3d, a collection of autographs amounting to between five and six hundred lots, and embracing a greater range, as regards the personages represented therein, than any collection of similar size sold in this city for years. It will not compare, of course, with the great English collections which sometimes fall under the hammer—as that of Dawson Turner, for instance, the catalogue of which makes a volume of some two hundred pages—but it contains a number of specimens which most collectors would consider desirable. The catalogue opens with fifty odd lots of old American autographs, mostly those of colonial governors and proprietors, members of the Congress of 1765, statesmen, etc., before the Revolution, presidents and members of the Continental Congresses, and generals and officers of the Revolution. Of the value and rarity of most of these autographs we are no judge, but we believe they usually command high prices for the purposes of historical illustration, which, just now, is the rage among American book-fanciers. Lot 46 we may note in passing—a letter from John Evans, member of Congress from Delaware—since it refreshes our memories with the fact that lotteries were not always regarded in the disreputable light that they are now. "We have been unfortunate in the second draft," writes Evans to Cesar Rodney, "the Presbyterians having set

up a lottery for Newcastle and Christeen meeting-houses, which has retarded the sale of our tickets." This was in 1778. On the 25th of July of the preceding year, we find General Schuyler writing to Gouverneur Morris in defence of his reputation; and the next day Washington is writing, from "eight miles east of Morristown," to Daniel Morgan, whom he orders "to halt at Trenton, and remain there till further orders, unless you should receive authentic information of the arrival of the enemy's fleet within the Capes of Delaware." Fifteen years later,

> "When wild war's deadly blast was blawn,
> And gentle peace returning"

had made the struggling colonies triumphant States, we have General Wilkinson laying down the law in regard to deserters. "If a deserter is discovered," he writes, "making for the enemy, it will be well for the scout to shoot him and bring his Head to you, for which allow forty dollars. One Head lopped off in this way and set upon a Pole on the Parade might be the means of saving many lives, for it would certainly cut up the defection of the troops, root and branch." Certainly, general; or, if it would not do this, it would do the next best thing—cut up the deserters! From the heroes of our Revolution, and later, we pass to sundry royal and noble personages of Europe, beginning with the dukes of Brunswick and kings of Denmark, after which come the kings of Sweden and emperors of Germany. Among the former are specimens of Gustavus Adolphus and his daughter Christina, Charles the Twelfth, and Gustavus the Third, he whom Ankerstrom assassinated at a masked ball; and among the latter, Charles the Fifth, of whose famous "Cloister Life" Stirling has written so intelligently. There are nine specimens of the great men of the Thirty Years' War, as, Frederick the Fifth, Elector Palatine and King of Bohemia, the unfortunate husband of Wotton's beloved and royal mistress, the erewhile Princess Elizabeth; Ottavio Piccolomini, whom Schiller's and Coleridge's readers well remember; and the great Wallenstein, Duke of Friedlandt. Other German notabilities are Don Juan of Austria; Alexander Farnese, Prince of Parma; Prince Eugene of Savoy; Frederick the Great; Blücher; and the mysterious Casper Hauser, one of whose school exercises has somehow been preserved. The list of English state celebrities is not large, the best specimens therein being those of William of Orange; Henry St. John, Lord Bolingbroke; George, Lord Lyttleton, by courtesy ranked among the English poets; and Lord Nelson. Nor is the list of English writers of much consequence, the best names being those of Sir Joseph Banks, David Hume, Crabbe the poet, Bishop Hurd, Samuel Richardson, John Horne Tooke, and Moore, Proctor, and Wordsworth. There are some three or four good specimens of modern Italian writers and about the same number of composers and singers. Skipping some four or five pages of American autographs, mostly of public characters, we reach a cluster of celebrated names, as, Melancthon, Peter Du Moulin, Swedenborg, Count Zinzendorff, Salmasius, Leibnitz, Puffendorf, Linnæus, Barhaave, Haller, Zimmermann, Fichte, Hahnemann, C. G. Heyne, Humboldt, Neander, and the great philologist, Wolf. The poets and novelists of Germany are not largely represented, the most noted in the catalogue being Richter, Wieland, Zschokke, La Motte Fouqué, Kotzebue, Jacobi, and Count Stolberg. Eight pages are set apart to French autographs, the list of which is only tolerable as regards noted persons of the *ancien régime* and the Revolution, but excellent as regards the Napoleon family and the marshals of the First Empire, lacking only three specimens of the last, viz., Duroc, Lannes, and Poniatowski. Of the autographs of French authors there are specimens of D'Alembert, Boileau, Buffon, Bernardin de St. Pierre, Chateaubriand, Grimm, Rousseau, Voltaire, and La Place. The only thing worthy of note in the small collection of theatrical curiosities is a Bible which formerly belonged to Mrs. Siddons, whose autograph it bears upon the title-page. It passed, at her death, we are told, into the hands of her sister, Mrs. Whitlock, and from her to their nephew, Horace Twiss, at the sale of whose library it was purchased, it is to be presumed, by the owner of the present collection. What prices the autographs we have mentioned, and others of a similar nature, are likely to fetch, cannot be foreseen, the market value of this sort of literature depending so much on the whims of the buyers, but, judging from recent sales, we think the early American portion of them will realize the most.

—Mr. G. W. Carleton will shortly publish "Recommended to Mercy," an English novel of a rather peculiar character, which attracted considerable attention when it originally appeared; "Josh Billings—His Book," another collection of American humor, so absurdly in vogue just at present, and, in our way of thinking, the poorest of all; and "Adrift in Dixie," a volume of Southern travel by Edmund Kirke. It is doubtful, however, whether the last work will be published as announced; for at the latest accounts the edition which was manufactured in Boston was destroyed by the burning of the Norwich steamer in the Sound. Mr. Carleton has also in preparation a memoir of Junius Brutus Booth, the elder, written by his daughter, Asia, the wife of Mr. J. S. Clarke, the comedian. It will not be published for some months yet, though we believe it is nearly stereotyped.

—The late John Thomas Hope made a catalogue of a collection of early newspapers and essayists, which has just been published at Oxford by the Clarendon Press, and which contains several amusing mistakes. "The Idle Man," for instance, Mr. Hope's copy of which seems to have formerly belonged to Sir Francis Freeling, the well-known collector, is attributed to a Mr. William A. Colman, from whom Sir Francis received it as a present, Mr. Hope never having heard, apparently, of our veteran poet, Dana, by whom it was written some forty odd years ago. He blunders likewise concerning the old American magazine, "The Portfolio," which was edited by Dennie, who merely figures in the catalogue as "Oliver Oldschool." But Mr. Hope's worst blunder, all things considered, is his ascribing "Salmagundi" to its supposititious editor, "Launcelot Wagstaff," in utter ignorance of its real ones, Paulding and Irving, with the last of whom, and what he wrote, he ought to have been acquainted. Altogether, this catalogue of early newspapers and essayists is a needless production.

—What has been done for a number of years past towards the illustration of English history by the publication of its state papers, under the direction of the Master of the Rolls, is now being done for Scottish history, Sir Wilson Gibson-Craig, the new Lord Clerk-Register of Scotland, having the sanction of Parliament for the publication of a similar series of documents from the papers under his charge. He has secured the services of a number of Scottish scholars and writers, among whom may be mentioned the Duke of Argyll, Lord Lyndsay, Prof. James Simpson, Prof. Cosmo Innes, David Laing, Mr. William Forbes Skene, Mr. Joseph Robertson, and Mr. John Hill Burton (the latter known in this country by his pleasant, gossippy volume, "The Book Hunter"), each of whom has agreed to edit an important historical work for the series, the first issues of which are now passing through the press.

—William Jerdan, the editor of the old "Literary Gazette," the forerunner, in a mild way, of the English literary weeklies of the present day, is about to add to his writings, which of late years have been mostly devoted to himself and his doings, by the publication of a volume of reminiscences entitled "Men I Have Known." It is promised to contain much pleasant gossip about the principal literary, political, and legal celebrities of the present century—a statement which does not particularly impress us, since the promise in question only mentions three names, and those not among great English writers, viz., Campbell, Moore, and Barham. Jerdan certainly came in contact with a good many men in the course of his long life (he is now eighty-five years old), but it may be doubted whether he ever really knew any first-class authors, since his journal was scarcely of sufficient weight to patronize them or to be patronized by them in turn. Its mission was rather the bringing forward of young writers than the conferring of celebrity on old ones. Among the former whom Jerdan discovered, so to say, was poor Miss Landon, whose mysterious initials commanded as much attention forty years ago as the names of Mrs. Browning and Jean Ingelow now. "L. E. L.," however, was Jerdan's great "take;" for the rest that came to his net, and who should have been fish, to make the proverb true, they were such small fry that few save Jerdan himself can remember their names.

—The number of scientific journals published in England and on the Continent, joined to the difficulty, not to say impossibility, of a reader's making himself familiar with all of them, even in one department which may be his specialty, has just resulted in a new journal, which is to be published once a week in London, under the name of *Scientific Opinion*. The ground which it proposes to occupy is a large one—much too large, we fear, to have any but the scantiest justice done it. Devoted to no special walk of science, it aims to include all, even the most widely separated, as agriculture, archæology, astronomy, botany, chemistry, ethnology, geography, geology, palæontology, medicine, mechanics, meteorology, mining and mineralogy, microscopy, photography, physics, zoölogy, and comparative anatomy. Nothing exhaustive can, of course, be presented on all these subjects, but merely a *résumé* of what is written and said about them; for, in addition to extracts from important articles in the scientific periodicals of England, the Continent, and America, the new journal will contain reports of the proceedings of the various English scientific societies, and abstracts of the transactions of the royal academies of Paris, Brussels, Berlin, and Vienna. The first number of the *Scientific Opinion* was to have been, and probably was, published on the 4th of the present month, at the rate of fourpence a week.

—The republication by Bohn of a portion of "Seymour's Sketches," mentioned by us a few weeks since, has occasioned some bad blood, first, on the part of Seymour's son, who denounced Mr. Bohn for obtaining information of him for a pretended series of "Lives of British Artists," when he only wanted it to accompany a mutilated edition of his father's drawings; and second, on the part of Charles Dickens, who took umbrage at young Seymour's letter, which unduly magnified his father's share in the success of the "Pickwick Papers." Dickens's missive is not in the best taste, bearing hard, as it does, on the Seymours, father and son. Of the former he says that he "never originated, suggested, or in any way had to do with, save as illustrator of what I devised, an incident, a character (except the sporting tastes of Mr. Winkle), a name, a phrase, or a word, to be found in the 'Pickwick Papers.' I never saw Mr. Seymour's handwriting, I believe, in my life. I never even saw Mr. Seymour but once in my life, and that was within eight-and-forty hours of his untimely death." He then proceeds to give an account of the origin of the "Pickwick Papers," copying for that purpose a portion of his preface to the late English editions of that work, with which our readers may be supposed to be familiar, and concludes as follows: "In July, 1849, some incoherent assertions made by the widow of Mr. Seymour, in the course of certain endeavors of hers to raise money, induced me to address a letter to Mr. Edward Chapman, then the only surviving business partner in the original firm of Chapman & Hall, who first published the 'Pickwick Papers,' requesting him to inform me in writing whether the foregoing statement was correct. In Mr. Chapman's confirmatory answer, immediately written, he reminded me that I had given Mr. Seymour more credit than was his due. 'As this letter is to be historical,' he wrote, 'I may as well claim what little belongs to me in the matter, and that is, the figure of Pickwick. Seymour's first sketch,' made," says Mr. Dickens, "from the proof of my first chapter, 'was of a long, thin man. The present immortal one he made from my description of a friend of mine at Richmond.'"

—The problem of African discovery is still an exciting one, in spite of the fate which has befallen so many African travellers; for, as one disappears, another rises to take his place. The latest of these daring adventurers is Herr Gerhard Rohlfs, who proposes to go to Wadai, where his countryman, Edward Vogel, was murdered, in order to obtain his papers, which, he believes, are still in existence. Born near Bremen thirty-four years ago, Rohlfs studied medicine in the universities of Heidelberg, Würzburg, and Göttingen, after which he joined the Foreign Legion at Algiers; he distinguished himself at the conquest of Kabylia, where he was decorated and made a sergeant. Growing weary of military life, he resolved to travel—not in the beaten paths of your ordinary tourist, who "does" Europe in a few weeks, and so much of Africa as lies along the Nile in as many months, but through regions where danger as well as glory awaited him—in Africa itself, among its wild and murderous tribes. Knowing Arabic well, and being fitted by his early studies for the practice of medicine, he assumed the mask of a devout believer and the *rôle* of a physician, and boldly started forth on the track of adventure. In the end it was one of misadventure, for, four years since, while traversing the Sahara of Morocco, he was attacked and robbed by his guides, who left him for dead, with a broken arm, alone in the desert. Saved by some Marabouts, he was scarcely in Algiers again when he planned a journey to Timbuctoo, which he could not carry into effect on account of the unsettled condition of the country. Determined to do something, however, he has now started on what we cannot but consider a perilous journey to Wadai, taking with him a former servant of Vogel's, and an eye-witness of his death, which he came near sharing himself. This servant, Mohammed ben Sliman, maintains that Vogel's papers are in the possession of the present Sultan of Wadai, who is represented in a more favorable light than his predecessor. So, at least, Rohlfs thinks, and Mohammed ben Sliman likewise, or he would hardly have volunteered to accompany him on his journey. As Rohlfs had but scanty means with which to accomplish his object, the Royal Geographical Society of England have subscribed £100 towards his expenses, and it is probable that other European societies will also assist him.

—One of the sincerest poets of the time, and certainly its sweetest singer of sacred songs, died recently in the person of the Rev. John Keble, the author of "The Christian Year." Born towards the close of the last century, he was graduated at Oriel College, Oxford, in 1810. He was for many years professor of poetry in the university, but the latter part of his life was mostly spent in attending to his duties as a parish minister at Hursley, in Hampshire. A rigid ritualist, and an early and prominent leader in the High-Church party, he succeeded so well in his own parish—so perfectly, that is, in carrying out his ideas—that a Dissenter was unknown in it. The work by which Keble is best known, and which has passed through eighty editions in England, and probably a quarter of that number in this country, is "The Christian Year," which was published in 1827, and which carries out the system of the rituals in their extremest form, though often with a melody of versification and a richness of imagery unsurpassed in modern sacred poetry. It may be questioned whether any volume of merely religious verse ever had a wider circulation than "The Christian Year." Keble's subsequent works were two volumes of sermons, a metrical version of the Psalms, the "Lyra Innocentium," and the "Child's Christian Year." He was about seventy-six at the time of his death.

—Among the number of early English works which have of late years engaged the attention of scholars is that uncouth but earnest old classic, "The Vision of Piers Plowman," of which no satisfactory edition has yet been published, though what we hope will prove such is in progress under the editorship of Mr. Walter Skeat, who is now engaged in comparing the different versions of that poem for an exhaustive, which of course means a perfect, edition of it. He has discovered, so far, we are told, three distinctive types thereof: the original draft as represented by the oldest MS. known to exist, the Vernon MS. at Oxford, and those of later date which agree with it; the version published by the early printers, and recently edited by Mr. Wright from the earliest of the two MSS. at Cambridge; and the version published by Dr. Whitaker from Heber's MS., which has many variations from the Vernon copy and the early printed editions. A fourth type has lately been brought to light, consisting of the Vernon MS., which contains only the first half of the poem as we have it now, and Dr. Whitaker's version, which is rather awkwardly joined to it. From the abundance of the material before him it is to be hoped that Mr. Skeat will be able to furnish us with a reasonably good text.

OUR MILITIA.*

THE question of reconstruction so greatly overshadows every other that comparatively little attention is bestowed by the general public upon that of the militia. And yet, next after those of reconstruction and of popular education, there is no other in the whole range of our politics half so important. Gratified as everybody is by the way in which the crisis of 1861 was met, there are very few of us, indeed, who would like to be caught by any similar crisis again in a similar state of preparation, or rather of unpreparedness. The rising of that year was very great and noble; it was magnificent, from a moral point of view, but, as Canrobert said of the Balaclava charge, "that is not war." We have learned a lesson from the late struggle of the horrible waste of life and money there is involved in any exercise of the national strength, as long as that strength is not disciplined. And yet, in disciplining national strength, there is always the risk of doing more than is necessary, or, in other words, separating the armed force of the nation from the nation itself by converting it into a standing army. How to have the greatest number of good soldiers ready for active service without thereby diminishing the number of good citizens, is the great problem which every country which desires to preserve its liberties has to solve.

Colonel Lee, of Boston, discussed this subject over a year ago in the pamphlet before us, which has even greater interest now than it had when published, and which ought to be read carefully by every man who, while recognizing the fact that the growth of military science has made the training, disciplining, and arming of the national army a matter of the utmost moment, yet desires that the American army shall differ from that of all older countries in being a promoter of, and not a hindrance to, good morals, a support and not a danger to free institutions.

In discussing "What our militia has been and what it should be," he answers the following questions:

1. Whether we want a military force?
2. If so, whether it shall be a standing army, or militia, or both?
3. If we need a militia, is our system at present satisfactory?
4. If not, what improvement is practicable?

To show what our militia has been, and what were its defects, he quotes at great length from the speeches and letters of our ablest military men and statesmen ever since the foundation of the Government, as well as from the opinions of the best foreign authorities on the general subject of military organization. For the defects in the old system, we must refer the reader to the pamphlet itself. The remedies we shall allow Colonel Lee to point out himself:

A comparison of the comments upon the old system, and of the remedies suggested for its defects, leads me to the following conclusions:

1. That the militia must be reduced to a reasonable number.

* "The Militia of the United States: What it has been and what it should be." Boston. 1864.

2. That they must be uniformly organized.
3. That arms and equipments must be furnished.
4. That a system of tactics should be framed expressly for the militia, and books distributed.
5. That a general militia staff should be created, consisting of an assistant to each branch of the regular army staff.
6. That Congress should decide upon the exemptions from military service.
7. That officers elected should not be commissioned until pronounced upon by a board of officers, who shall examine into their qualifications; that their fidelity and success should be tested by inspections; that they should be obliged to hold their commissions a specified term before eligible for promotion, and before allowed to resign. That no commission above that of colonel should be issued in time of peace, unless required by State constitutions.
8. That the militia under arms should be subject to a rigid code.
9. That competent instructors should be appointed to instruct the commissioned and non-commissioned officers.
10. That the active militia should be compensated for service.
11. That rudimentary instruction in tactics should form part of the course in every public school.

That the unreasonable number of the militia was the primary cause of the failure of the system is self-evident, and all authorities concur in this opinion. The only question is, by what mode and to what extent shall that number be reduced.

The simplest plan, and one free from constitutional scruples, is for Congress to fix upon the number deemed adequate for present exigencies; to ascertain by the census, or by returns from the States, between what ages this number is included; and to pass an act limiting the military age in accordance. There are two objections to this mode, conclusive objections. First, to reconcile the citizens to serve in the militia for a few years in time of peace—such service, to render them efficient, involving a serious interruption to their necessary pursuits—you must reduce the number so interrupted to the minimum absolutely needed to secure safety to life and property in event of riots or any sudden emergency, leaving a reserve force to be called out in event of invasion, or insurrection, or any more permanent disturbance of the peace. But this scheme would deprive the Federal or State Government of any further support, by the enrolment of none but the active militia, and we should have to await the assembling of Congress, the passage of an act extending the period of service, the slow process of a new enrolment and a new organization, before the militia could be increased. Another objection to this mode of reducing the number would be the unequal distribution of the militia.

In some of the Western States, where the male population, and the younger portion of the male population, bears the greatest ratio to the whole, and where they are exclusively employed at home, and where, moreover, from the nature of their pursuits, the people are more scattered and military meetings more onerous, the number would be in excess of their needs in time of peace, and unreasonably oppressive; while, on the other hand, in the Atlantic States, where the proportion of males to females, of young men to old men, is the smallest, and where a considerable fraction of this small number are engaged in maritime pursuits, the force would be inadequate to suppress riots in our cities, or to meet sudden danger, more imminent on the seaboard than elsewhere.

It seems to me that the most practicable and equitable mode of reduction would be for Congress, leaving the enrolment as it stands and fixing upon the fraction they consider adequate, to enact that one-tenth or one-eighth, or whatever portion, *shall be trained*, leaving the selection of ages, between eighteen and forty-five, to the discretion of the States, and leaving it also optional with them to increase the number if their circumstances render it desirable.

By demanding active service of a fraction of the male population between eighteen and forty-five you distribute the burthen more equitably, and more in accordance with the needs of the States, than by exacting it of the same aggregate number, commencing at eighteen and ending at the age which would include such number. By leaving it discretionary with the States to demand service of any between eighteen and forty-five, you enable them to contract the military districts (and thus avoid one of the objections which have been urged against a classified militia), and to distribute the force more in proportion to their local needs. Some of the densely populated States with large cities might avail of the liberty to train a larger number than required by Congress. And by this mode of reducing the number of active militia you do not deprive yourself of the services of the larger number left on the roll when any possible circumstances render a larger force necessary. But is a classification of, or selection from, the militia within the power of Congress? It seems to me the power to provide for the organizing and disciplining the militia implies the power to define in some way the number to be organized and disciplined, and to distribute that number among the States in the mode Congress decide upon as the most equitable. We have high authority for the constitutionality of such an act—Hamilton, General Knox (or rather Washington), and Madison having severally advised the classification of the militia. They surely would not have urged a measure they deemed unconstitutional, however desirable it might have seemed to them.

Congress must arrange the militia into divisions, brigades, regiments. General Gaines and other military writers recommend that the organization of the militia should conform to that of the army. At all events it should be uniform throughout the States as to rank of officers, numbers of rank and file, numbers of companies in a regiment, etc., etc.

The militia being organized, the next duty of Congress is to arm and equip them, a measure now possible if the militia be reduced to four or five hundred thousand; although down to the second year of this war the supply was utterly inadequate. The old militia could not be fully armed, and the want of uniformity in the weapons they had was one of the many impediments in the way of their improvement.

The experience of this war will have indicated the needed correction of our system of tactics. There must be many officers of our regular or volunteer army competent to compile a simple, concise system, adapted to the wants of the militia, containing all the essential instruction in tactics, camp discipline, etc., and omitting all they need not attempt. Congress can print and distribute these books of tactics among the States, so as to establish an uniform system of drill and discipline.

SPIRITISM.*

THE pamphlet before us contains, in four chapters or lectures, a theory, with some details, of man, death, and the life after death, substantiated by the author's testimony to what he has himself seen in the "Summer Land." A selection of statements of fact will show what sort of things his disciples must believe:

"The churches everywhere are stealthily accepting and promulgating as their own long-entertained doctrine of immortality," the harmonial philosophy concerning "spirit." This will be news to those churches which have not modified their doctrines and symbols since 1845, when Mr. Davis published the "Revelations," his first book.

"*All* the important and refining sciences which verge on the spiritual have come up within the last quarter of a century." We apprehend that no science, either mental or physical, has originated since 1841.

"The light" (of the sun in photography) "instantly projects a shadow, paints your picture and, perchance, also that of a departed friend, on the susceptible surface of an insensate plate." The so-called "spirit-photographs" are here referred to as genuine. They were, however, unqualified impositions; every circumstance connected with their invention and production is authentically on record, and anybody who wants such can have them made by the thousand by any skilful photographer.

"I affirm, therefore, that there is no absolute imagination—that a total falsehood is an impossibility." Take now, for instance, Peter's absolute, repeated, and elaborate denial of any acquaintance with Christ; this, Mr. Davis says, was not a total falsehood.

"The spiritual world is made from life-points sent out from the chemical coalitions of the planets." Comment here seems unnecessary.

A fauna and flora of the spirit-land are described, which remind one of the story in the "Arabian Nights" about the talking bird, the singing tree, and the yellow water. Thus: "I saw celestial birds that excluded all rays except the yellow. They were singularly, wonderfully yellow—quite different from the hue of the canary." Well, a good article of gamboge is of a better yellow than a canary bird. Again: "I saw also a bird which excludes all rays except that of blue. I never could have imagined anything so marvellously expressive of pure, immense, heavenly love! This particular bird was a representative, I saw, of universal private affection. The yellow bird was also a representative. It had a great meaning—the mellower affection which comes from wisdom. The songs of these birds echoed from the Concilium"—a kind of council house. If Mr. Davis had, perchance, sought to steal the affections of the Swedenborgians or the thunder of their chief, he must have thus adopted the doctrine of correspondences. Further, the flowers here have corollas that "pulsate like a harp," and "every flower seemed to be conscious that it was part of a divine life and plan."

But, perhaps, the fairest specimen of this exposition will be afforded by a vocabulary of the Summer Land language, toward which Mr. Davis gives some materials. This language is in structure not unlike what is called on the Pacific coast the "Chinook jargon," a kind of composite gibberish or *lingua Franca* made up of Indian, English, French, and even, it is said, a word or two of Latin and Greek, and which serves as a common language for tribes, traders, and travellers on that coast. Some report that it consists of just one thousand words. Mr. Davis noticed with interest, he says, that many names of places in the Summer Land had Latin roots and Greek terminations, and ascertained, "by writing from the interior," that it is because "there is a kind of immortality in those languages," "more than there is in the Hebrew, the Arabic," etc. "The Asiatic *and* Chaldaic languages" were also somewhat used; and, safest of all philological ascriptions, there is what we may term a Turanian Aryan; "also the language spoken first on the American continent by the earliest inhabitants, by the aborigines, and those more singular people who preceded them." Truly, those who preceded the aborigines may well be reckoned singular. But Mr. Davis is surely wronging Max Müller in withholding from him the vocabularies and paradigms which could so easily be prepared of these primeval tongues.

* "Death and the After-Life. Three Lectures. By Andrew Jackson Davis. Also, A Voice from the Summer Land." New York: A. J. Davis & Co. 1866. 12mo, pp. 101.

In scrutinizing the following list, the just critic who shall find any dubious appearances will save himself some trouble by charging over every such case to the language of those singular people who preceded the earliest inhabitants on the American continent. But to our words:

Akropanamede, or "all-sided perfection," an island, which "takes its name from the purposes to which it is devoted." *Porilleum*, a spring on this island; *Porilla*, a group of such springs. The springs give off "exceedingly sweet musical sounds, which are full of unutterable significance." So is their name. *Hospitalia*, a temple where people are cured of any infatuated attachment to some one thing. *Apozea*, a "teacher-physician" of this place. On this vocable Mr. Davis observes with candor, "I never heard or saw such words before, and do not know whether they correspond with any earthly language." *Batellos*, another so named because some "educated Greeks" settled there. *Poleski*, *Alium* (Qu. *allium*, as if a heavenly Wethersfield), *Lonalia*, other islands. *Concilium*, Mr. Davis says, with the caution of an experienced scholar, "*I believe* means the temple of affectionate thought and practical wisdom." *Starnos* is a "beautiful mount," having on the west side of it "a celestial pavilion called by the beautiful word '*connilium.*'" *Ali-Nineka*, "the Turk, who is chief in that temple." *Apotravella*, a river flowing past it. This being a long word, Mr. Davis "obtained the pronunciation with great care." *Martillos*, wife of Ali-Nineka. The name means "morning devotion." *Zellabingen*, "a vast German association, located, in August, 1855," parallel with the rings of "Saturn with reference to the path of the sun." *Monazolappa*, an African association. *Ulcemira*, a female traveller, very beautiful and planeticose; hence, evidently the late Mrs. Ida Pfeiffer. *La Samosata*, a convent. *Archibulum*, a temple; the word means "white temple of the children." It is "a vast white flower." *Aurealia*, a class of pulsating lilies, which "represent new hopes." *Vasciel* means mind or spirit; *Plana de Alphos*, a holy brotherhood; *Voralia*, a rose; *Pantrello*, a group of hills; *Gandulea*, a flowering tree; *Zona*, a visitor; *Baskatella*, a bird.

But enough, and more. We quote one sentence, showing how this language mingles with English:

"Advance, my baskatella, for thou art our beloved Opeathalos (student), and the time future is thine to become whatso thou wilt; for thou art even now fit to stir within others the power of thought, and to meditate with the happy Paralorella (half-cured patients). The distant pantrello will invite and teach thee to comprehend thy God, hid within the fragrant voralia and the musical porilleum."

Upon pronouncing all these words in a row, it is evident that, while they are philologically remarkably pure and perfect specimens of nonsense, they are vocally evidences of a sensitive ear in Mr. Davis, being full of open vowels, liquids, and soft mutes. The talk about Greek and Latin is comical, and the interpretations as sapient as that given by the fool in "Quentin Durward" of the coat-of-arms which puzzled the gipsy Hayraddin: "This, my lords and masters, represents the cat looking out at the dairy window."

It would be a great waste of space to say all this solely about the little pamphlet before us. But many thousands of minds are all the time swallowing such east winds. What many people do is significant, whether the significance be good or bad. Such traits as are above enumerated belong more or less to the whole mass of spiritist literature, and it is better to recognize this literature and judge it justly and treat it so, than to pretend that it does not exist and to say nothing about it. So far as knowledge is concerned, or depth of thought, or truth, in fact, it is utter nothingness. The crudeness and ignorance and inconsecutiveness of its theories and reasonings, the baselessness of its accusations and assertions, the barbarousness of its conceits and devices, the cool absoluteness of its irreligion, are wonderful. But it is by no means altogether silly, nor altogether bad. Both spiritist teachings and spiritists are on the whole kindly and peaceable in demeanor and demonstration. They profess to work by love, and they assuredly do so in great measure. They belong to that school of thinkers, or rather pathetists —*feelers* is the word needed, for their mental exercises are emotion rather than thought—whose inner life is chiefly active in dreaming and wondering. Their type is a mind which instinctively believes any wonderful story because it is wonderful, without reference to the question of truth. And the great number of spiritists shows how important and powerful a radical faculty is this instinctive appetite for the marvellous, purely as such.

Readers improve. Librarians testify that those who begin with silly stories most commonly advance to better ones, to biography, essays, travels, and so on, in a rising series of really useful reading. Let the mind be awake and active, and—under American Christian civilization, at least—it gravitates upward. Spiritist literature is studied by those who neither could nor would for the time being study any better literature. In time they will leave off such pap and learn to receive the solid food of adult minds.

ANDREWS'S SOUTH SINCE THE WAR.*

THE course adopted by Mr. Andrews in the republication of these Southern letters is such that all criticism of his work as a literary performance would be out of place and unfair. It is simply that a travelling correspondent has taken the forty or fifty letters which he sent to two daily newspapers, one in Boston and the other in Chicago—letters written in the midst of fatiguing travel and mailed at short intervals of two or three days—and has thrown them into the form of a small volume.

Considered as newspaper correspondence, the letters are worthy of high commendation. The correspondent, who has been for some years connected with the press, was a New England Yankee, it seems, on a three months' trip in the Carolinas and Georgia. After reading his book one would say that he is apparently a man of intelligence, of kindly sentiments, honest, shrewd, and fair-minded. If not without some tincture of prejudice, at any rate he has no prejudices that are violent or incurable. To this fitness he adds the further qualifications for his work that he possesses the quick, observant eye of a practised reporter, the reporter's facile, if somewhat careless, pen, and the reporter's eagerness for collecting facts. In his search for useful information he sometimes shows, too, the true reporter's instinct for that particular sort of information which is useful to the newspaper editors mainly. This is pleasantly illustrated by a passage—properly italicized—which occurs on page 358. All the Washington-despatch writer is seen in it; the man who scents a coming item while yet it is weeks distant, hidden in the breast of some inaccessible secretary or committee-man; who night and day pursues his object with taciturn perseverance, baffling rival correspondents by simulated ignorance and nonchalance that conceals anxious fear; and at last, with trembling satisfaction, hours before any one else can, telegraphs intelligence that some collector is appointed or some new bill is to be introduced. It is of Alexander H. Stephens that he is speaking:

"While in Columbus, two weeks ago, I was told of a letter he wrote to a friend in that city immediately after the famous Hampton Roads conference. I tried in every way to get a sight of it, but without success. The gentleman who told me of it had read it, and used these words in respect thereto: '*He said that peace could be obtained on terms not humiliating to the South, and that it ought to be made at once, but Mr. Davis and his principal advisers did not want peace.*'"

Apparently, Mr. Andrews's chief object in making his journey was to be present at the sessions of the constitutional conventions in the three States which he visited. Nearly one-third of his pages he devotes to this subject, and the summary which he gives of the proceedings in those assemblies is exceedingly clear and far more readable than any account of them which has been printed elsewhere. This part of his book is very creditable to his abilities as a reporter. But of course he is more interesting when he treats of what he saw and heard among the people. His descriptions of the old prison-pen at Florence; of the miserable hotel at Orangeburg, with its deplorable housekeeping and dirty, shiftless landlady; of a scene in a railway car where he was snubbed and insulted by a young lady because he, being a Yankee, had presumed to think that a Southern woman would speak to him; of the attempt made in the town of Albany to lynch him—all these are so interesting in themselves as being a part of the South and of Southern society, and are so well done, as to make us regret that the incidental business of this journey was not suffered to displace the main business. The South in convention last fall was on its good behavior; our author got a somewhat truer view of it in the streets of Albany and among the Carolina planters.

The conclusions at which he arrives are those which might be expected from a New Englander, intelligent, acute, orderly, industrious, a democrat by nature and by training, and accustomed to the largest measure of liberty consistent with the requirements of law. They are drawn from an experience of only three months, and some of them, we think, may have been drawn too hastily. The problems presented by the condition of the negro, by the work of reconstruction, by the prospect of the future social life of the South, are not to be solved in haste or heedlessly. But the general correctness of the writer's opinions is amply confirmed in most points by the direct testimony, or by easy inferences from the testimony, of nearly every recent witness from that part of the country—from Lee and Stephens down to the most obscure traveller.

He "went South to study the political situation," he says; he tried to be impartial, he meant to tell the truth, and he hoped to find the truth pleasant to tell. Yet the conclusion of the whole matter is "that a very grave mistake, not to say a criminal blunder, has been committed, if the Southern

* "The South Since the War, as shown by fourteen weeks of travel and observation in Georgia and the Carolinas. By Sidney Andrews." Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866. 400 pp.

representatives have been admitted to Congress." This was written on shipboard in the first week of December last.

"It must be said that public sentiment is changing very rapidly in the South and not wholly in the right direction. The President went to the extreme limit of magnanimity, but the more he gave, the more was demanded. . . . The endorsement of President Johnson, of which so much is said in their newspapers, is merely a grateful sense of favors received."

"Any Northern man is sure to find his principles despised, his people contemned, and himself subjected to much disagreeable contumely; while any man holding and openly advocating even moderately radical sentiments on the negro question stands an excellent chance, in many counties of Georgia and South Carolina, of being found dead some morning—shot from behind, as is the custom of the country."

"The leading men generally invite immigration and are honest and sincere in their desire for the influx of new life." With the masses it is not so.

"Nine of every ten white men in South Carolina had almost as little to do with even State affairs as the negroes had. . . . Till civilization has been carried down into the homes and hearts of all classes we shall have neither regard for humanity nor respect for the rights of the citizen."

The writer has no fear that the people of the South can ever be brought to renew hostilities.

"But," he adds, "there are things quite as bad as open war; and one of these is a sullen and relentless antagonism to the idea of national sovereignty —from which will breed passionate devotion to local interests, unending persecution of the freedmen, never-ceasing clamor in behalf of State rights, and continual effort to break away from the solemn obligations of the national debt."

When one man listens to another talking politics, especially when politics are talked so emphatically as in the South, it is not hard for him to understand what the speaker thinks and what he would do if he could. But to understand the whole character and capacity of a people something more than this is necessary. One must live with them. As the New England farmers say, "Summer him and winter him, and you 'll see." Mr. Andrews's generalizations upon the negro we receive with a good deal of doubt:

"The negro loves idleness, he has little conception of right and wrong, and he is improvident to the last degree of childishness. . . . . He is anxious to learn, and is very tractable in respect to minor matters; but we shall need almost infinite patience with him, for he comes very slowly to moral comprehensions."

Of course it is among the possibilities that Mr. Andrews may be right —right in respect to the laziness, the improvidence, and all the rest. And of his good-will toward the negroes there can be no doubt; we only say that in this matter he has spoken too soon and too positively.

"The old masters," he says, "grant the negroes nothing except at the requirement of the nation, as a military or political necessity; and any plan of reconstruction is wrong which proposes to at once, or in the immediate future, substitute free will for this necessity."

We can very cordially commend these letters to the public. Much may be learned from them that it is well for all to know, and they are also entertaining. To "Dixon" himself, whose daily letters we have long read with pleasure, and whom we regard as being in many respects a model that other reporters and despatch writers would do well to copy, we would address one word of expostulation:

"Columbia is in the heart of Destruction. Being outside of it, you can only get in through one of the roads built by Ruin. Being in it, you can only get out over one of the roads walled by Desolation."

This and similar strokes, scattered, thinly scattered, we are glad to say, throughout the book, do indeed recall vividly the wild and lurid genius of George Lippard. And there was once a time when George Lippard, also, we read with pleasure. But in the prevailing soberness and sensibleness of style and matter which honorably distinguish this book from the common run of newspaper letters, do not such passages seem a little incongruous, and in themselves are they not a little ridiculous? Misplaced eloquence is bad, but misplaced magniloquence is too bad.

TWO VOICES FROM "MY MARYLAND."*

We are disposed to believe that Mr. Grant White will regret the premature publication of his "Poetry of the War" should he ever fall in with the volumes recorded below. Gen. Hayward's, to be sure, is now two years old, but, being far less elegantly printed than the other, and meant not to be sighed over by Southern dames, but to inspire the "hoarse, unfeathered nightingales" of the camp, and being withal a little careless in language and versification, we fear our Shakespearian scholar must have slighted it; for we will not assume that he overlooked it. As for Mr. De Leon's compilation, it is fresher from the press than Mr. White's. The author of the one set of songs and the compiler of the other are, we infer, both Baltimoreans, but we are spared the necessity of inferring that they took opposite sides in the late civil war—the one actively, the other at least sympathetically; and it is worthy of remark that Mr. De Leon had the delicacy to engage a Northern publisher for sentiments not always complimentary to Northern character or to the Northern purpose in accepting the gage of battle. It must be acknowledged, however, that he has toned his collection as inoffensively, perhaps, as was compatible with his desire to give it an historical value. The most stately specimen of misrepresentation is contained in "A Ballad for the Young South:"

"The saints of Cromwell rise again,
In sanctimonious hordes,
Hiding behind the garb of peace
A million ruthless swords.
From North, and East, and West, they seek
The same disastrous goal,
With CHRIST upon the lying lip
And Satan in the soul!
Mocking, with ancient shibboleth,
All wise and just restraints:
'*To saints of Heaven was empire given,*
And WE, *alone, are saints!*'"

Mr. De Leon gives vent in his preface to his astonishment at the ignorance of the North concerning the "high order of poetry" which the war evoked at the South. His careful gleaning has embraced nothing, we will allow, that is strikingly mediocre, or metrically faulty, or excessively florid, or intolerably surcharged with "chivalry." It is unfortunate, however, that some of the very best pieces are anonymous, and of that neutral description that would make them as appropriate for this as for the other side of Mason and Dixon's line, or, indeed, for any nation involved in war. The horrible suspicion will also haunt the reader that some to which the authors' names are appended have become "original" simply by the substitution of one name for another to change the local coloring. In the doubt, however, let us praise "The Burial of Latané" and "Ashby," as if they were John R. Thompson's own, and quote, from his "England's Neutrality," a paragraph from a supposed speech of Earl Russell:

"'The grim bastile, the rack, the wheel, without remorse or pity,
May flourish with the guillotine in every Yankee city,
No matter should Old Abe revive the brazen bull of Phalaris,
'T is no concern at all of ours'—(sensation in the galleries)."

And let Harry Flash (Phœbus, what a name!) dismiss us with a stanza on Jackson, in which a new claimant appears for a fashionable title:

"He entered not the Nation's Promised Land;
At the red belching of the cannon's mouth;
But broke the House of Bondage with his hand—
The Moses of the South!"

The loyal Baltimorean is an uncouth but not despicable rival of his disloyal fellow-citizen. He violates rhyme, rhythm, metre, grammar, good taste, politeness, but he writes with a hearty good-will and once in a while like a genuine bard of the people. He has adopted on his title-page the well known sentiment: "Let me write the songs of a nation, I care not who makes its laws"—which he cannot resist printing as a distich. To be frank with him, we should prefer him as a song-maker rather than as a lawgiver. Arranging his expressions as nearly as we can in chronological order, we get at his notion of the true policy on the eve of secession:

"Let us have no more agitation
About the nigger—stop cry and hue—
Then prosperity will bless this great nation,
And every happiness, too."

A little later:

"Let justice be our pride and boast,
Dividing lines be henceforth lost;
Repeal all laws that are not wise,
The South has rights no one denies.

. . . . . .

Can no compromise avail?
Shall this great Republic fail,
As transmitted by our sires?
Divide the Union—Hope expires."

At this moment, fortunately, there looms up "Kentucky's son, the statesman, patriot," and elicits the following wish and prophecy:

"May the North and the South dwell as brothers,
On Crittenden's platform stand true,
His principles never will perish,
His compromise meets every view."

And at New Year's, 1862, the gallant general could still write:

"Extremists from the South and North
From happy States brought misery forth;
And politics, great bane of all,
The first true cause of our downfall.

"Secession, abolition dire,
Blast like a wild consuming fire,

* "Camp Songs for the Soldier, and Poems of Leisure Moments. By Gen. William H. Hayward." Henry A. Robinson, Baltimore. 1864.
"South Songs: from the Lays of Later Days. Collected and Edited by T. C. De Leon." Bielock & Co., New York. 1866.

Turn men to fiends, this land to blood,
Sweep on, a devastating flood."

We like better his terms of reconstruction after Antietam:

"Let Charleston, Savannah, and every Southern city,
Hurrah!
Lay down arms, send flag of truce by a loyal committee,
Hurrah!
Beg pardon, say they 're sorry for what they 've done,
Pay the costs, shake hands, and swear allegiance at Washington."

It is in this same poem of fifty-seven stanzas, by the way, that the refrain is varied not unpleasantly to suit the historical allusion:

"Nineteenth of April, Massachusetts blood did run,
Can't hurrah over that!
John Kettlewell said it was a second Lexington,
Hurrah!
The clubs and paving-stones in showers fell thick,
Southern hospitality in the shape of a brick."

We have said that the general sometimes violates good taste and polite manners. Take the following, perhaps excusable, instance:

"We hate the sight of a rebel cuss;
From such, good Lord, deliver us."

Elsewhere he declares—

"He proved them to be most darnation liars;"

and, still more profanely,

"Kane said he be d—d if that was fair."

But we are bound to add that Gen. Hayward scrupulously prints "jack-ass" with dashes, whenever he is constrained to apply it to an individual of the *genus homo*.

As for humor, we are at small pains to find it; as in the comical lines which relate of a certain spy that

"To be crammed in a bureau in July hot season,
Was considered by the cabinet-makers misprison (*sic*) of treason."

And in this parody:

"Why should we mourn, conscripted friends,
Or quake at draft alarms?
'T is but the voice of Abraham,
To call you out to arms."

Or, borrowing our illustrations from the "Poems of Leisure Moments," and another parody contained in them:

"Here my mother washed my face,
And scrubbed my little hand;
Forgive this foolish tear,
But let that old pump stand!"

and, quite innocently, of Burns:

"Whilst some are reared in halls of state,
Pampered and feasted by the great,
Misfortune seemed his cruel fate—
An exciseman was he."

There is no poet who has not been reproached for refining and polishing away his verses, and Gen. Hayward is by this sign certainly a poet. Being not above repeating what he thinks he has written well, he prints on page 44 these lines:

"Oppression's chains cannot enslave
The patriot's sturdy arm;
We are the bosses of this land
Called Uncle Samuel's farm."

and on page 75 they re-appear slightly modified and a good deal diluted, thus:

"Oppression's chains cannot enslave
Columbia's brawny arm;
We are the *sovereigns* of this land
Called Uncle Samuel's farm."

So much for prelude. Now for proofs of a capacity to write ballads almost of the flavor of "Percy's Reliques" or the "Minstrelsy of the Scottish Border." First let us reproduce *in extenso* this feeling little poem, which stands well enough without the incident on which it was founded:

"Soldier! are you hungry?
This thing cannot be,
When you're marching—fighting
For my Flag and me;
Come with me to father,
He will treat you right,
His house is always open
To the men who fight.

"We have full and plenty,
Soldier! come along—
Bring your comrades with you,
Union right or wrong;
We that stay at home
Out of harm and danger,
Must do all we can
For the soldier stranger.

"You will find our dwelling
By the flag before it,
Father keeps it waving
So secesh may know it:
Oh! how we love that banner—
Old red, white, and blue,
Die for that, no other—
Never own the new.

"So come along to father—
He 's the soldier's friend,
He will make you welcome,
And each one you send;
Every loyal heart
Must assist each other—
The man who wears a uniform
We love as any brother."

Best of all is the story of "the patriot Ishmael Day," with which the book opens, and from which we shall take the liberty of striking the first verse and the two last verses, which mar its naturalness:

"One Monday morn, at early dawn,
The hour when good men pray,
A Rebel host, with threats and boast,
Came on to scare old Day.

"He soon had word—the noise he heard
In the distance far away,
That Gilmor's men were coming then
To capture Ishmael Day.

"That 's what 's the matter—oh, what a clatter!
I 'll keep them awhile at bay,
Till I hoist my flag, of which I brag—
Said the brave old Ishmael Day.

"On rushed the crowd, with curses loud,
Begrim'd with dust and grey;
My flag I 'll nail to the garden pale,
And die by it, said Day.

"The thieving horde came down the road—
They had no time to stay—
'Our flag is here—touch it who dare,'
Shouted old Ishmael Day.

"A trooper rushed, with whiskey flushed,
Swore he 'd take that rag away—
Let any man dare try that plan,
I 'll shoot him, says old Day.

"He feared the cock of his old flint-lock
Might miss, so this prayer did say,
That a load of buck-shot might pepper him hot
By the hands of Ishmael Day.

"On the raider came—old Day was game—
Reb swore that flag should n't stay,
With a curse and a frown, cried, down with it, down,
Bang! blazed away Ishmael Day.

"Flint-lock he could trust, for down in the dust
The traitorous rebel lay,
Crying, spare my life, I 'm tired of this strife—
So am I, said Ishmael Day.

"Now let each loyal heart in our cause take a part,
Do his duty—watch, fight, and pray,
Shoulder his gun, stand by, never run,
And imitate Ishmael Day."

This is among the few real ballads which the war has produced. If it and other of these songs were popular in camp, the Union cause owes much to their soldier author, who, in satisfying his comrades in arms, has also exacted recognition from truly critical minds. It is pleasant to be able to add that the old hero has just been voted an annuity by Congress.

THE NEW MAGAZINE.

A NEW fortnightly magazine, the "Galaxy," has just made its appearance in New York, its *raison d'être* being, we believe, partly a "divine discontent" which prevails in these parts with regard to the "Atlantic Monthly," and partly the feeling, also widely diffused, that New York ought to have a monthly of its own, no matter how good the Boston magazines may be. To us the only good reason for the existence of a magazine or of any other periodical in one place more than in another is that it can there be produced of a better quality, or that, proceeding thence, it can exercise a wider influence. The desire of particular places to have publications of their own for the glory of the thing we have no sympathy with, and nothing very good was ever born of any such feeling; but we honestly confess we think the "Atlantic Monthly" would be the better of a competitor, and that, good as it is, it would be improved by the public having something to compare it with. Whether New York is able to compete with Boston in the production of magazines, remains still to be proved, and we are very glad to see the experiment tried, and wish the publisher of the "Galaxy" all possible success in it. But we warn him that a good magazine has hardly ever flourished out of a literary atmosphere; this has still to be created in New York—perhaps will have to be created by the magazine itself. Literature is not in any great favor here, and literary men do not abound. The moneyed world, which is the ruling social influence, bestows most of its favor on art, as art is a thing much more easily cultivated and makes

much less demand upon the time, and contributes much more to ornamentation; so that a literary society has still to be made, and, until it is made by some means or other, New York magazine publishers will have a good deal to contend with. Nothing interferes more at present with the growth of good magazine writing than the popular impression that "light articles" are things that can be "thrown off," as it is called, almost without effort. There are few people who make any pretensions whatever to literary skill who do not flatter themselves that they can sit down any evening after dinner, or get up any morning an hour earlier than usual, and produce something "spicy" that any editor might be glad to get. But there never was a greater mistake. There is nothing which requires more culture, more social experience, and keener perceptions than the composition of a first-class magazine article, and the men who produce it find it no child's play.

As we consider the practice of treating the first numbers of new periodicals as fair specimens of what they are to be, and condemning or praising the enterprise accordingly, to be a very absurd one, we shall only say of the 'Galaxy" that its appearance is very attractive, the cover being a stroke of genius, and the contents look promising. The first engraving is American, by Darley, but has a most English look. The ploughman is an unmistakable English hind, taking a pot of ale, and the illustrations to "The Claverings" are, of course, foreign; the appearance of the bridegroom is pitiable. "Nebulæ," in which the editor discourses of things in general, is well written, and, altogether, we think it is safe to predict for the magazine both improvement and success.

"CAMPAIGNS OF A NON-COMBATANT."*

In this book it is possible to study exhaustively the natural history of the New York reporter. He is to be seen here nascent, developing, and fully grown, in action and in repose. Some may look upon the "Campaigns" as being not so good a manual for this purpose as the same author's account of the capture of Wilkes Booth and his description of the trial and execution of the other conspirators. But here we have him under our eye for a much longer time than we can have him there, and we get sight of more sides of his nature. For the use of careful students, the "Campaigns" is certainly to be preferred. Reading it, we see how the reporter is made. We become acquainted with his mental and moral characteristics; we learn what are his aspirations; we take the measure of his attainments; we perceive the force of his imagination, his wit, his taste, his sense and judgment, his knowledge of life, his conceptions of morality, his sense of what is decent and of what is not becoming.

The reporter is the offspring of the daily press and shares the nature and the life of his parent; his existence, to use the words of our author, "is only the fierce, fast, flippant existence of news. The day I graduated," he goes on, "saw me an *attaché* of the Philadelphia *Chameleon*. I was to receive three dollars a week and be the heir to lordly prospects." He was but eighteen years old at that time, and knew nothing of the life before him. Full of enthusiasm, fired by the example of Horace Greeley, he little suspected how soon he would become "indurated," as he puts it, and cynical, nor how good a reason he would have for becoming so. He could not foresee the manner of his life; that his love of nature, for example, to say nothing of a man's natural desire for a short vacation in the summer, it would be impossible to gratify; that "all places would be workshops—the sea-side, the springs, the summer mountains, the cataracts, the theatres, the panoramas of islet-fondled rivers speeding by strange cities." He would hardly have allowed himself to pass from the condition of an exchange-clipper to that of a full local reporter if he had known that after he had "ridden at Hoe speed down the groove of his steel pen for five years," he could give no more favorable description of his life and himself than this: "Never nepenthe, never *abandonne*, always wide-awake and watching for saliences," compelled "to go abroad like a falcon, to roam at home like a hungry jackal. Six fingers on my hand, one long and pointed and ever dropping gall; the ineradicable stain upon my thumb; the widest of my circuits, with all my adventure, a paltry sheet of foolscap; and the world in which I dwell no place for thought, or dreaminess, or love-making. Like Sinbad, to a terrible old man I have sold my youth, my convictions, my love, my life."

But though, to use a phrase of his own, this slave of the press may sometimes have repented with "the salt rheum in his eyes," generally he hugged his chain and was proud of it. The war broke out, and he was at once sent to the Army of the Potomac as special correspondent of a Philadelphia newspaper. But the reporter is not a stone that never rolls. He "sent an indiscreet paragraph to the Washington *Chronicle*," he says, "for which I was pursued by the War Department, and, the management of my paper lacking heart, I went home in a pet." Soon he used this opportunity to make his escape from what he calls "the provincial journals." New York was the goal of his desires. "It is the end of every young American's aspiration, and the New Bohemia for the restless, the brilliant, and the industrious." "The dream of many months came to be realized;" some New York paper despatched him to the front. It was a business that called for haste: "At six in the morning I embarked; at eleven I was whirled through my own city, without a glimpse of my friends; at three o'clock I dismounted at Baltimore, and at five was gliding down the Patapsco under the shadows of Fort Federal Hill and the white walls of Fort McHenry;" and he adds, "The latter defence is renowned for its gallant resistance to a British fleet in 1813, and the American national anthem, 'The Star-Spangled Banner,' was written to commemorate that bombardment." We will not follow him through the adventures of the next twelve months. That would teach us the life of a special reporter in time of war. We should learn much about "Bohemia; this roving commission, these vagabond habits, this life in the open air among the armies, the white tents, the cannon and the drums, which were my elysium, my heart." But what we are more particularly looking for now are those essential characteristics which make the reporter and are independent of time and the flux of circumstance.

These are clearly revealed. We have seen the easy way in which he can introduce the facts of history. Here is a sample of the reporter's general reflections. Some old negro women sell cakes and buttermilk to the soldiers: "Poor, mortal, sinful old women!" he moralizes, "one would have thought that they had outlived the greed of gold. But wages deferred make the dying miserly."

Here is the flight of imagination: If McClellan and Magruder had fought at Yorktown, "beautiful but awful must have been the scene. One might almost have imagined that man, in his ambition, had shut his God in heaven, and besieged him there."

And here is the description of natural scenery. Professor Lowe takes the reporter up in a balloon: "It was just seven o'clock, and the Park lay like a veined and mottled bloodstone in the red sunset. The city wilted to the littleness of a rare mosaic pin, its glittering point parting the blue scarf of the bay, and the white bosom of the ocean swelling afar, all draped with purple clouds like golden hair, in which the entangled gems were the sails of the white ships."

From the same chapter we may take a fair specimen of the true reporter's wit: "Lowe was opening a bottle of Heidsick, and three or four gentlemen with *heads sick* were opening the petals of their lips to get the afternoon dew."

Here is an animated description: "At this point he took off his glasses and wiped his face; the water was running down his cheeks like a miniature cataract, and his great neck seemed to emit jets of perspiration."

Here see his mastery of English. He rides in a railway car and "is invited to drink by many persons. But the beverage proffered was intolerably bad, and several convivials became stupidly drunk. A woman in search of her husband was among the passengers, and those contiguous to her were as gentlemanly as they knew how to be."

Hearing a profane officer talking, he remarks: "He strutted off like Bomba or the Czar. I thought I never beheld a more exceptional person in any high position."

The reporter visits a hospital, and sees "the open lips through which one could almost look at the quaking heart below, the ghastliness of brow and tangled hair; the closing pangs; the awful *quietus*. I thought of Parrhasius, in the poem, as I looked at these things:

> "Gods!
> Could I but paint a dying groan . . ."

But what shall we say of the assertion of the preface: "No man ought to let the first four years of his majority slip away unrecorded?" We never heard this maxim before. If Mr. Townsend really believes it to be true, of course he is justified in publishing this book.

FLINT'S PRACTICE.*

To the medical man erudite in the literature of his profession, or so long engaged in its practice as to depend solely upon his experience, the present book may be of less interest; but those to whose use its title-page dedicates

* "Campaigns of a Non-Combatant and his Romaunt Abroad during the War. By George Alfred Townsend." Blelock & Co. 16mo, pp. 368.

* "A Treatise on the Principles and Practice of Medicine; designed for the use of Practitioners and Students of Medicine. By Austin Flint, M.D., Professor of the Principles and Practice of Medicine in the Bellevue Hospital Medical College, and in the Long Island College Hospital; Fellow of the New York Academy of Medicine, etc." Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea. 1866. Pp. 867.

it will certainly find it a most valuable acquisition. The works on practice most in vogue in this country of late years have been that of Dr. Watson, of London, and that of Dr. Wood, of Philadelphia. The former, while it may long remain a favorite for its many excellences, and pre-eminently for the charm of its literary style, is now somewhat obsolescent. The latter, though possessed of considerable merit, especially in point of nosology, is felt by the more judicious and advanced practitioners of the present day to be, as regards treatment at least, quite erroneous and harmful. Most of the other books in use are either incomplete—for example, the excellent clinical lectures of Dr. Bennett or Dr. Chambers—or are too costly to find a place on the shelves of every medical man. So far as the student is concerned, the latter objection applies as well to extended monographs.

There has, therefore, been a generally expressed desire on the part of students and junior practitioners for a work which should be convenient for use, yet embodying the results of the later researches in pathology, and, more than all, that change in the treatment of disease which the last twenty years have effected. To meet this want, as the preface tells us, the book before us was undertaken. It makes no pretense of being an exhaustive statement of the present state of medical knowledge, but simply claims to be a practical manual. It appears to be, and doubtless is, an extension and elaboration of the course of lectures which the author, in his long career as an instructor, has found best adapted to the wants of students.

Our limits will allow but a passing glance at the contents in detail. In "Part I., The Principles of Medicine or General Pathology," morbid anatomy, blood changes, etiology, symptomatology, prophylaxis, and general therapeutics are concisely discussed. "Part II., The Practice of Medicine or Special Pathology," is divided into sections according to the various systems of the organism—*e. g.*, the respiratory, circulatory, digestive—with a final section on "fevers and other general diseases." This method is as little arbitrary as any available. Attempts have been made to found a classification upon pathology, but in the existing state of that science such arrangements shortly become unmanageable. The plan here adopted has the advantage of placing in juxtaposition the diseases between which discrimination is most likely to be required in diagnosis. The writer attempts to carry out more perfectly than is generally done the regular nomenclature of disease, and, in so doing, some time-honored names have been dismissed from service and their places filled by others more adequate.

The sections on the diseases of the respiratory and circulatory systems are especially valuable as being a succinct, clear, practical account by one qualified for this task by a lifetime of special study, and whose previous writings on these affections have gained a wide reputation. But no undue prominence has been given to these departments. The diseases of the digestive system are treated of with equal fidelity and care; and under this head is placed that disease which is now exciting so much popular interest—cholera—for which the author warmly advocates the opium treatment. In the section on the nervous system are given the essentials of what is definitely known in this intensely interesting but slightly explored field of study. The article on fevers contains an abstract of the investigations lately carried on abroad as well as in our own immediate vicinity.

The typography of the work we certainly cannot commend; not that it falls below the average of American medical books, but that it has not surpassed it. Somehow the impression appears to have taken a firm hold upon the minds of publishers that the profession cannot appreciate or does not deserve the luxuries of the typographic art. In the present instance it may be urged that to have given a clearer type or broader margin would have made the volume so large as to defeat its very object.

How to Study the New Testament. By Henry Alford, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. (Alexander Strahan, London and New York.)—The opening pages of this volume read so pleasantly that one is tempted by a doubt whether it is not as a poet rather than as a critic that the dean excels. This doubt is justified by the main part of that which follows, and yet if everything is not said wisely, everything is said in a good spirit. The first thing necessary to a faithful study of the Scriptures, we are told, is faith. We must approach the Gospels from the side of trust and love, not from that of distrust and unchristian doubt. Such statements by themselves are well enough, but with the context they too evidently mean that we must take for granted at the outset the one great question in dispute. It must be borne in mind that this book was written for the people. Dean Alford would not think of giving scholars such advice. But he should not forget that the people are becoming scholars, and will not always be put off with food that scholars could not be induced to eat. The writer would have us go to the New Testament resolved to find there nothing but the truth. But he does not indicate why this should be done. On the contrary, he makes a great many admissions which go to prove that it should not be done; but that the New Testament should be regarded, so far as criticism of it is concerned, as a purely human composition. Besides the introduction, the book contains a chapter on each of the four Gospels, three chapters on the Acts of the Apostles, two on the resurrection. The chapters on the Gospels and the Acts contain revised translations of a great many passages which in King James's version are translated incorrectly, together with an account of those readings in the best manuscripts that differ widely or considerably from the received version. These are the most valuable portions of the book. They are, in themselves, sufficient proof of what the dean asserts, viz., that we ought to have a new translation of the New Testament at least. A few years ago he thought the time for this had not arrived, but now he is convinced that there is danger in every minute of delay. "Let a commission of men learned in the Scriptures be appointed, chosen from among our different Christian denominations, with definite powers as to this weighty matter." We cannot think of any single step that would advance so much the cause of Christian truth. And it is of little use for individuals to work alone in this matter while the Church as a whole frowns upon their labors and does its best to prejudice the popular mind against them. We thank Dean Alford for his earnest word. Coming from him it cannot fail to make a good impression. And not only will his book correct a multitude of errors, but it will create a taste for further investigation. Were we not certain of this, we should regret even more than we do now that the dean has chosen to ignore so many questions the asking and the faithful answering of which would have lighted up many pages of his volume which, as at present written, are in a midnight of obscurity. The printing of the book is excellent and its whole appearance very elegant indeed.

The Lost Tales of Miletus. By Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—The title of this little volume might lead one to suppose that the gifted baronet had recovered, or believed he had recovered, the famous Milesian tales, which are now commonly reported to have been the distant progenitors of the modern novel. Such a notion would be mistaken. Sir Edward agrees that those ancient fables are hopelessly lost; but he does not despair of reproducing something like them, as Lord Macaulay, in his "Lays of Ancient Rome," hoped to reproduce something like the earliest heroic ballads of the city. Hints in regard to the character of the Milesian stories are given in many places. Some of the original myths on which they were doubtless founded are extant, in the collection of the poet Parthenius and elsewhere, while Apuleius, in the romance of the "Golden Ass," furnishes, according to our author, some idea of the manner in which the primitive rude fables were worked up in literary form. Assuming so much as fairly conceded, or concessible, Sir Edward, who is determined to leave no species of literary effort untried, goes to the repertories of ancient legend, gleans in the Scholiasts, turns over the pages of Pausanias and Athenæus; and with the help of such indications of the character and genius of the lost Milesian fables as Apuleius can furnish, weaves together a few stories "as feeble specimens of the various kinds of subject in which these ancestral tale-tellers may have exercised their faculties of invention." The stories in the volume are eight in number—all good; all interesting; some very beautiful. They are well told, too; strongly, simply, with spirit, and with not too much grace for the period in which he supposes them to have been written. The treatment is more chaste than the age he dates them at would have warranted, we think; but this is done in necessary deference to modern taste, and to the choice of subjects, which was made carefully with a view to their moral purity.

Especially noteworthy is the form in which the tales are cast. The Milesian stories were told mostly in prose, though the poetic treatment was allowed in the case of poetic themes. Sir Edward chooses the form of verse unrhymed, because rhyme would be inconsistent with the antique character which he means to preserve. But in order to obtain variety, the lines are not measured off in arbitrary lengths, as is common in blank-verse, but are broken up, on very simple principles of rhythm, into different lengths of the same measure. The effect is animated and pleasing. We forget that it is only blank-verse we are reading, and fancy that we hear the music rhyme in our ears. As specimens of the style in which the old stories may be presented to modern readers, these are excellent. The attempt deserves as much praise for its modesty as for its merit.

Asphodel. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866.)—Asphodel is the story of a widower, named Russell, who came with his little girl to stay at his friend Herbert's house on the sea-shore with Mrs. Herbert, while Herbert himself was absent on a voyage for his health. There came at the same time a friend of Mrs. Herbert, named Erminia, to teach the children and keep their mother company. Russell was a great poet, sorrowed awfully for his wife, took long walks by moonlight, and fell in love with Erminia with extraordinary rapidity, but not more rapidly than Erminia fell in love with him. But he never told his love. He simply committed his little girl Fanny to Erminia's care with a good deal of blushing and sighing, while he went to California to look after some property. While in California he fell in love with another young lady named Amy, but, by the time he proposed to her, had sent a ring to Erminia. Getting deeper and deeper into the muddle, he so mismanaged matters that Erminia arrived in California, to have a talk with him, as he was about to be married to Amy, and made her appearance at the house just as the minister was pronouncing the benediction on the newly married pair. A good deal of fainting, kissing, and shrieking followed. Amy caught cold and died of consumption. Erminia went mad, and the amiable Russell went home and passed the remainder of his days in exchanging sentimental reflections with Herbert and his wife. The story is ridiculous wherever it is not stupid. The characters are neither men nor women, and whatever they are, are contemptible, and the language we suppose must be called English, but is so stilted as in places to be scarcely comprehensible. How publishers of Messrs. Ticknor & Fields's standing were found for the work it is difficult to understand.

A Child's History of the United States. Vol. III. Part 2. History of the Great Rebellion. By John Bonner. (Harper & Brothers,

New York.)—We have not met with the preceding volumes of this series, nor are we familiar with the author's "child's histories" of Greece and Rome. We are charmed, however, with the clearness of this condensed *résumé* of the late civil war, and bear testimony to the skill with which so gigantic a story has been reduced—without violating its proportions—to so small a scale, and brought within the comprehension of the home or primary school. It is better than any similar undertaking of which we can speak. Not that it is faultless. Men, for instance, may understand, but children hardly, the description of Morgan's and Mosby's raiders—"brutal, blood-thirsty, and utterly God-forsaken scoundrels" (p. 188). An inuendo like this, however just, had better have been omitted: "I wonder if this Colonel Allen [a child-murdering] rebel will ask President Johnson for a pardon, and if he will get it." And this slang expression is indefensible, if only because of its obscurity: "The Emperor (Napoleon) . . . having an elephant of the largest size on his hands . . . in the shape of Mexico." The illustrations of this history have been carefully elaborated, and add much to the value of the text. Mr. Bonner has, we believe, succeeded in arousing such virtuous indignation in the New York *Daily News* as to determine it to begin a veritable, unprejudiced narrative of the same events for the same class of readers. It is the highest compliment he should covet.

The Idle Word. Short religious essays upon the gift of speech and its employment in conversation. By Edward Meyrick Goulburn, D.D., Prebendary of St. Paul's, etc. (D. Appleton & Co., New York.)—Our author's definition of an idle word is rather damaging to the book which he has written. An idle word is "one which does not fulfil some one of the ends which words were designed to fulfil." To prove this proposition, which it would seem might be self-evident, we have in the first place two chapters on the connection of speech with reason, than which two chapters nothing could be more unsatisfactory; then a chapter on the Trinity, in which is broached this argument for that great mystery: God is love. If God is love, he must always have been love; but if God was always love, he must always have loved something, and there must always have been some person to love. That person was the Word. The solemnity of speech is deepened very much by this consideration. The two following chapters are an attempt to wring a meaning from the Decalogue which it does not contain. The dignity of speech is next enforced by reference to the fact that language is the instrument of prophecy and sacrifice. Again, when Jesus cured the dumb spirit, he sighed. Dr. Goulburn suggests that it was because he was imposing such a responsibility. In chapter third, the doctor rises almost into eloquence when he rebukes the "spurious charity" of his generation, and pleads for a return to the good old-fashioned bigotry of ten and twenty centuries ago. The art of conversation is disposed of in a few clumsy sentences. From this book there is nothing to be learned. It was a waste of printer's ink to publish it.

The Toilers of the Sea. A Novel. By Victor Hugo. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—One cannot find fault with the enterprise which has produced this translation almost simultaneously with the appearance of the original on these shores. But why are we not allowed to read the dedication and the exegetical preface? and why is not the useful *table des matières* replaced by the equally useful *table of contents?* As for the version itself, it answers every purpose of the ordinary reader, but too often loses the finer shades of meaning. Thus, in that dramatic chapter which describes Gilliatt's putting out to sea by night, the *sententia generalis* "qui fraude guette" is clumsily narrowed into "a smuggler is necessarily a man on the look-out;" while the "ils épiaient" which follows, and which evidently was meant to adduce an instance of the general truth aforesaid, is converted into a mere apposition—"it is part of his business to watch," In the same chapter the French idiom for "to be at home" is badly rendered. Other instances of an imperfect knowledge of the language, or of an inability to handle it, are not wanting; but we need not specify them. Even one who reads French generally with ease will have found certain parts of "Les Travailleurs" so tough as to make the translator's job-work a welcome substitute for the dictionary.

The Works of the Right Hon. Edmund Burke. Revised edition. Vol. V. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston.)—This volume contains: "Observations on the Conduct of the Minority, particularly in the last Session of Parliament, 1793;" "Preface to the Address of M. Brissot to his Constituents;" "Letter to William Elliott, Esq., 1795;" "Thoughts and Details on Scarcity;" "Letter to a Noble Lord on the Attacks made upon Mr. Burke and his Pension, 1796;" and "Three Letters to a Member of Parliament on the Proposals for Peace with the Regicide Directory of France." In the first mentioned writing, Burke charges the partizans of Fox with persistently asserting that the House of Commons is not the true representative of the people, and contending for "individual representation." Every reform since his day, however, has tended to enlarge the franchise; and it is only astonishing that men like the Rev. F. D. Maurice, who are in genuine sympathy with the laboring classes, and who can not only witness this tendency about them, but might gather some reasons from our American example for not fearing it, should still be found expressing very nearly the same solicitude as Burke, who knew democracy only through the French Revolution.

Geological Sketches. By L. Agassiz. (Ticknor & Fields, Boston.)—Mr. Agassiz's contributions to the "Atlantic Monthly" are here a second time collected in book form. They are, as the author describes them, familiar talks, not scientific papers, having all the charm of his lectures except his personal delivery. But if we miss the very countenance of the professor, we have a counterfeit on steel which leaves little to be desired; and if we cannot enjoy his skilful use of the black-board, we have numerous illustrations in fac-simile which answer every purpose. A third volume, on glaciers, in addition to the three chapters on the same subject included in the present, is promised at some future time. The series will possess a high value as a means of popular instruction.

The History of Henry Esmond, Esq. 2 vols.—*The Yellowplush Papers.* By William M. Thackeray. (Leypoldt & Holt, New York; Bernard Tauchnitz, Leipzig.)—That familiar edition of British authors for which British custom-houses have no ruth when they have pounced upon it, is here disguised in wine-colored boards, for the usual paper covers. The convenient shape, the still foreign-looking imprint, remain the same; and whoever wishes these classics and their mates in a form not so flimsy as to be easily worn out, nor so elegant as to preclude frequent usage, but at once durable in the hand and ornamental on the shelf, has here or never the golden mean.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

NOTES ON THE HISTORY OF SLAVERY IN MASSACHUSETTS. By George H. Moore.—THE PRINCIPLES OF BIOLOGY. By Herbert Spencer. Vol. I. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

LAYS OF THE SCOTTISH CAVALIERS, AND OTHER POEMS. By William Edmondstoune Aytoun.—COMPARATIVE PHYSIOGNOMY; OR, RESEMBLANCES BETWEEN MEN AND ANIMALS. By James W. Redfield, M.D. W. J. Widdleton, New York.

SOUTH SONGS. From the Lays of Later Days. Collected and Edited by T. C. De Leon. Bielock & Co., New York.

THE QUEEN-MOTHER AND ROSAMOND. By Algernon Charles Swinburne.—THE SOUTH SINCE THE WAR. As shown by Fourteen Weeks of Travel and Observation in Georgia and the Carolinas. By Sidney Andrews.—ASPHODEL. Ticknor & Fields, Boston. (B. H. Ticknor, New York.)

THE GIANT CITIES OF BASHAN; AND SYRIA'S HOLY PLACES. By Rev. J. C. Porter, A.M. T. Nelson & Sons, New York.

THE BOYS AT DR. MURRAY'S. A Story of School Life. By Glance Gaylord. Graves & Young, Boston.

THE GOLD BRICK. By Mrs. Ann S. Stephens. T. B. Peterson & Bros., Philadelphia.

Science.

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

PISCICULTURE.—The States of Connecticut, Massachusetts, Vermont, and New Hampshire have a common interest in the fish which frequent, or ought to frequent, the Connecticut river. The Merrimack river should be a common fishing ground for Massachusetts and New Hampshire. The shad, alewife, and salmon are the valuable fish which used to be taken in great numbers in these rivers throughout their whole extent, but since the first decade of this century the salmon has disappeared from the Connecticut, and has gradually become extinct in the Merrimack, while the shad in both rivers have very seriously decreased. Several causes have combined to produce this unfortunate result. The chief cause has been the building of impassable dams on both rivers; subordinate causes have been the destruction of young fish by mill-wheels, the pollution of the rivers with the filth of paper-mills, tanneries, gas-works, coal-oil distilleries, chemical works, and dye and paint-works, and, for the shad on the Connecticut, the use of gill-nets at the mouth of the river, by means of which great numbers of the fish are caught on their way up the river to spawn. The States of New Hampshire and Vermont, for whom the arresting of the fish within the limits of Massachusetts and Connecticut is a pure loss without any compensating advantage, made official representations to the two latter States touching "the improvident destruction of shad in the Connecticut river." Thereupon Massachusetts appointed two commissioners to study and report upon the existing obstructions to the passage of fish up the Connecticut and Merrimack, and the possibility and expediency of re-stocking the rivers. Mr. Lyman's report, submitted to the Massachusetts Legislature in January of this year, and noted briefly by us at the time, is a most thorough, concise, instructive, and entertaining discussion of the many interesting points involved in this difficult subject.

The shad and the salmon are sea fish which go each year from the sea to fresh water to deposit their spawn, and the fact is pretty well established that the shad, like the salmon, returns always to the river in which it was hatched. The shad begin to pass up the Connecticut and Merrimack in April, spawn in May and the first half of June, and pass gradually down the rivers in the last half of June and during July. The young attain a length of three or four inches by the end of July, but they are then very delicate, so that many are destroyed in the mill-races on their passage down the rivers. The salmon come from the sea into the rivers at the same time of year as the shad, or a little later, but here the likeness between these two species stops, and their subsequent development and habits are entirely dissimilar. The shad prefer a quiet river, the salmon a pure and rapid stream; the young shad are hatched in June and return to the sea in the summer of the year in which they were hatched, but the salmon, though they enter the rivers with the shad, do not spawn till autumn, the young fish are not

hatched till late winter or early spring, and they then remain in the fresh brooks where they were born a whole year or sometimes even two years. In the spring or early summer at the end of their first or second year they go down to the sea, returning to the river again after about ninety days in the early autumn. Making but a short visit to their native brooks, they go back to the sea in two or three months, to return again to the river in the following spring. In the third spring after its birth the female is mature. The length of life of the shad is very doubtful. Good authorities incline to the belief that many shad die after spawning at the end of their first year. It appears, then, that free passage over or through all obstructions must be secured to shad, up stream in April and May, and down stream in summer, but that for salmon the passages must be open up and down stream both in spring and autumn. Salmon, however, will continue to breed, although entirely cut off from the sea; such "land-locked" salmon decrease in size, but live and flourish.

There are two modes in which salmon and shad can surmount dams. The first is by the "pass," a sloping trough up which the fish rush; the second is by the "stair," a series of steps, whereof each is a water-tank; the fish jump up from step to step, aided by the flowing sheet of water, which makes a series of little falls in its descent. The "pass" is cheaper and less likely to get out of order than the "stair," but the "stair" gives the fish chances to rest, and is, therefore, better suited to high dams and to fish of less activity than the salmon. The "pass" may be made zigzag in order to check the speed of the water and form a series of eddies, and the "stair" may be similarly modified by making the outer lip of each tank slope first to the right and then to the left, and so on, alternately. Whichever form of fish-way be adopted, a channel, deep enough and free from obstructions, must lead to its foot; and it is obvious that both the fish-way and the channel need a considerable and constant supply of water. It is possible that this water may be of more value for other purposes—for turning wheels, for example—hence an important part of the duty of the Massachusetts Fish Commissioners was to determine whether there was surplus water at Holyoke, Lawrence, and Lowell during the months when the fish-ways must be open. A fish-way should have a sheet of water eight feet wide and one foot deep. The result of their enquiry was that there would be enough water at Holyoke for the existing mills and the fish-ways, but that at Lowell either the mills or the fish-way would suffer from scarcity of water at least one day out of six. Moreover, there would be difficulty at Lowell in keeping a proper channel to the foot of the fish-way full of water, for it often happens there that no water runs over the dam, and that the bed of the river below the dam is consequently dry for some distance. In re-stocking the Merrimack with fish, therefore, a loss of mechanical power would be incurred which would affect the capitalist on the one hand and thousands of operatives on the other, to an amount for which the salmon and shad might not bring an equivalent.

With regard to the effect upon fish of the pollution of the rivers with the refuse of factories of all kinds, the commissioners make several interesting points. They prove that the shad were actually driven away from Lawrence by the filth emptied into the river by the great dye and print works there; yet when they collected samples of water from the river at various points, endeavoring to secure the maximum pollution in each case, and submitted these samples to chemical analysis, they found but a small proportion of soluble matters, and these matters were not poisonous, but only harmless salts of iron, lime, and ammonia. Chemical analysis, however, is no great help in such a case. It cannot detect the mysterious something in earth, air, or water which spreads an epidemic disease; it cannot find anything beyond the normal constituents in air in which our senses perceive a thousand odors; the greater part of flavors, strong enough to our palates, entirely elude the clumsy instruments and methods of analysis; it cannot tell good wine from bad or genuine brandy from artificial. Chemical analysis, then, is no guide in investigating the fine questions of animal likes and dislikes. The chemical research does, however, prove that the deleterious substances which are discharged into the rivers are precipitated or decomposed with surprising rapidity, and that the water soon regains its normal purity, so far as the eye or chemical analysis can judge. The dye-houses and print-works discharge arseniates, sulphuric acid, chloride of lime, soap, copper salts, and many other substances injurious to fish, but these substances mutually decompose and destroy each other, and in a few moments from the time of discharge into the river they become so diffused through the whole body of water as to defy detection by the ordinary processes of analysis. The commissioners speak of the shiftless practice of throwing into the rivers much refuse from factories which, if rightly used, would have a real value, such as the lime from paper-mills and the soap-suds from woollen mills. A fair stream is a mechanical power and a lavatory, but it should not be a common sewer. If the pollution of the rivers could be confined to the moderate amount resulting from the use of the water for washing purposes, the difficulty of re-stocking large rivers with fish would be very much diminished, if not entirely removed. The commissioners recommend the construction of plank screens in the rivers opposite each race-way which discharges dirty water, in order to prevent the foul water from flowing into the middle of the river and so corrupting the whole stream; they also think that to prevent effectually the poisoning of the rivers, paper-mills, tanneries, gas-works, coal-oil distilleries, chemical works, and dye and print works must be forbidden, under legal penalties, to cast their refuse into running streams.

But if fish-ways should be constructed to enable salmon and shad to surmount the dams on the Merrimack and Connecticut, and if, also, the pollution of the rivers should be prevented by legal enactments, would these measures suffice to ensure the re-stocking of these rivers with salmon and shad? To this question the commissioners answer, that in all probability they would not. The instinct of these fish is to return to their breeding-beds, not to go beyond them. Now there are no salmon in either river, and the breeding-beds of the shad are below the dams. There is, however, a simple remedy for this difficulty—live shad can be carried up above the dams and salmon could be bred at the headwaters of the two rivers. But again, the best fish-ways and the most extensive breeding of the young fry would avail little without strictly enforced laws to regulate the time and manner of fishing. There should be at least two days in the week when all fishing should be forbidden, weirs and gill-nets should be interdicted, and the length and depth of seines and the size of their meshes should be established by law. To enforce such laws fish wardens would be necessary.

Though the results of this investigation apply directly only to two New England rivers, yet it is clear that the principles developed will, in the near future, be applicable to all our water courses which are used for manufacturing purposes. The preservation of game—whether fish, flesh, or fowl—in democratic communities presents difficulties which seem well-nigh insuperable. In truth, the preservation of game is probably not for the greatest good of the greatest number, or, if it be, the greatest number do not see it. At all events, it is obviously impossible to obtain from four different States, having different interests in the matter, such legislation as the Massachusetts commissioners assert to be essential for the preservation of fish in the Merrimack and Connecticut. As large rivers are apt to be boundaries, or to extend beyond the limits of a single State, this difficulty will be likely to recur.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Saturday Evening, April 21, 1866.

A FURTHER small improvement in trade was developed this week. Staple goods, leading articles of grocery, and some descriptions of produce are moving more briskly, though the sales of jobbers still fall below their anticipations, and prices show no material recovery. In the country, people are still unwilling to buy except from hand to mouth. But, of course, in a very short time stocks will run so low that new purchases to replenish will become necessary, whatever the price of gold may be.

Gold remains pretty steady between 126½ and 127¼. This evening it closed at 126¾. It has again become very scarce in consequence of the large accumulation in the Sub-Treasury and the heavy sales of the bears. As much as ¼ of 1 per cent. has been paid more than once this week for the use of gold for a single day. At this rate, the endurance of the bears will soon be exhausted. No man can afford to sell gold short if it costs him 1½ per cent. a week to keep it out. As soon as the bears buy to cover, the bulls, who are hoarding gold for the purpose of keeping it scarce, will sell, and the premium will decline. On the 1st proximo the Government will disburse the interest on 5-20 bonds, and the supply in market will probably be fully equal to the demand. There are operators in the market, however, who believe that gold will not decline materially this year. They argue that there has been no attempt to contract the currency as yet, and that there is no certain sign that there will be any contraction; that, on the contrary, the volume of paper money is actually increasing, by reason of the issues of the National Banks; that we are apparently no nearer specie payments than we were six months ago, and yet gold has declined within that period from 148 to 126; that so far as the temper of the people can be ascertained from the action of their representatives in Congress, there is a general unwillingness to contract the currency for the purpose of restoring specie payments; and that with $850,000,000 of paper money afloat, a premium of 25 to 28 per cent. on gold is not at all excessive. These views are held by leading men in the Gold Room, who for some time have found it highly profitable to hold gold and lend it out at ⅛ to ¼ per cent. a day. Without endorsing or assenting to the argument, we may add that the advance in 5-20 bonds abroad to 74 (per *Persia*), which many operators regarded as likely to cause a fall in gold on this side, was wholly due to purchases in the London market for American account. At present prices of gold and 5-20s here and abroad, there is a considerable profit on their importation from Europe, and though the quantity imported is not likely to be large enough to affect the price here, it will not do to count too surely on a fall in gold here on advices of a further advance in bonds in the London market. Exchange is rather firmer than it was. We quote bankers' sterling bills at 107¾. This rate is considerably below the point at which gold can be profitably shipped as a remittance. The future course of the exchange market mainly depends on the supply of cotton from the South and the wants of the importers. Exchange brokers say that the importers, relying upon the pledge given by Congress in December last, that measures would be taken to contract the currency, have generally deferred their remittances to the other side, and have used their bankers' credits to an unusually large extent. If this be so, these importers will naturally enter the market as buyers between this and 1st June, and if the Southern supply of cotton should fall off, as many expect, we may see exchange advance to 109 again. If, on the other hand, the importers have remitted at the low rates of exchange, as they claim to have done, or if cotton should continue to come in from the South in large quantity, the rate may decline in June even below present figures.

The Secretary of the Treasury has given notice that after May 1st the interest allowed on clearing-house certificates will be reduced to 4 per cent. On other temporary deposits the interest has not yet been reduced, but the reduction cannot long be delayed. Money has consequently fallen in value to 4 to 5 per cent. on call, and many look for a steady 4 per cent. market throughout the summer. This will depend on the action of the Treasury Department. If a loan be offered to fund the interest-bearing legal tender, many institutions which are now using them in the double capacity of investments and reserve will be forced to supply their place with plain legal tender, and for a time another "scramble for greenbacks" may ensue. So general is the conviction that both the compound legal tender and the 7.30 notes are going to be funded, that the former have risen to within ¼ per cent. of their face value, with accumulated interest, and the latter to a price which renders them relatively dearer than the 5-20s into which they are convertible! Nothing has transpired with regard to the nature of the expected new loan. Advocates of a 5 per cent. long loan, and of new 6 per cent. 5-20 bonds, are pressing their rival schemes upon public notice in the newspapers, but it is not yet known which side is favored by the Secretary. Possibly, by the time these lines are printed, some light may have been shed on the subject, unless, indeed, Mr. McCulloch should have determined to await the adjournment of Congress before acting.

The course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets has been as follows during the week:

	April 14.	April 21.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅞	106	1⅛	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103¾	104⅞	1⅛	...
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103⅞	104⅞	1	....
10-40 Bonds	92	93⅜	1⅜	....
7.30 Notes, second series	100¾	101⅞	1⅛	....
New York Central	92½	93	⅜	....
Erie Railway	72½	73⅝	1	....
Hudson River	109 ex. d.	109	....	....
Reading Railroad	104¼	104	....	¼
Michigan Southern	80	82⅛	2⅛	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	79¾	81¼	1½	....
Chicago and North-western	26⅞	26⅞	....	....
" " " Preferred	55¼	57¾	2½	....
Chicago and Rock Island	119½	121½	2	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	91¾	97⅜	6¼	....
Canton	52⅜	52⅝	⅜	....
Cumberland	44¼	44½	⅜	....
Mariposa	13	11½	....	1½
American Gold	126¾	126¾	⅜	....
Bankers' Bills on London	107¾	107¾	⅛	....
Call Loans	5	5	....	....

The stock market has been generally inactive this week, with spasmodic movements in clique stocks. Fort Wayne has been taken in hand by a vigorous party of bulls, and the shorts have been compelled to cover at a heavy loss. The advance is 6 per cent. for the week and 10 per cent. within three weeks. Nothing in the condition of the road or the prospect of its earnings justifies the advance. But money is so easy, and, for the sake of making interest, bankers are willing to lend on so slender a margin, that nothing is easier than to buy a large block of this or that stock, and frighten the bears into covering their contracts. It is not unlikely that the next dividend on Fort Wayne may be a semi-annual one of 4 per cent., instead of a quarterly one of 2½. Northwest preferred and Michigan Southern are both higher on speculative purchases. The annual report of the latter company has made its appearance, and develops a floating debt of over half a million. In the face of this indebtedness, it seems to have been the intention of the directors—who are large holders of the common stock—to pay a dividend thereon out of moneys derived from the sale of bonds. The scheme was nipped in the bud. A number of holders of guaranteed stock, who refused to acquiesce in the compromise with the common stockholders,

applied for and obtained an injunction which will effectually prevent the declaration of a dividend at present. This places the directors in an embarrassing position, as they cannot sell their stock for fear of being ousted from the direction at the coming election. An active movement has taken place in Quicksilver, which at one time this week sold as high as 58. It closes to-night at 51. Various opinions are expressed with regard to the value of the property, but its old friends seem to be chary of dealing in it. The Bank of California has bought all the quicksilver in the hands of the company at a moderate price. Erie continues to flutter between 72 and 74, with fluctuations rapid enough to satisfy the most ardent gambler. The annual report, now overdue, is not forthcoming, and the bears argue that the delay means that the directors have nothing pleasant to say. The speculative director, so well known in Wall Street, is popularly supposed to be short of the stock. But if he be short, there are others in the Street, with perhaps as long purses as he, who are long of it, and it would be hard to say to which side victory is likely to incline. In the end, of course, the stock must sell at much lower prices.

A large and well distributed business was done this week in Governments. Old 5-20 bonds have sold as high as 105, and the 7.30 notes at 102. This would seem to indicate that neither the public nor the large dealers in Governments are afraid of large receipts of bonds from Europe. In the extreme abundance of money, and with the uncertainties of the future, capitalists can find no better way of disposing of their money than in the purchase of Governments, and they are thus being quietly absorbed.

HOME
INSURANCE COMPANY
OF NEW YORK,
OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital,	**$2,000,000 00**
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865,	**3,765,503 42**
Liabilities,	**77,901 52**

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND
INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.
CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE
AND
TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,
243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,
EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,
Issues
LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,
And Ensures Against
ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for $3,000, with $15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, $25 for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.
A. S. MILLS, Secretary.
T. B. VAN BUREN, Treasurer.
S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.
J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

Insurance Scrip.
WILLIAM C. GILMAN,
46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,
BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE
ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.
MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY
37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.
CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.
ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS	$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against
DISASTER BY FIRE
At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the
PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,
pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby
(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)
of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor; thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed
FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,
the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.
☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.
NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.
ASHER TAYLOR, President.
H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

PACIFIC
MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,
TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,240

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.
ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.
THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,
BROOKLYN, N. Y.
OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President.
PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

THE
MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,
COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.
JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.
CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE
Issued on the most Favorable Terms.
EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
ABRAM M. KIRBY, Vice-President.
ELLIS R. THOMAS, Secretary.

1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64—	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66—	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34—	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same		$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions		20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium		58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies		190,691 40	
Paid Annuities		10,242 55	
Paid Taxes		38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses		174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums		334,255 12—	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank		$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages		7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)		4,468,921 25	
Real Estate		782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents		36,599 14—	$14,112,349 85
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due		$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid		5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received		655,844 30—	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

LIFE, ENDOWMENT, SURVIVORSHIP ANNUITY, and all other approved Policies are issued by this Company.

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ISAAC GREEN PEARSON,	GEORGE S. COE,
WILLIAM BETTS,	WILLIAM K. STRONG,
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LUCIUS ROBINSON,	JOHN E. DEVELIN,
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SAMUEL E. SPROULLS,	RICHARD A. McCURDY,
RICHARD PATRICK,	FRANCIS SKIDDY.

RICHARD A. McCURDY, VICE-PRESIDENT.

ISAAC ABBATT, THEO. W. MORRIS, } SECRETARIES. SHEPPARD HOMANS. ACTUARY.

FRED. M. WINSTON, CASHIER.

WILLIAM BETTS, LL.D., HON. LUCIUS ROBINSON, HON. ALEX. W. BRADFORD, } COUNSEL.

MINTURN POST, M.D., ISAAC L. KIP, M.D., } MEDICAL EXAMINERS.

F. RATCHFORD STARR, General Agent for the States of Pennsylvania and Delaware, PHILADELPHIA, PA.

H. B. MERRELL, General Agent for the States of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota, DETROIT, MICH.

HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

JNO G. JENNINGS, General Agent for the State of Ohio, CLEVELAND, O.

JNO. T. CHRISTIE, General Agent for Central New York, TROY, N. Y.

STEPHEN PARKS, General Agent for Western New York, present address TROY, N. Y.

JAMES A. RHODES, General Agent for Southern New York, 157 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

O. F. BRESEE, General Agent for the State of Virginia, RICHMOND, VA.

L SPENCER GOBLE, General Agent for the State of New Jersey, NEWARK, N. J.

H. S. HOMANS, General Agent for the State of California, SAN FRANCISCO, CAL.

THE MEDICAL EXAMINERS OF THE COMPANY ARE AT THE OFFICE DAILY FROM 10 A.M. TO 3 P.M.

NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over - - - - - - - - -	$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over - - - - -	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - -	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - -	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - -	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force.

Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

We refer to the Massachusetts and New York Insurance Commissioners' Reports for 1864 and 1865 as an evidence of the Safety, Reliability, and Unparalleled Success of the Union Mutual.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

☞ Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

JAY COOKE,
WM. G. MOORHEAD,
H. D. COOKE,

H. C. FAHNESTOCK,
EDWARD DODGE,
PITT COOKE.

JAY COOKE & CO.,

BANKERS.

In connection with our houses in Philadelphia and Washington, we have this day opened an office at No. 1 Nassau Street, corner of Wall Street, in this city.

Mr. EDWARD DODGE, late of Clark, Dodge & Co., New York, Mr. H. C. FAHNESTOCK, of our Washington House, and Mr. PITT COOKE, of Sandusky, Ohio, will be resident partners.

We shall give particular attention to the PURCHASE, SALE, and EXCHANGE of GOVERNMENT SECURITIES of all issues: to orders for purchase and sale of STOCKS, BONDS, and GOLD, and to all business of National Banks.

JAY COOKE & CO.

MARCH 1, 1866.

The Nation:

A Journal of Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

THIS journal will not be the organ of any party, sect, or body. It will, on the contrary, make an earnest effort to bring to the discussion of political and social questions a really critical spirit, and to wage war upon the vices of violence, exaggeration, and misrepresentation by which so much of the political writing of the day is marred.

The criticism of books and works of art will form one of its most prominent features: and pains will be taken to have this task performed in every case by writers possessing special qualifications for it.

It is intended, in the interest of investors, as well as of the public generally, to have questions of trade and finance treated every week by a writer whose position and character will give his articles an exceptional value, and render them a safe and trustworthy guide.

TERMS:—Six Dollars per annum, in advance; Six months, Four Dollars. When delivered by Carrier in New York or Brooklyn, Fifty Cents additional.

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PUBLISHER,
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GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

Celebrated Gold Medal

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,
AND
CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

E. REMINGTON & SONS,
MANUFACTURERS OF
REVOLVERS, RIFLES,
MUSKETS, AND CARBINES,
For the United States Service. Also,
Pocket and Belt Revolvers,
REPEATING PISTOLS,
RIFLE CANES, REVOLVING RIFLES,
Rifle and Shot Gun Barrels, and Gun Materials sold by Gun Dealers and the Trade generally..

In these days of housebreaking and robbery, every house, store, bank, and office should have one of

REMINGTONS' REVOLVERS.

Parties desiring to avail themselves of the late improvements in pistols, and superior workmanship and form, will find all combined in the new

REMINGTON REVOLVERS.

Circulars containing cuts and description of our Arms will be furnished upon application.

E. REMINGTON & SONS,
ILION, N. Y.
MOORE & NICHOLS, Agents,
40 Cortlandt Street, New York.

Copartnership Notice.

The undersigned have associated, under the firm title of OLMSTED, VAUX & CO., for the business of furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Buildings and Grounds, and other Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

CLOTHING.

AN ENTIRE NEW STOCK FOR SPRING,

THE LARGEST, THE FINEST, AND THE CHEAPEST

IN THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

DEVLIN & CO.,

Broadway, Cor. Grand St.
Broadway, Cor. Warren St.

Removal.

WILLIAM GALE, JR.,
late
WM. GALE & SON,
SILVERSMITH,
487 BROADWAY, cor. BROOME ST., NEW YORK,
Will remove about the 1st of May temporarily to
590 Broadway, Metropolitan Hotel,
while the premises
572 & 574 Broadway, Metropolitan Hotel
(which will be ready in July),
are being prepared for permanent occupancy.

HOME FOR INVALIDS,
ESTABLISHED IN 1847,
BY E. E. DENNISTON, M.D.,
At Springdale, Northampton, Mass. Number limited to Forty.

Aware of the principles Dr. Denniston proposes conducting it upon, we are induced to recommend his establishment for the treatment of Chronic Diseases of various kinds. We believe it contains all the advantages of similar establishments, and have confidence in the skill and judgment, experience and prudence, of Dr. D. to direct the application of the various remedial treatment according to the exigencies of the individual cases.

J. C. Warren, M.D., John Ware, M.D.,
Geo. Hayward, M.D., J. M. Warren, M.D.,
Edw. Reynolds, M.D., M. I. Perry, M.D.,
Jacob Bigelow, M.D., J. Homans, M.D.

BOSTON, February 29, 1848.

Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D.
" Brooklyn, C. L. Mitchell, M.D.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.

THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,
STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

T. G. SELLEW,
MANUFACTURER OF DESKS AND OFFICE FURNITURE,
107 FULTON ST., near Nassau St., N. Y.
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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, MAY 1, 1866. NO. 44.

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Topics of the Day.

THE Reconstruction Committee have at last produced a "plan," and we confess we doubt very much whether they have strong hopes of its adoption. It consists of an amendment to the Constitution and two bills. Of the adoption of the former there does not seem much probability. The section which disfranchises for four years to come all who "have voluntarily adhered to the late insurrection or given it aid or comfort" could, in our opinion, never be enforced, even if adopted. Who would exclude so large a mass of the population from the polls throughout the length and breadth of the South, and what should we gain by their exclusion, supposing we could effect it? The bills are better, but are only bills. They most properly disqualify for office, for ever, all the high ex-officials of the Confederacy. There is not a word about the suffrage to be found anywhere, which, considering who the majority of the committee are, must be due to sheer want of confidence in the public. We fear there is now little hope of anything till the people have spoken at the fall elections.

THE report of the Judiciary Committee on the liberty taken by the Secretary of the Treasury and by the Postmaster-General in dispensing with the oath prescribed by act of Congress for office-holders in the Southern States, makes some strange and irritating revelations. There is no question that, in a large majority of cases, Union men at the South would serve the Government more faithfully than ex-rebels, and that the applications of the former for places for which they were no doubt as competent as anybody else have in a large number of cases been passed over. But the *Evening Post* in discussing the matter has, in our opinion, overlooked one or two very important considerations. Government offices are not, and ought not to be, bestowed as rewards for any kind of service on anybody whose fitness is not incontestable, and they ought not to be talked of as rewards. There is no more fertile source of corruption than the habit the public has got into of so regarding them; and though we cannot excuse the lawlessness of dispensing with the oath, we sincerely hope that in making appointments at the South regard will be had rather to the efficiency of the service the candidate is likely to render, than to anything he has either done or suffered in the past. The case of Mr. Gier, of which so much has been said, undoubtedly seems a hard one; but it ought not to be forgotten that the office of assessor of internal revenue is an inquisitorial, odious, and vexatious one in itself, and that it would be made more so if filled by a man who was, as Mr. Gier would probably be, obnoxious to the great body of his neighbors. It is sad, no doubt, that such a man should be obnoxious for such reasons, but in governing men we have to take them as we find them; and while we are in favor of enforcing justice at the South to the last hair's-breadth, we are not in favor of harassing or irritating the population for the mere purpose of supplying the handful of Union men with Government offices—things which most men are far better without.

PROVOST-MARSHAL-GENERAL FRY has just submitted to the Secretary of War a report of the operations of his Bureau. The preface of the report has found its way into print, and contains some valuble information. We learn from it that a full and exact enrolment of all men in the loyal States liable to military duty showed an aggregate number of 2,254,063, not including 1,000,516 soldiers actually under arms. The average cost of recruiting a man before the establishment of the Bureau was $34 01; afterwards the cost was reduced to $9 84. It appears that the Bureau has cost the Government nothing, but by its own operations in conformity to law has raised more than $26,000,000, out of which it has defrayed all its expenses, and has a balance of more than $9,000,000. The whole number of officers and enlisted men who were killed outright, or who died of wounds received in battle, was 96,089. Nearly double this number, 184,659, died of disease or accident, and the total loss in service was 280,739 men and officers. 76,526 men who had deserted were arrested by officers of the Bureau and returned to their place in the ranks. General Fry praises his district provost-marshals, surgeons, and other subordinates, and recommends that the system of recruiting which the Bureau established be permanently adopted.

THE cholera on the ships quarantined at this port, which has been of an extremely virulent type, is abating, having, it is hoped, nearly run its course among those on board. It does not yet appear on shore. The Health Commission has published a bulletin of advice substantially agreeing with the views presented in our article of last week. The Governor of the State has issued a "Proclamation of Peril," which confers very extraordinary powers upon the Board, including authority "to make such expenditures, incur such pecuniary obligations, and borrow such money" as it may deem to be needful. Rarely in free countries has any body of men been so completely trusted in a matter of such terrible importance to the citizens.

IN the last number of THE NATION we gave a synopsis of an able pamphlet which attempts to show that the power of removal from office without a cause is not a power which the Constitution vests in the President alone. We took occasion then to point out the important practical bearings of this question of rotation in office both upon public morality, which under its influence tends to become corrupted and debased, and upon the Government, which tends to grow too strong for popular freedom, while it grows inefficient for the public service. It would be a cause of satisfaction to learn that Congress intended to take this matter into consideration. Meantime we trust that the Philadelphia *Press* is not mistaken in saying that a certain Indiana postmaster, recently removed, means to keep his office till the Senate confirms his successor. Thus, very probably, the question may be brought into court and settled judicially. The President has now begun to slaughter his radical subordinates. There bids fair to be a war of giants between him and the Senate on the whole subject.

THE New York *Times* requests the particular attention of its readers to an article that recently made its appearance in a newspaper published at Auburn, the home of Secretary Seward. It is a survey of the political situation, and whoever may be its author it reaches some remarkable conclusions. How shall we get security that the late rebels will not rebel again? That, the article declares, is the vital question before Congress and the people. Can it be exacted from rebels as individuals? No; for some of them have been pardoned by the President, and many of them are paroled soldiers; and on the whole it is impossible by any

constitutional method to obtain guarantees for the good behavior of rebels as individuals. Consider them in their collective capacity, then, as States; can such guarantees be extorted? No. They are States in the Union; the Federal Government therefore has no way of obtaining any guarantees except by a constitutional amendment, and a constitutional amendment of that kind would not be ratified by three-fourths of the States. Direct means failing, is it possible to exact securities by any indirection? To obtain them in that way is as impossible as to obtain them in the other. There are some men, to be sure, who do think it possible. Some men would exclude the Southern States from representation until they so amended their constitutions as to declare the Union of States perpetual, and some men would go further—would exclude also the Southern vote for president and vice-president, and would resist by force the election of a president and vice-president by the united vote of the Southern people and the Northern Democratic party. But no such policy would make the future secure. Alexander H. Stephens "has said distinctly that the Southern people have complied with all the terms originally offered them, and all which Congress had the right to impose." It may reasonably be expected, then, that in 1868 the South will choose electors of president and vice-president, and if it should so happen that these electoral votes, together with those of the Northern Democrats, "are enough to elect a president and vice-president, and they are not allowed, there will be political trouble of a very formidable character," and with President Johnson in command of the military the candidates so elected could not be kept out of office.

General Canby, in Louisiana, and General Ruger, in North Carolina, have recently brought the military power of the Government into collision with the judicial authority. Gee, the Salisbury jailor, is on trial in Raleigh before a military commission, and a writ of habeas corpus taken out in his behalf was disregarded by General Ruger, who still holds his prisoner and will not himself submit to arrest for contempt. The contempt committed by General Canby lay in preventing the execution of a writ of sequestration obtained against five hundred bales of cotton by the U. S. Treasurer. He suffered himself to be arrested. No doubt in the end both of these cases will go before President Johnson and his cabinet. It is to be hoped that we shall then have some authoritative decision that will prevent these conflicts of authority, which, since the Peace proclamation, bid fair to become numerous, and which are so unprofitable and so exasperating to all concerned in them.

It is noted that the proportion of gold received at San Francisco which comes from individuals instead of joint-stock companies is quite rapidly increasing, which is considered an indication that the mines are being worked more in the way of a regular and well-ordered business and less merely speculatively than heretofore.

The pork disease is acknowledged to be common in the West. A thorough scientific and commercial report upon it has been published at Chicago. The views taken are similar to those published some time since in our Scientific Notes.

Head-Centre Stephens has stated in Paris that he is coming to America in order to bring back with him an army of 200,000 men, which he understands to be in readiness here. We presume his arrival will stimulate the subscriptions of money, which lately began to fall off, but the army must be concealed in some out-of-the-way place, as we believe even the police have not heard of it. Whenever it is discovered, it will be the duty of the United States Marshal to take it into custody.

The *Neues Fremdenblatt* contains what purports to be the particulars of an alliance defensive and offensive between Prussia and Italy, in view of the impending war between the former and Austria. The treaty is in all points so exactly what Italy most desires, that we cannot help doubting the whole story, and we doubt more particularly whether Napoleon will sit by and see any such arrangement carried out without having more to say in the matter than either of the "high contracting" parties will care to hear.

CONGRESS.

Washington, April 28, 1866.

There are unmistakable symptoms of a very acrimonious contest between the President and the Senate upon the question of the official patronage of the Government. The issue has been precipitated by many recent removals of postmasters, internal revenue collectors, etc., of the radical Republican order, to make way for officers of the conservative or Johnson school of opinion. The President, who is not thought to be spontaneously proscriptive, and has held back from making these removals much longer than was commonly expected, has at length been urged into it by a combination of personal and political influences, the main strength of which is found in the argument that he must sustain his policy by his official patronage, if he would see that policy succeed. These new appointments are not being confirmed by the Senate, which claims its full share in the appointing power, and refuses to sanction removals made for no other reason than hostility to the President's policy. Already the fruits of this controversy are manifest in a proposition in the Senate to attach to an appropriation bill a denial of salary to all such new appointees as the Senate does not confirm. But this is a game which both sides can play at, and when once the work begins of loading down the appropriation bills with the points of political difference between the Executive and Congress, it can only end in embarrassing the wheels of Government, without settling the matters in controversy.

DIARY.

Monday, April 23, 1866.—In the Senate, Mr. Wade introduced a bill to repeal the act of 1846 retroceding Alexandria, in the District of Columbia, to Virginia. A bill granting bonds to the State of Nevada for educational purposes was passed. Also a bill to regulate the pay department of the navy. The post-office appropriation bill was considered. Mr. Henderson moved an amendment, providing that postmasters and other civil officers appointed by the President without the consent of the Senate shall draw no salary. A long debate ensued on the appointing power of the President.

In the House, the Committee on the District of Columbia was instructed to enquire and report as to the expediency of establishing the eight hour system by act of Congress in the District. Mr. Wilson, from the Judiciary Committee, made an adverse report on the President's message, recommending a modification of the test oath of July 2, 1862. A joint resolution, authorizing the President to enforce such orders of quarantine to prevent the spread of the cholera in the United States as he may deem proper, was passed. The bill to re organize the army of the United States was discussed and amended.

April 24.—In the Senate, the motion to reconsider the vote by which the Senate rejected the bill admitting Colorado to the Union was discussed at length by Messrs. Sumner and Guthrie against the motion to reconsider, and by Messrs. Stewart and Nye in its favor.

In the House, the bill for the construction of a ship canal around Niagara Falls was discussed by Mr. Hulburd in its favor and Mr. J. M. Humphrey against it. The army bill was again debated at length. An amendment providing for the discontinuance of the Provost-Marshal-General's Bureau was adopted. The bill granting lands to the Iowa and Missouri State Line Railroad Co., also the bill to secure the speedy construction of the Northern Pacific Railroad, were debated.

April 25.—In the Senate, the motion to reconsider the vote rejecting the admission of Colorado was debated by Messrs. Lane, Williams, Howard, and Cresswell in its favor, and by Messrs. Doolittle, Hendricks, Edmunds, and Johnson against it. The motion to reconsider was carried—yeas, 19; nays, 13. The bill being before the Senate, Mr. Sumner offered an amendment, prohibiting any denial of the elective franchise in Colorado on account of color or race. Rejected—yeas, 7; nays, 27. The bill to admit Colorado as a State to the Union was then passed—yeas, 19; nays, 13.

In the House, a bill imposing a duty on live animals imported was passed. Mr. Morrill, from the Committee on Ways and Means, reported a bill to amend the internal revenue acts. Made a special order for May 3. The bill to secure the completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad was again debated at length.

April 26.—In the Senate, House bill to authorize all railroads to carry freight and passengers between the States on equal terms, was opposed by Messrs. Morrill, McDougall, and Johnson. A bill was passed, appropriating $4,200,000 per annum to defray expenses of the collection of customs. A petition from citizens of New York for the expulsion of Senator Davis, of Kentucky, he having declared himself an enemy of the Government, was referred.

In the House, a bill extending the jurisdiction of the court of claims was passed. Bills were passed to remit certain duties, to facilitate the settlement of the accounts of the United States Treasurer, and for the relief of paymasters of the army. The Northern Pacific Railroad bill was discussed at length.

April 27.—In the Senate, the bill for the relief of sundry naval contractors was amended so as to pay them twelve per cent. additional on their contracts, and passed—yeas, 22; nays, 11. Mr. Wilson opposed a constitutional amendment, prohibiting payment for slaves or for rebel war debts; basing representation on number of inhabitants, after deducting those excluded from suffrage; and admitting such States lately in rebellion as adopt this amendment to representation in Congress without delay. Adjourned to April 30.

In the House, a resolution was passed calling on the President for a collation of the laws and constitutional provisions as to freedmen of the States late in rebellion. The bill to secure the speedy completion of the Northern Pacific Railroad was again

discussed, and on motion of Mr. Spalding the bill was laid on the table—yeas, 76; nays, 56.

April 28.—The Senate was not in session. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Scofield, Higby, Harding, of Kentucky, and Finck. Adjourned to April 30.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE assistant-commissioner for Florida reports that the demand for labor is so great that planters are compelled to pay good wages and treat their hands well in order to get and keep them upon their plantations, and that the unsalaried agents (civilians) are performing their duties in a satisfactory manner. At Fernandina the ex-rebel Finnegan is trying hard to oust Miss Merrick and her orphan asylum from what was formerly his residence. The National Freedmen's Relief Association assert that the property is theirs by purchase at a tax sale, and that the Treasury Department has confirmed their title by declaring this sale a valid one. The claimants maintain that the sale was invalid. Along the Suwanee River, the agent for Madison County says he found a number of freedmen cultivating the land for themselves, doing, besides, an occasional day's work at lumbering, which he considered the nearest approach to the free labor system of the North of anything he had seen in that State.

General Baird reports from Louisiana that many of the planters refuse to enter into contracts under the auspices of the Bureau. Amongst the obstacles to the success of the Bureau in this State are the so-called "Labor Laws" recently passed by the Legislature, and which the governor declared he would not approve. If these laws are enforced, it will leave the colored people in a state to which slavery itself would almost be preferable. They confine the negroes to the plantation where they are employed; do not permit another planter to offer them better wages; give them ten days to find a new home after the expiration of his contract. "Should he be unable, during that brief period, to find an employer willing to give him fair terms, or be caught *in transitu* to his place of employment, he becomes a vagrant and is put by the State authorities at compulsory labor for a year." The laws also permit the employer to disarm the employee. The excessive demand for labor is a natural corrective of this legislation. There are in the State 114 schools, 233 teachers, 13,000 pupils (colored). The issue of rations to both white and black for the month of January amounted to 932 freedmen, 24 refugees, and 89 teachers and employees in the schools.

There is great destitution amongst the poor whites in Arkansas, and the assistant-commissioner says that, without aid, between 30,000 and 40,000 must have perished of starvation during the past season. During the quarter ending March 31, 234,063 rations were issued to whites and 32,955 to freedmen. Negro testimony is not allowed in the courts against white men, and Gen. Sprague declares that "if the military and Freedmen's Bureau are withdrawn, there is no place in this State where schools for colored children could or would be sustained."

The number of destitute freedmen in North Carolina has been greatly reduced, and the work of reduction is still going on. There is a great demand for labor. In the vicinity of Newbern the small-pox has been prevalent, but is now abating.

Col. Thomas reports from Mississippi that in some localities where the Bureau has been withdrawn the citizens have petitioned for its return, and state that they are willing to pay the salaries of the officers. Freed people manifest a disposition to leave those parts of the State where the troops and Bureau agents have been withdrawn. The school report shows 5,877 scholars and 88 teachers.

—Captain Merrell reports to Gen. Fisk that numerous outrages have been perpetrated on the freedmen in Eastern Kentucky, particularly in Marion, Barren, and Logan Counties. The freedmen are in the main well employed at fair wages, and suffer chiefly from the terrorism of lawless bands of "regulators" and "nigger-killers." There are 33 schools for colored children in the State, which are all sustained by subscriptions from the freed-people and taught by colored teachers.

—At Murfreesboro,' Tenn., on the 17th, a case involving two colored men, one of whom had inflicted fatal injuries on the other by returning a stone thrown at him, was committed to a jury of twelve colored men, with the consent of the Bureau. The prisoner was acquitted, as he had already been by the civil court, from which an appeal had been taken.

Notes.

LITERARY.

THE superstition that men have been transformed into animals is an element in every mythology with which we are acquainted, haunting the minds of those worshippers of the beautiful, the Greeks, the monstrous imaginations of the philosophic Hindus, and the grim, dark spirits of the north of Europe, whose religion was as primitive as the nature of which it was the type. Herodotus maintains that the Neurians were every year changed into wolves for several days, after which they put on again the appearance of men, a belief also mentioned by Pomponius Mela and by Petronius, the latter of whom relates a story of a soldier who, in the presence of a comrade, stripped himself and was suddenly a wolf, setting off with a howl for the woods, while the clothes which he had thrown off on the ground were turned into stone. The most common of these supposed transformations, the one which spread the widest, was that of men into wolves—a strange and terrible superstition which colored much of the old Norse literature, whence it descended like a turbid stream into the literatures of feudal Europe, growing darker as it gathered force. It was not confined to the lower orders—peasants, serfs, and the like; but spread among persons of rank—knights, lords, even ladies, the last being the most cruel of all. Of one of these ogresses we have an account in a volume recently published by Mr. Baring-Gould, entitled "The Book of Were-Wolves"—a Hungarian lady named Elizabeth; she was as fond of her personal appearance as some of her more civilized sisters of to-day, spending half the day at her toilet. On one occasion her maid saw something amiss in her head-dress and told her of it, for which she got such a box on the ears that the blood gushed from her nose and spirted in her mistress's face. When it was washed off the lady's face appeared more beautiful than before, the spots where the blood had spirted being much whiter than the rest of the skin. It was an insane fancy, of course, but the mad woman, for such she must have been, resolved in future to bathe her face and her whole body in blood—a devilish plan which she carried out by the help of three accomplices, a pair of old women and a monster named Fitzko, who killed her victims while the women caught their blood, in which she used to bathe at four in the morning. She is said to have caused the death of six hundred and fifty girls, who were entrapped into her castle under the pretence of being taken into service, but once there they were locked up in a cellar where they were tortured, often by Elizabeth herself, who had a fancy for having them beaten and then cut up with razors. By way of variety, they were occasionally burnt and then cut up; mostly, however, they were beaten to death. She grew so cruel at last that she would stick needles into those who rode with her in her coach, and when she was ill she bit a person who came near her bed. Her castle was finally seized, her accomplices executed, and she herself imprisoned for life. Not less diabolical than this she-wolf was Gilles de Laval, Maréchal de Retz, whose story has been narrated by Michelet and Lacroix. Left immensely rich by the death of his maternal grandfather, in 1432, he quitted the service of Charles the Seventh, and, surrounding himself with flatterers, servants, and men-at-arms, gave himself up to pleasures and crimes of the darkest dye. His principal abode was the Castle of Machecoul, a gloomy fortress, into which his servants were always enticing children, who were never after seen alive. In this fortress he had a secret chamber, in which his confidential attendants used to murder his innocent captives by slow and excruciating methods; sometimes he would cut and slice them himself. To lie where their blood would spirt upon him was his greatest delight. When they were dead he appeared to be filled with grief for what he had done, and would toss on his bed, weeping and praying, or would recite on his knees fervent prayers and litanies, while his servants washed the floor and burned the bodies in his great fireplace. Arrested in 1440, he confessed his crimes, and laid the desire which led him to commit them to an old Latin book, "Suetonius," he believed, which he found in his grandfather's library, and which was filled with accounts of the cruelties of the Roman emperors, the history of Tiberius, Caracalla, and the rest of that bloody band of imperial madmen. He confessed to committing about one hundred and twenty murders in a single year. He was hung at length, and, according to the usual custom, made a pious oration on the gallows.

—The interesting but unsatisfactory subject of mysticism, narrowed down to its development in France towards the close of the last century, has lately found a historian there in M. Franck, who chiefly concerns himself with its most prominent prophet, Saint-Martin, and, incidentally, with Saint-Martin's earliest teacher, Martinez de Pasqualis, a sort of Jewish cab

alist, and with old Jacob Böhme, the German mystic to whose singular vagaries in theology and philosophy Saint-Martin largely devoted himself. Of the former, Pasqualis, M. Franck tells us much that is new, mostly in reference to his mystical writings, which are contained in two manuscript volumes, the opening portion of which M. Franck publishes. It is an attempt to explain that *vexata quæstio*, the origin of evil, which is assigned to the free will of the evil-doers, the earliest of whom, emanating from the bosom of the Deity, were of a higher rank, spiritually speaking, than any beings of the same order of whom we have knowledge through the sacred Hebrew writings, and who fell through a determination to carry out their own plans instead of their Creator's. Their evil intent was arrested *in esse*, and the universe, which till then was not, became their prison. They were succeeded by the cherubim, seraphim, archangels, and angels, and lastly by man, who, under the name of the "Man-god," was made lord of the universe. Him they persuaded to become a creator in his turn, which he succeeded in doing so far as to clothe himself with a material form and to bring evil into the world, and in its train "death and all our woe." There is nothing very remarkable in all this, though, we fancy, a little originality on the part of Pasqualis. Concerning Böhme and his system, if he can be said to have had one, M. Franck does not give us any very clear idea, at any rate not so clear a one as may be found in the first volume of Dr. Erdmann's "History of Philosophy," lately published at Berlin. He is much more at home with Saint-Martin himself, who was remarkable as a thinker, if only from the fact of his standing in antagonism to all the prevailing doctrines of his time. All around him were materialists or sensationists; he retired within himself and found there not only the divinity which he sought, but the basis of all human knowledge, which he believed lay in self-consciousness. He combated the notion of Rousseau, in his "Social Contract," that man is naturally good and created for happiness, maintaining that the proposition was not applicable to man in his fallen condition, which was the only one that social theories could have anything to do with. The sovereignty of the people was Rousseau's cure for all the evils resulting from the breaking of the social contract; this Saint-Martin could not endure, though he hated all sorts of aristocracy, looking upon the Reign of Terror which swept them away for the time as a manifestation of divine justice. He lived through its stormy days in Paris, and died at the country-house of a friend in 1803, leaving but a shadowy memory in the title which he bestowed upon himself —*le philosophe inconnu*.

—The Society of Antiquarians has lost one of its most intelligent and valuable members, Mr. F. W. Fairholt, who died lately at the age of forty-eight. Of foreign descent, his parents being German, he was born in London, which was always the city of his heart, claiming his warmest love and his most careful study. Designed by his father for a tradesman, he preferred art instead, and from a teacher of drawing and a scene-painter became an illustrator of books, beginning with the "Pictorial Bible," "The History of England," and the "Pictorial Shakespeare." His *forte*, however, was antiquities, the spirit of which he caught readily, and faithfully reproduced; he was much in demand for his drawings of old coins, a walk of his profession in which he was probably without an equal in his time. As an author he was more favorably than widely known, writing as he did on special themes rather than on subjects of general interest. He wrote "A History of Old Civic Pageants" for the Percy Society, "A History of Costume in England," "The Dictionary of Terms in Art," "Gog and Magog," and a curious little volume on the history of tobacco and smoking, most of which works were illustrated from his own drawings.

—A meeting was recently held in the hall of the Sorbonne, at Paris, to consider the propriety of a new and more exact translation of the Scriptures into French, a project which originated with M. Petavel, pastor of the Swiss Church, London. The president was M. Amedée Thierry, senator and member of the Institute, and on the platform were Roman Catholics, Protestants, and Jews, who mingled together harmoniously, as they should have done on such an occasion. How well, indeed, the different and generally discordant elements blended, may be gathered from the names of the committee charged with the superintendence of the proposed translation, which consists of M. de Norlieu, parish priest of St. Louis d'Antin, M. Valette, pastor of the Confession of Augsburg, M. Paulin, of the Institute, M. Astruc, chief rabbi in France, and M. Petavel, who acts as secretary.

—An odd literary trial was recently brought in England, the plaintiff being one Strous with several initials, the writer of a novel entitled "The Old Ledger," and the defendants the owners and editors of the *Athenæum*, who some months since criticised the work in question, pronouncing it "the very worst attempt at a novel that has ever been perpetrated." Strous employed a Bow Street lawyer, who threw up the case when the attorney for the defendants succeeded in reading extracts from "The Old Ledger," a juror withdrawing for the purpose. The *Athenæum* is, of course, jubilant, though in a quiet and mysterious way.

SCIENTIFIC.

Torpidity of Animals.—They who are accustomed to witness merely the state of torpor into which many animals, both warm and cold-blooded, enter during the winter months of our northern latitudes, are hardly prepared for the fact that within the tropics a large number of other animals fall into an analogous condition through the heat and drought. We have the authority of Humboldt, supported by many observers, for the fact that in Venezuela and in the region of the Orinoco, "both land and water turtles, the colossal boas, and many of the smaller species of serpents, lie torpid and motionless in the hardened ground throughout the hot and dry season." The Indians often seek them in their retreats, as articles of food, and Humboldt mentions that, on one occasion, a party in camp were astonished by a crocodile's breaking up his summer quarters in the enclosure where they were sleeping, and where the reptile had lain buried since the disappearance of the waters. We have ourselves seen the workmen in Guiana, while digging trenches in a garden for planting vegetables, throw out several specimens of a species of eel (*Synbranchus*), which had buried themselves, as is their habit, when the dry season approached, and which, after an imprisonment of two or three months, would have found their way out again with the return of the rainy season.

The "mud fish" (*Lepidosiren*) of the Gambia is one of the most remarkable animals which pass into a "summer sleep." Their habits in this respect have been long known, and Prof. Owen has described the peculiar structure of their respiratory organs, which enables them, though fishes, to breathe air, when water is no longer accessible, during the period of their confinement. M. Auguste Dumeril has recently communicated to the Academy of Sciences some interesting observations made by himself on some of these animals at the Jardin des Plantes. Balls of perfectly dry clay containing "mud fishes" were placed in a tank and water slowly added, so as in some degree to imitate the gradual moistening of the earth by the rain. In due time three of the fishes broke open their coverings and escaped. That they were not, even in the dried clay, wholly torpid, is shown by the fact that in one case in which the ball was fractured, if the lining membrane were touched, the fish uttered a cry. After they came out they were fed with worms, were well nourished, and grew. M. Dumeril has had the good fortune to witness, for the first time in Europe, the process of going into "summer quarters." The two survivors began to show signs of preparation for their long sleep by secreting from the general surface of their bodies a large quantity of thick and viscid mucus, and soon after by burying themselves in the soft mud at the bottom of the tank. The water was then drawn off to the level of the mud and this allowed slowly to dry. In the course of time the mud became hard and cracked and the moisture disappeared, leaving them in their dry case of earth.

After about seventy days they were exhumed alive, each surrounded by a sort of cocoon formed of the hardened mucus secreted by their skin, and serving as a protection against the too great evaporation of moisture from the surface of their bodies. As they entered the mud they left behind them a tubular trail of mucus, which formed a communication between the sack enclosing the fish and the outer air. During the greater portion of the period of their retirement no water can reach their gills; their swim-bladders, however, receive blood diverted by a special arrangement from the gills and thus act like true lungs, which they in fact are. Thus we have a fish which is a water-breather at one period of the year, and an air-breather at another. In this last respect they make a close approach to the class of reptiles with which they have sometimes, though on insufficient grounds, been identified.

Aluminum Plates for Artificial Teeth.—The plates to which artificial teeth are attached are now made of gold for costly sets and of vulcanized rubber, colored with red sulphide of mercury, for cheap sets. The weight of gold is a serious objection to it, and yet the alternative of the lighter rubber is open to two objections, either one of which is serious. The rubber plates are thick, take up room in the mouth, and feel hot; and, secondly, the red coloring matter is too closely akin to the poisons of which mercury is the base. Plates made of any metallic alloy in which gold is not the chief ingredient are entirely inadmissible. A pure metal is very desirable for this use, and aluminum seems to be very suitable in many respects. It is strong enough, is not discolored by sulphuretted hydrogen, nor acted upon by any acids likely to be found in the mouth; the metal itself and its compounds are perfectly harmless, and cannot become poisonous by

any transformations; it is eight times lighter than gold, being only two and a half times heavier than water; lastly, it has no taste, and keeps very clean in the mouth. The price of aluminum should be, according to Deville, about the same as that of silver, weight for weight, or one-fourth that of silver, bulk for bulk. The labor required in working aluminum is, however, much greater than is generally bestowed on rubber work, and the use of the metal in dentistry has been patented in this country, so that aluminum plates are not likely to be very cheap. There is no good solder for aluminum, so that all joints in plates are made with rubber, previously filled with powdered aluminum, which imparts to the rubber a metallic lustre and general approximate resemblance to the metal itself.

MR. SWINBURNE'S FIRST-FRUITS.*

MR. SWINBURNE has done himself a great injustice in allowing his publishers to issue this volume without any intimation to its readers that the dramas contained in it were first published several years since. It would have been better for his reputation to leave them in obscurity than to bring them into the light of his recent success, which can have no other effect than to make their defects conspicuous. There is an immodesty in the proceeding which might be pardoned had the public been originally mistaken in neglecting these youthful performances, but which is with difficulty excused by the impatient reader who opens the book with the anticipations naturally excited by the merits of "Atalanta in Calydon." Mr. Swinburne rates his genius far too highly if he supposes that he has, even in his latest drama, given proof of faculties so extraordinary as to make the development of his intellectual powers a matter of interest to the critic, or to rouse curiosity concerning the crude productions of his callow years.

It is a pity to see a promising lad mistaking notoriety for fame, goaded by the sting of self-conceit instead of the spur of noble ambition, and yielding to the seductive temptations of publicity. The young poet requires, above all men, to prize the reserve which is the source of strength, and to cultivate that self-restraint and self-command without which genius runs to waste. Unless he be so possessed by the love of the ideal as to be his own severest critic, and to feel the insufficiency of his own best efforts, he is little likely to win lasting renown. Mr. Swinburne has not yet been taken up among the fixed stars of the poetic heaven. Perhaps he is only the rocket of this year, rising with a fine rush toward the sky, a moment's blazing wonder, to disappear in the darkness by which so many transient luminaries have been swallowed up.

The characteristic impossibility which marks Mr. Swinburne's later works is still more obvious in "The Queen Mother" and in "Rosamond." They remind us of the works of other men, not in the way of direct imitation, but by subtle resemblances of which the author is undoubtedly unconscious. His nature is so impressible as to receive easily the stamp of another's genius. Whatever is imitable in other men—be it Shakespeare, Browning, or the Trouveres—Mr. Swinburne gives us. But it is the inimitable alone that is precious. Chameleon-like he takes on the color of that upon which he feeds.

Now this is an intellectual condition common to all susceptible youths, nor is it at all incompatible with genuine originality. The only question is as to the proportions of the two. If we may judge by the distance between these early works and the "Atalanta," Mr. Swinburne is gradually gaining more and more power of expressing his own thoughts in his own way, and the comparison between his first and his last productions encourages the belief that he may yet achieve some work really his own, and only the better for his study of those works which still to some degree overmaster the free and full expression of his native genius.

It is hardly worth while, it would be hardly fair to the young poet's later promise, to analyze the plots or discuss the characters of the two plays in this volume. There is little dramatic interest in either. These tragedies, like most youthful attempts of the same sort, indicate that the writer had little sense of the nature of a tragedy as one of the highest forms of literary art, but regarded its form as quite subordinate to the expression of feeling and passion. In the absence of just critical discrimination there is no more common error than to suppose that principles of art are not laws but rules. It is on this error that the whole spasmodic school of tragedy is founded, and occasionally there is a spasm in Mr. Swinburne's plays.

It is a consequence of this, as well as of the susceptibility of the author to literary impressions, that there is but little nature in these plays. The characters and circumstances do not display the imaginative idealization so much as a sort of conventional representation of nature. One feels all the time not only that he is reading a play, but that the actors are puppets; that the author did not see his characters move, did not hear them speak, but was continually engaged in making them move and in speaking for them, and even then he does not make them say much that is worth listening to, especially as their diction is often exceedingly obscure.

But we will find no more fault with a book which will be forgotten if its author does nothing better than he has yet done, and which, if he wins a name among the poets, will be remembered only as showing the first uncertain traces of genius, and as marking the length of his flight from his starting place.

* "The Queen Mother, and Rosamond. By Algernon Charles Swinburne, author of 'Atalanta in Calydon' and 'Chastelard.'" Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866. 16mo, pp. 222.

J. J. PIATT'S POEMS.*

THIS thin volume seems to be remarkable not so much for the merit of anything it contains as that what it contains should ever be a volume at all. In the corners of small newspapers we expect to find plenty of verses without any perceptible quantity of poetical feeling or unborrowed thought, and not without a certain degree of smoothness. The country paper, we know, will have its poet's corner; and to have filled it now and again is hardly blamable in any young woman or young man. "The hole, not the mouse, is the thief," we say, quoting the charitable adage of the rabbins; "opportunity tempts." But the appearance of a bookful of such verses—it is really to be wished that this were a thing wholly unexpected. Charitable as we may desire to be, we feel that to the making of a book there goes a certain amount of premeditation, and we resent it. As single spies we can let such sorrows go by, but not when they advance upon us in battalia.

For the production of poetry like this the necessary qualifications are only too common. First of all, the writer should resemble the mass of his kind in having no proper sense of the shortness of life and of the value of his own and other people's time. Next, like a majority of his fellow citizens in this favored land of universal education, he should have read, and more or less judiciously admired, two or three popular poets. He should be possessed of some imitative ability, and he ought to be able several times out of every ten to find a good rhyme for a word already written. Ill health is not an essential prerequisite, though at first thought it might seem to be. Many most introspective, most melancholy poets are very like a certain head of a family in Independent Tartary. (We also can go far for similitudes.) He was a stout and a cheerful man, though an impudent thief and despoiler of other men's goods. Some customary mourning being required of him, he would once in a while, we are told, lay down his pipe, roll his eyeballs inward, apply himself to the most lugubrious lamentations, and then tranquilly resume his smoking. Quite often it happens that very robust people of the sanguine-nervous temperament and with a reasonable income can be sad as sadness itself on paper. And as for the reason why they should be so, it is the fashion of the day, and the fashion of the day is the poetaster's inspiration.

There must be at this moment two hundred thousand and odd persons in the British Islands alone actively engaged in versification. Some weeks ago there were two hundred thousand exactly, Professor Masson said, and we believe him; and we believe also that as time rolls on and the world advances further toward the general doom, the ominous number of such persons grows greater rather than diminishes. In the United States, even if we include the reconstructed home of Simms, there is considerably less of such so-called poetry than in England, but still there are far more producers of the forced fruits in question than that any one of them should ever really apprehend a failure of the regular supply, and so should take his own and preserve them—hermetically seal them, as we may say—in a book for future use. As we have seen, they are of no value for exportation, and the home public will not consume them—indeed, almost every family raises its own—for they are always to be had in their first greenness.

A man who has written a sonnet reads it with a prepossession in its favor. It must be that with a transcriber the case is different. At any rate, we found ourselves unable to like this one after copying it for quotation. It seemed to us to possess no beauty but the cheap beauty of smoothness. "Twofold" is the word printed over it:

> "If you should vanish in some lonely place,
> And never, never more appear again
> (Though your lost face should float about my brain,
> The elusive phantom of a lost embrace,
> Out of the mystery of a starless space),
> And I should strive with long conceptive pain
> Your form so dear from marble to regain,
> Or paint the flying memory of your face:
> I have not seen you, love, as others deem—
> Though stone or color might sheer semblance give,

* "Poems in Sunshine and Firelight. By John James Piatt." R. W. Carroll & Co., Cincinnati. 1866. Pp. 127.

I'd watch a child steal shyly from your heart,
To comfort little birds that orphans seem,
Or flowers that need a drop of dew to live,
And this, I think, would baffle human art."

The hesitating "I think," in the last line, seems to us hardly necessary. We speak, however, in some doubt as to the precise meaning of the sonnet. Turning the pages we come upon the poet in a lighter mood. He takes Pegasus to market, being, unless our memory is at fault, not the first poet dragged along by that headstrong allegory. The bystanders jeer at both horse and rider:

"'I have a dray-horse just his mate!'
'Here, smith, is something for your doing;'
'What hoofs!—he needs a deal of shoeing!'
And one, a punner, passing late,
'This was the winged horse I vow:
That he 's gone up—you see it now!'
Spoke with a self-perceiving smile.
'Speaking of wings,' another cries,
'His can 't be seen, you see: perhaps
His ears, which can be seen, he flaps,
And thinks him flying—from the flies!'

The jockey's scorn, the jeerer's aim,
Meanwhile the horse and rider both
In mutual weakness, mutual shame,
Hear."

The mutual shame can be understood, but why is the weakness said to be reciprocal? There seems to be some uncertainty.

Perhaps the best lines in the book are two in which the poet's Brother Guy, who was probably thinking of Emerson's "Humble Bee," is seen to

"Chase the sultry butterflies,
Tropic summers in disguise,"

and three which speak of the journey of a pioneer across the Western prairies,

"A journey long and slow and perilous,
With many hardships and the homesick look
Of wife and children backward."

As a pretty fair specimen of the author's powers we copy a little piece called "The Love-Letter:"

"I greet thee, loving letter—
Unopened kiss thee free,
And dream her lips within thee
Give back the kiss to me.

"The fragrant little rose-leaf
She sends by thee is come;
Ah, in her heart was blooming
The rose she stole it from."

We were pleased at first with the bold horticultural trope in the second stanza. But perhaps it was suggested by that rose-bush in the ballad. We quote from our recollection of it as we heard it sung:

"Lady Annet they buried within the churchyard,
Lord Lovell they laid down beside her,
And out of her bosom there grew a red rose,
And out of his backbone a briar-iar-iar," etc.;

or, the stanza being ambiguous, the rose-leaf may not be a literal rose-leaf, in which case the poem is neat and pretty.

MAGAZINES FOR MAY.

The "Atlantic Monthly" for May is good, but does not contain much that is of novelty or importance. The reminiscences of Landor are unusually interesting. Hawthorne's "Diary" still continues to be the most admirable model for would-be novelists and magazine writers we know of. Anybody who works as conscientiously over mere studies as he worked need not, with even moderate ability, despair of some measure of success. The "Fenian Idea," we believe, by Miss Cobbe, proves that she is not at home in the discussion of political topics. The idea of a revolution, or of an attempt at revolution, is to be found not in what the ignorant masses expect to come of it, which is what she describes, but in the grievances which have prompted it. Doubtless great multitudes went into the French revolution of 1848 expecting a community of goods, but it was not this idea which overthrew Louis Philippe. The Fenian idea is the desire of the Irish for a government that is not English, for an ecclesiastical establishment that is not foreign, and for fixity of tenure in land. None of these are absurdities. The absurdities of Fenianism lie in the attempt to overthrow the British Empire by an organization of servant-girls and hod-carriers and stablemen. A very slight acquaintance with the literature and traditions of conquered countries would have shown Miss Cobbe that there is nothing peculiarly Irish in the extravagant pictures of the old "kings" drawn by the popular imagination. Wattled cabins, like the halls of Tara, in fact generally rise, under the wand of that great magician, into marble palaces, donkeys into thoroughbreds, and a few hundreds of bare-legged gillies or kernes into hosts of glittering warriors. The gem of the number is Hosea Biglow's "Speech in March Meeting," which is, like all his efforts, beyond criticism. Edwin Booth is the subject of an elaborate critique, which shows that gentleman to be an absolutely faultless actor. The literary notices are unwontedly savage, and, for the first time, if we are not mistaken, will "cause pain to many sensitive minds." There is nothing in the number that can be called "padding," and to say this of a magazine in these days is very high praise. Mrs. Stowe's paper on dress is remarkably good.

With this number "Harper's" closes its thirty-second volume. To a large part of the American people "Harper's" for many years has been English literature, and it has been so very successful that we may consider it a fair index of the literary culture and general character—of the nation, we had almost said, but a nation's character and culture are fairly measured by its best—of that immense class of Americans, we will say, who after paying for their newspaper are willing to spend a quarter of a dollar a month for somewhat better reading. On the whole their magazine does them no great discredit. Their morality seems to be unquestionable. Their patriotism is immeasurable; of the lives and exploits of famous American citizens—of the men who fill Jared Sparks's works and have counties called after them—they read and never tire. Mr. Abbott's histories they not only read, but they like to read. Stories of adventure please them; easy lessons in the natural sciences, pictorial accounts of men and manners in foreign lands, and of the more distant regions of their own vast possessions. It is to be confessed, too, that their hearts seem to throb sympathetically with the hearts of a great multitude of the most commonplace young lovers, and that they are too apt when they first receive "the new number" to turn first to that wonderful "Editor's Drawer," a piece of furniture surely far removed from the "Editor's Easy Chair."

In this last number the best article is "Cast Away," a sketch of life upon a desert island in the Pacific; which is very well done and seemed to us a true story. "The Flag that Talks" is three or four pages of stanzas full of loyalty and written in praise of the signal-service. There are three or four more chapters of "Armadale," which is as long as if Wilkie Collins knew that he cannot depend on his readers to go back to one of his stories after they have once got to the end and the answer. "Tom Lowdowne" is a very poor allegory in which we are to find the story of the rebellion and emancipation, and in which we do find it very much too easily. "Marriage à la mode" speaks of Dr. Johnson, and says, "Had Johnson been a gentleman in manner as he was a giant in intellect, his career might have been a brilliant one." The acuteness of this remark is matched by the truthfulness of another one. As to marriages in America the author says, "Wherever fashion reigns, those who so far transgress her rules as to keep their marriage vows (and there are many such) must hide their shameful vulgarity from notice, or a contemptuous cry is raised of 'Darby and Joan,' 'uxoriousness,' 'vegetation.'" One sighs sometimes for Johnson's comprehensive method of dealing with such people. "The American People Starved and Poisoned," "the aim of which is to lead to a Christian method of building," treats of the importance of ventilation, and gives plans whereby houses may be so constructed that the inmates, whether they wish it or not, may always have sweet air. "Longwood," "Kate," and "Queen's Good Work," are poor love stories, "Longwood" being best and "Queen's Good Work" worst, everything in it, and particularly that negress with her talk and her songs, being impossible and undesirable. There are three illustrated articles, "Galena and its Lead Mines," "The Yo Semite Valley," and "Livingstone's Last African Expedition," which will all be found readable.

Six out of fifteen articles in the "Catholic World" are original. "Problems of the Age" is the first of a series of controversial papers, and invites the reader "to begin at once at the viewing point of the Catholic believer, and endeavor to get the view which one brought up in the church takes of divine truth"—in other words, to approach the consideration of Roman Catholic doctrinal questions not by the road usually followed, but as a Roman Catholic child would. "A Troubadour's Story" is continued, and to be continued. There is a Wizard Knight in it, a Lord of Miolan, "Ho Eblis," a ladye called the Lily of Provence, the Chateau of La Sône, Siloë's wave, a queer jumble of Savoy, Syria, and France, plenty of alliteration, and plenty of such rhymes as

"—— racked and riven with remorse,
Mad with the memory of the Cross;"
"Maiden mantle that is part of thee,
Maiden mantle that doth circle thee."

"Requiem Æternam" is very much better and not good. "Curiosities of Animal Life" is a short and pleasant talk about the various modes of reproduction which obtain among the sea anemones and other animals of the lowest forms of organic life. "The Catholic Publication Society" says that, by means of tracts gratuitously distributed, "other denominations are instructing their people and producing an influence on many outside of their

own communions." Both these things Catholics also ought to do, and they are called on for contributions. In the last article, "New Publications," Dr. Pusey's famous "Eirenicon" is once more reviewed, and Dr. Pusey is once more told that "there is not the faintest chance of any re-union of Christians except by a return to the centre of unity. Strict dogmatic unity and unconditional submission to the supreme authority of the See of Peter is the only condition of union in ecclesiastical fellowship." Of the selected articles the best is Aubrey De Vere's "Mater Divinæ Gratiæ," a beautiful poem, which ends, perfect, before the last stanza begins.

RESEMBLANCES BETWEEN MEN AND ANIMALS.*

In Dr. Redfield's opinion the science of comparative physiognomy is as good if not better than that of phrenology, and he feels himself as much entitled to judge character by the face as by what lies behind the face; he reminds his readers that in portraits the skull always remains in the background. Again, the brain and the face are generally harmonious, but the former is always subservient to the latter; phrenology must be professional "by fumbling up the hair and rubbing the organs," which in most cases, we agree with Dr. Redfield, would be regarded as a great impertinence, while comparative physiognomists pursue their vocation silently, and learn a man's character without his knowing it. Still, we can hardly admit this to be a social advantage, for though it is certainly not "a breach of etiquette to look a man in the countenance," still, to look a man out of countenance, and to make a mental note of him as cat, dog, or rhinoceros, produces, at least in the observer, almost a consciousness of rudeness. We have ourselves studied faces in a small way, and have always felt a certain impoliteness in the occupation, as we smiled in a friendly way, but said to ourselves "rogue" or "fool." There seems something more open about craniometry, to which no man, unless he wishes, need submit himself, and where there is a fair understanding between the student and his subject; there is a connection, too, between this pursuit and an equally honorable and more ancient profession. There would be nothing unnatural in the union of barber and phrenologist. But to have scientific men at large who, without our knowledge, might read our characters, and, unlocking our closets, rattle down the skeletons which we had almost forgotten, would be disagreeable. We should soon have experts appointed by Government to inspect applicants for office, and registering them as vultures, camels, or goats. It would be unpleasant to go as a lion and come back a goose.

Nevertheless, these personal objections should not prevail against the progress of knowledge, and the knowledge of which Dr. Redfield is the herald, after Lavater, is that a relationship may be discovered between the faces of animals and those of men; that by studying the characters of the former we may arrive at the characters of men who resemble them. Or the result may be reached in another way. Studying the character of the human subject, we find the inferior order which has the same traits, and the exterior likeness will be at once apparent. For instance, Captain Cook was a discoverer; the stork is a discoverer, and a remarkable likeness is seen between the two. The Aztec children awaken a feeling of repugnance, playfulness, curiosity, and fondness. "However much you may feel a disinclination to touch them, you will be ready to spring upon them as the embodiments of a truth, and clasp them to your hearts." This truth is, that the feeling of repugnance, curiosity, playfulness, and fondness is the same that mice inspire. On looking at the Aztec children they are seen to resemble mice.

It would be impossible to discuss Dr. Redfield's theory in full, to investigate the resemblance of Germans to lions, of Russians to geese, of Turks to turkeys, of Englishmen to bulls, of Yankees to bears, of Hindus to swans, and of Frenchmen to frogs; it will be better to take one chapter as an example of the rest, and, as a very interesting one, we choose that devoted to the elephant, particularly as it is connected with important questions of race. The elephant embodies the executive type. "As the rhinoceros represents endurance, so does the elephant represent effectiveness. His whole body is like a sea, with its ebb and flow, and moving forward with a slow current to its outlet, where the mighty force of descent invites to the demonstration of the principle that 'knowledge is power.'" "As there is in the rhinoceros that which involves the principles of mathematics, so there is in the elephant that which involves the principles of mechanics; and as nature illustrates these principles in the animal economy of both, so art, in those who resemble the rhinoceros and the elephant, applies them to the demonstration of the laws which govern the material creation and to the production of machinery." "There is a resemblance to the elephant not only in those who make an extensive application of machinery, but in those who invent it." Execution being at the root of the matter, we should expect to find elephantine men doing the work of the world in various capacities, and, knowing that a great deal of work has been done by "herculean negroes," we find, on a comparison, that they exhibit the elephantine type. From the valuable assistance they have given as slaves, we may infer that as free men they will be still more the elephant, and this is Dr. Redfield's opinion, who regrets the cramping effect of slavery, and has no doubt that the negro is capable of attaining the highest condition in morality and intelligence. We have always hoped sincerely that the color of his skin was no impediment, but we had not looked for a demonstration on purely physical principles. This is always the ground that the advocates of slavery considered their own; it is delightful to see it slip from under their feet. We do not know even why, carrying the analogy a little further, the negroes may not claim their blackness as an advantage, since certainly the elephant is more generally dark than light in hue. And if this is true, the white elephant would be the inferior species, and what folly would be greater than that of the King of Siam? There is another question which might afford subject for much curious study in connection with the executive qualities of the elephant—whether this type is discoverable generally among the Presidents of the United States; how far Washington, or Tyler, or Johnson were qualified in this respect for their posts; and, again, whether the inferior type may be seen in the inferior executive officer, as in the sheriff or marshal. But the field is too wide for the limits of a single article, and we can only refer to Dr. Redfield's book as illustrating the general topic in a variety of interesting and novel ways.

Roebuck. A Novel. (M. Doolady, New York.)—The anonymous chevalier who has added this contribution to the fiction of the late civil war is evidently concerned to make it appear that the nobler civilization went to the wall. Aside from the wholesale denunciations of Northern society which are reproduced as if the Confederacy were yet living, the author's method is to set off the Fairfaxes and Fitzhughs of Virginia against a transplanted Yankee by the name of Palmer. Colonel Fairfax is your model gentleman whose habitat is only on the warmer side of Mason and Dixon's line. On his plantation, his aristocratic negroes run from a "mean white" overseer with supplications of—"Master, would you jis please to switch me *yourse'f* —jis dis once, master." The sons of mechanics in the neighborhood look up to the same bright exemplar, and let their ambition go no further. Miss Fairfax is a person who, on trying occasions, discharges the natural tribute of affection and grief with a gush of tears, and then rapidly reviews the circumstances by which she is surrounded. At other times she sings "The Song of the Bee," "The Southern Cavalier," a dirge to Virginia, or a hymn of distress. She has the good fortune to see her father die without taking the Federal oath of allegiance, and she eventually marries Hugh Fitzhugh, late of the rebel cavalry. His superiority shines out early in the leaping of a stone-wall, at which Albert Palmer baulked, preferring to ride through the gate. This sure proof of ignoble blood in the latter is afterwards confirmed by his retreating precipitately from a duel, and presently deserting to the Federal ranks. The case against the North is thus completely made out, or would be, but for a single disagreeable query: May not civilization be measured by the greatest amount of abuse that a man will put up with in his own house with the smallest show of temper? We submit this question to the author of "Roebuck" and his New York publisher.

Baked Meats of the Funeral. A Collection of Essays, Poems, Speeches, Histories, and Banquets. By Private Miles O'Reilly, late of the 47th Regiment N. Y. Volunteer Infantry, 10th Army Corps. (Carleton, New York.)—This book, with its very elaborate and very absurd title, contains the dullest pleasantry that we have seen in print for a long time. According to the advertisements it is a comic book, but there is hardly anything laughable in it except the self-satisfaction of the author. He dwells with fondness on himself; on his intimacy with General H. W. Halleck; on the fact that the London *Times* copied an article which he wrote on Fenianism; on his having written a very smart and sarcastic despatch to the Secretary of War, and he tells us how the House laughed when it was read, and how S. S. Cox, of Ohio, assured him that it prevented his making a long-meditated speech, it was so funny; and, finally, on the fact that he can produce quite worthless verses with less waste of time than most people would suppose. He seems to belong to a class of writers who are willing to take Maginn as a model, and who are hardly able to reach Maginn's most doubtful excellences. The author has done better than this before, so that he is the less excusable for doing so badly now, and we speak so plainly to him because his preface informs us that he intends to put forth another book in December. Among the many poor verses of this volume there are some clever ones, and the account of Hunter's campaign in the Shenandoah Valley may have some value to future writers.

The Boys at Dr. Murray's (by Glance Gaylord; Graves & Young, Boston) is a well-managed, undisguised moral tale, illustrating the nobility of true friendship, and showing how an untrained but not evil nature may be rescued from error by kindly sympathy and forbearance.

* "Comparative Physiognomy; or, Resemblances between Men and Animals. By James W. Redfield, M.D." New York: Widdleton, 1866. Pp. 334.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

A WORD TO OUR CONTRIBUTORS AND OUR READERS.

It was well known that The Nation was, when started, essentially an experiment. Journals of a similar character had been tried and had succeeded in Europe, but the idea that there was enough interest felt here in literature or in art to support a paper mainly devoted to the discussion of literary and art topics, or that there existed what economists call an effective demand for any more careful or more general discussion of political news than writers of the daily press working between dusk and dawn were able to supply, was scouted by many. Our experience, so far as it has gone, satisfies us that it is this want of faith rather than want of appreciation which is the greatest difficulty which any such journal has to contend with here. Thousands enjoy it for the one who believes that his neighbors will enjoy it, and, of course, any very widespread doubt of its success increases the difficulty of succeeding.

Another difficulty, and the only one which any special mention by us will assist in removing, is the want of a clear comprehension on the part of great numbers of its readers as to the precise nature of the functions which such a paper as The Nation seeks to perform. There is, perhaps, nothing from which this journal in particular has suffered so much. Everybody had formed for himself, at the outset, an idea, generally rather vague, of the kind of paper a "first-class weekly" ought to be; but in nine cases out of ten it was an idea based on experience of some other paper already in existence. The consequence naturally was, often, a good deal of disappointment. To many who had for years read a party organ diligently, it was not enough that certain great principles of society or government were advocated; they desired to have them advocated in the precise manner and by the precise means fixed upon by party conventions, party leaders, or consecrated by newspaper usage. Others again, to whom the political crisis was a subject of absorbing interest, looked upon all attention devoted to art or literature or science as sheer trifling, as if real, long-continued progress was possible in any community in whose eyes they did not occupy, after religion, the highest place; as if in them were not to be found the ideas which make political contests anything better than a game of dominoes. Others, too, to whom writers for the press are simply so many clerks employed to put the crude and half-formed ideas of readers into shape for printing, were naturally shocked by being presented, in a journal for which they had paid in advance, with ideas which had never once occurred to them, and whose very novelty made them seem monstrous.

The Nation has now outlived a great deal of misunderstanding. Whether they think it good, bad, or indifferent, most people know what it is aiming at, and are able to state pretty clearly why they like or dislike it. We have received such assurances of the interest and satisfaction with which our enterprise is viewed as convince us that we have at least acquired what must form the basis of all permanent success for any such paper as this aims to be—the good opinion and good wishes of those who know best what good writing, clear thinking, and sound criticism are, and to whom the country owes not only the larger part, but the better part, of its fame.

From this class we have received not only much encouragement, but much assistance. Some of the best articles which have appeared in The Nation have come from the pens of volunteers on whom we had no claim, and on whom we had never made any claim, and although we do not rely on irregular contributors as a general thing, we have little doubt that the longer the paper lives, the greater will be the amount of help we shall receive from this source. Should this expectation prove correct, let us add, one of the objects for which the paper was established—the provision of a journal in which cultivated and thinking men, who unfortunately write only too little for periodicals, will oftener consider it worth while to send such thoughts as passing events may suggest to them—will have been attained.

We are able to say now, what a year ago we could only assume, that there does exist in the United States a demand, already large, for a journal, such as The Nation, of a special character, and that it is a demand which is as sure to increase as the country to grow in wealth and population. We are satisfied, too, that this demand is met better by The Nation than it has ever been met before, and it is with the hope of meeting it more effectually than hitherto that we have determined to issue the paper at shorter intervals. The comments which the announcement of this change has called forth have been, considered as critiques on the general character of the paper, very gratifying, but many of the inferences drawn from it, such as that it is a virtual surrender of our special character, and a step towards assimilation to the daily press, are erroneous, as we hope to show. We shall, perhaps, best show it by indicating the classes of readers whose wants we find by experience we have hitherto done most to supply:

1. Those who desire information on matters of science, literature, and art, which the ordinary newspapers do not systematically furnish, but who have not time enough to read journals exclusively devoted to these subjects; or who, being specially interested in one branch of science or literature, like to hear at frequent intervals of what is going on in others.

2. Those—and the number is every day increasing—whose daily duties occupy their time and mind to such an extent as to prevent their giving much attention to the vast, heterogeneous mass of news of the day presented to them by the daily papers, and who yet desire and appreciate some assistance in discriminating between the true and the false, the important and the sensational, and who enjoy discussions of political subjects conducted with more care than a daily paper can bestow and more candor than a mere party paper is willing to exhibit.

It will thus be seen that The Nation is neither a newspaper, nor a magazine, nor a review. It does not propose to give the news of the day—any more than it ever has done. Its comments on the news of the day are designed to be more deliberate than those of the daily press, even though they be less fresh. We issue twice a week, not that we may say more or a greater number of things, or that we may be able to talk about everything that occurs up to the moment of going to press, but that whatever we have to say may reach our readers sooner after it has been committed to paper than hitherto. In other words, the change we make means neither more hasty thinking nor more hasty writing, but simply more frequent and rapid printing and publishing. In certain departments, such as the financial review and the short notes on passing events, of course, the smaller the interval between writing and publishing, the more valuable they become. No matter how much wisdom may be crowded into them, they are in their very nature, to a certain extent, perishable commodities.

We propose, too, to give hereafter the literary, artistic, and scientific news somewhat more in detail than we have hitherto done. Of the desirableness of this we have abundant reason to feel satisfied. But it ought to be well understood that just as we leave to the daily press the task of supplying the news of the day and commenting on it as it flies by, so also we must leave to publications exclusively devoted to these subjects, and to quarterly and monthly reviews, the task of presenting the public with the results of literary and scientific research *in extenso*. To give the scholar or literary man an inkling of what is going on in the fields in which he is most interested, is all we can aspire to. And for the guidance of those who may feel disposed to assist us with their contributions, we may mention that the contents of The Nation will fall nearly under four divisions—or that, at all events, these divisions would have to be kept in mind by anybody writing for it as a volunteer.

1. References to, and concise comments on, the news of the day, with the view of fixing the degree of its importance, and suggesting its bearings upon and relation to the main current of contemporary history.

2. Reviews or comments, whether in the shape of letters or articles upon important events, and upon the utterances of those who are, or are trying to be, leaders of public opinion.

3. Accounts more or less detailed, or discussions of such occurrences in the social, literary, artistic, or scientific world as are likely to inter-

est men or women of education and intelligence. Under this head we do not include mere gossip about nobodies, or advertising chronicles of the sayings and doings of quacks, daubs, penny-a-liners, or dilettanti.

4. Critiques of publications or works of art of sufficient merit to make it desirable that the public should ever hear anything about them.

We shall take this opportunity of stating that the information which is occasionally given in those "inside views" of THE NATION to which some of our contemporaries occasionally treat their readers, as to the writers of certain articles and of certain departments of the paper, has been almost invariably wrong, and often amusingly wrong, and that anybody who feels any interest in the subject is no more likely to get at the facts in the columns of the country papers than in our own.

THE PROSPECTS OF A THIRD PARTY.

A FEW politicians, who have lost all power except for a little temporary mischief, are making great efforts to organize a new party to be devoted to the support of the President's policy. Like the fox of the ancient fable, having lost all their accustomed following, they are extremely anxious to induce other foxes to join their company. One thing they see very clearly, that unless a third party can be formed *they* will fall into insignificance, whatever may become of the policy they advocate. The Union party will never trust them again, and the remnant of the old Democratic party, which still keeps the field as a distinct organization, has not such a dearth of aspirants as to make it anxious to force high offices upon these gentlemen. It is quite willing to use them, but wisely unwilling to let them use it.

This cry for a new party is responded to by some papers and politicians of the South, who see what has become of the old Democratic party at the North, and are anxious to secure for their section a larger support here than they can hope for under the present condition of parties. The old Whigs of North Carolina, Kentucky, and Tennessee, who cannot forget the animosities of the past, embittered as was the recollection by the insane partisan spirit of Jefferson Davis during the insurrection, long for the appearance of some political organization which would enable them to put down the "radicals" without taking the name of "Democrats."

It is pretty well understood that these ideas find sympathy in high places, and that the new party, if it could be got under way, would not lack eminent leaders or official encouragement. And yet, with all these aids, we think the project certain to fail.

The organization of a third party is not an impossible task. The Anti-Masons, the Whigs, the Liberty party, the Free-Soilers, the Know-Nothings, the Republicans, and the Unionists, were all third parties, some of which rose to great power. But none of them attained success except those which were organized at a time when one of the two great parties was utterly demoralized and unable to hold together, or which were able to induce one of the old parties to merge itself entirely in the new. Thus the Whigs absorbed all the different parties opposed to the course of General Jackson; the Know-Nothings gained their marvellous but short-lived victories only when the continued existence of the Whig party had become manifestly impossible; the Republican party attained its magnificent proportions only when the Know-Nothings fell into chaos; and the Union party was organized by the voluntary act of the Republicans.

What is there in the present state of political affairs which at all corresponds with any of these circumstances? It is easy to talk of the disintegration of the Union party, but the simple fact that all the object of the proposed new party is to defeat the Union-Republicans, is a sufficient answer to these vain imaginings. Men do not labor to build up a new organization for the mere purpose of defeating one that is already falling to pieces. So easy a task may safely be left to an existing party. The Unionists will certainly not disband for the benefit of the new conservative scheme, nor will they lose any large proportion of their numbers. The only real question for consideration is whether the Copperheads will consent to drop the name of Democrat, and march under the new banner.

Why should they? That name is a tower of strength among the foreign-born population. In connection with the party traditions, it has a powerful hold upon a great portion of the native voters. Hundreds of thousands are proud to be called Democrats who would be rather ashamed to be called Conservatives. Their party ties would hang loosely upon them from the moment that its name was changed. For years they have voted unreasoningly whatever ticket bore the party label. Change the label, and they will scrutinize the bolus. Will the leaders of the party venture to run such a risk for the sake of winning over one-tenth of their present opponents? We confidently predict that they will not.

If the South is restored to a share in the national Government upon the present plan, leaving the truly loyal under the feet of recent traitors, there is not a doubt that it will unanimously support the Copperhead party under the name of Democrat. If it is not thus restored, the new party would fail to accomplish anything. To change for a merely temporary purpose would be running a great risk to effect an object which might possibly be achieved on easier terms.

A new conservative party, moreover, would have to accept leaders who are highly distasteful to the Copperheads. Mr. Seward, especially, is their peculiar aversion. Their leaders hate him cordially, but the rank and file abhor him with an intensity which the leaders could not control if they would. Yet what would the new party be without him? Messrs. Cowan and Doolittle are not so much disliked, but they can be had on easier terms than leadership. They have taken a course which will inevitably carry them into the Copperhead ranks as subordinates, and it would be a most superfluous bargain to change the party name for their benefit.

If, then, the Copperheads cannot be persuaded to abandon their present organization, the existence of the new party will be sickly and short. If it has no popular strength, though it may draw off enough votes to defeat the Union party in a few instances, it must speedily pass away. If it is strong, it must be so mainly at the expense of the Copperheads, and will thus do good rather than harm by dividing the opposition. If, to avoid this result, it resorts to coalitions, as did the Bell-Everett party in 1860, it will die out almost instantly.

If, however, contrary to our anticipations, the Copperheads should consent to abandon the name of Democrat, the final result to the country, in escaping from that swindle, will be highly beneficial. We do not believe that the cause of progress, liberty, and reform can be permanently defeated by any possible combination, and some transitory mishaps would be more than compensated by substituting principles for mere names in future political contests.

MR. JOHNSON'S ORATORY.

MANY of the personal characteristics of Mr. Johnson and many of his political errors are to be ascribed, we believe, to the fact that he is practically unacquainted with the qualities, dispositions, and feelings of a community each member of which stands on an equal footing with all the rest, and in which a general intelligence is promoted by a sense of common interest. He has had the misfortune to reside in a society divided by strongly marked distinctions of class, by opposing interests, and by prejudice on the one hand and ignorance on the other.

His political opinions and acts are the natural results of a character formed under such influences. What is best in them is the expression of certain native, strong, and generous tendencies, and of those great fundamental principles of American politics, the virtue of which, however enfeebled, could not be rendered wholly ineffectual in the slave States. What is worst in them is the expression of the warping and weakening of a vigorous but narrow nature under the strain of the false doctrines and ideas that have prevailed at the South ever since the formation of the Constitution.

The men whom the South has called statesmen and from whom it has accepted its chief political teaching have, with few exceptions, largely exhibited the qualities of demagogues. The conditions of Southern society—an aristocracy in combination with a nominal democracy—fostered the demagogic spirit in its leaders, and the long alliance between the slaveholders of the South and the miscalled Democratic party in the free States was essentially a league between

the demagogues of the one section and of the other, and was maintained and confirmed by purely demagogic arts and stratagems. The majority of the leading politicians at the South not only secretly despised the people, but, after denying the validity of democratic principles—the principles of the Declaration of Independence and of the Constitution—at length arrived, as we all remember, at open scorn of the people, scoffing at them as "mudsills," and suggesting the propriety of enslaving the working classes generally.

To the party of these men Mr. Johnson belonged during all his early public life. He was bred not only in their principles but to the use of their arts. Two causes united to save him from following them into rebellion: the first, we must believe, was a genuine love of the Union and hatred of treason; the second was a bitter ingrained animosity to that class of social aristocracy which had looked down upon him as a tailor, had shut its doors upon him in Nashville, and refused him admission within its exclusive ranks—exclusive of all not powerful enough to command admission on grounds of policy—and had thus wounded his pride.

But, though severing himself from his party, Mr. Johnson could not get rid of the effects of his training. He has, indeed, learned and unlearned much during the past five years; but his recent speeches and actions show how little he comprehends the moral instincts and sentiments of America, how completely he undervalues the intelligence of the people, and how readily he resorts to the arts of the demagogue who in his heart despises the crowd that he flatters and tries to mislead. His accidental position and fortuitous hold of power set his qualities in relief. There is a saying of Plutarch, cited by Lord Bacon, to the effect that men of weak abilities set in great place are like little statues set on great bases, made to appear the less by their advancement. It is so with Mr. Johnson. His faults might have escaped observation in the secondary position from which the stroke of fate uplifted him.

No man could have made a greater mistake, to speak of it by its lowest designation, than Mr. Johnson has done in using the oratorical arts once successful in Tennessee in dealing with the affairs of the nation. There is no people with whom those arts are likely to prevail less than with the people of the free States. As was well said in the admirable article on "The President on the Stump," in the last number of the "North American Review," "the majority of Americans have too much good sense to be flattered by an allusion to the humbleness of their Chief Magistrate's origin; the matter of interest for them being rather to ascertain what he has arrived at than where he started from, we do not mean in station, but in character, intelligence, and fitness for the place he occupies. The people do not take it as a compliment to be told that they have chosen a plebeian to the highest office, for they are not fond of a plebeian tone of mind or manners." When Mr. Johnson, in his recent speech to "the soldiers and sailors," says he wants to know why "the whole train of slanderers, calumniators, and traducers are barking and snapping at his heels," and answers his question with another, "Is it because I stand on the side of the people? And when I say the people, I include the sailors and soldiers," we have the very voice and tone which indicate how low an opinion the speaker has of that people of whom he professes himself the patron. His still more recent speech to the colored men exhibits the same qualities in so marked a degree as to read like a piece of the keenest satire. It is bitterer irony than Mr. Johnson's "slanderers, calumniators, and traducers" could invent.

VERSE-MAKING.

It was once the custom in many reviews, calling themselves Christian and civilized, and so regarded each by its private sect or following, to immolate at least one young poet quarterly at the shrine of stony-faced and rocky-bosomed criticism. It was esteemed a charming diversion, if not an act of religion, in the days of Mr. Gifford or of Mr. Wilson Croker, to make some timid and feeble rhymer ridiculous, to put him out of countenance by merciless sneering, and to demonstrate his foibles and failures for the amusement of a gigg in; public. Pope set the fashion of denouncing dunces, and all the writers who had bad hearts, and could string together ten-syllabled couplets, thought it manly and vigorous to follow his somewhat peevish example. Criticism, however purposeless and virulent, is apt to assume the airs of an offended and impatient morality, and to take credit to itself for smiting remorselessly and conscientiously. But imbecility, at least when it is inoffensive, should be privileged, and professional flaw-picking, exercised sheerly for the purpose of giving pain, is no more respectable than the professional flogging and pickling which prevailed not long ago in certain parts of the United States. At the same time, while avoiding all personal application, we may venture to point out a foible which is a well-marked and not altogether an encouraging characteristic of our own day, and to suggest to the innumerable writers of verse that, however much they may be permitted to sing for their own sake, the world just now has but small need of their wares. Goethe once boasted that, in all his life, he had "never thought about thinking," and we would enter a protest which we are sure is honest, and which we think is timely, against the making of verses for the sake of verse-making. Metrical indulgence, both in England and this country, has grown into an epidemical and inveterate habit, not cultivated as it should be, if at all, in a corner, but published to all the world, which is continually challenged to admire endless variations of a few themes long ago worn threadbare. Facility of execution, at best a natural or acquired knack, is mistaken for genuine inspiration; nor does there seem to be any pretence of considering whether the world is in need of any addition to its already large poetical stock. It is with the most sincere kindness that we take the liberty of pointing out, particularly to the young, the waste of time, of strength, and of mental serenity which this universal strumming involves.

Twenty years ago there was exhibited in London a machine, not the human product of a college, but literally a material machine, which made excellent Latin hexameters. The unfortunate inventor had spent thirteen precious years of his life in perfecting "the Eureka," as he called it. Without wasting our time in explaining this curious puzzle, it is enough to say that it actually ground out hexameters which were like those of Virgil in some respects, but considerably unlike them in others.

It seems to us that it is very much in this way that many modern brains produce what its authors call poetry, and its judicious critics verse. It is a literal making. The memory is full of phrases, the ear of familiar quantities; fashion or accident supplies the subject, and daily practice renders the construction easy. So skilful sometimes is this species of metrical manufacture, that it is hard to determine with accuracy, while we feel its deficiency, in what that deficiency consists. There is a modest respectability which deceives the careless reader who accepts sound for sense, without any suspicion of the trick which is played upon his ear. Coleridge once wrote a few verses of absolute nonsense in the manner of Dr. Darwin, which he read to a lady, who rewarded him by seriously exclaiming, "Ah, Mr. Coleridge, now I see that you *are* a poet." This we admit to be an extreme illustration; but there are thousands of rhymers now spinning longs and shorts, and sometimes confounding them, whose work, we must say unfortunately, has just sense enough in it to save it from wholesome and decisive condemnation. If they were absolute fools they would soon be laughed into silence; but as their stanzas are to a certain extent rational, the good-natured public receives them with a fatal affability, and has no call to forgive a mediocrity which it is too indolent or too indifferent to detect. Every editor receives bushels of verses which he might print, if he had but room for them, without any particular discredit to his taste or judgment. Their authors naturally do not understand their rejection. "Is not this," they say, "as good as Tennyson? Is it not, at least, very much like him? Does not this remind you of Mr. Browning? Might not this be mistaken for one of Mr. Longfellow's own productions?" Of course there is bitter disappointment.

We readily admit that verse-making is an elegant accomplishment, an innocent amusement, and a real auxiliary in the education of the mind to elevated habits and a daily recognition of the comely and ideal in spite of the pertinacious intrusion of the inevitable vulgarities of life. It is, or it can be trained to be, a protection against those low aims and selfish purposes into the adoption of which we are so easily betrayed. As the record of our best experiences and healthiest discipline, as a memorandum of our sincerest resolutions and most earnest regrets, as a relief to the sorrow which otherwise might too bitterly prey upon the mind, as a grateful tribute to love or to affection, as the natural expression of a certain class of noble and lovely thoughts, verse may be the readiest and most appropriate form of recording so much of our life as we wish especially to remember. It may train the hand as a fine landscape trains the eye, and make the best words and phrases habitual in our conversation. But the chief charm not less than the chief utility of this private verse-making is in its indomitable privacy, and in the indignation and just self-estimate with which it shrinks from publication. "I have painted many bad pictures," said a gentleman

in our hearing, "but I have never exhibited them;" and there was wisdom in the painting not less than in the privacy. It was well to paint—it was well also to conceal; it is well to write verse—it may be excellent to keep it in one's portfolio, to be resolute against sending it to the newspapers, to be chary of reading it to the best beloved and most patient of friends. It is certainly no argument against the validity of any composition that it embodies thoughts and feelings which, though novel to the individual, are yet common to the race; but this consideration diminishes the necessity and propriety of formal publication, and should warn us against the sheer vanity of parading truisms which, however fine and familiar, are truisms still. It is the secret of poetical vitality that it expresses what the majority of men have felt, and after one happy spirit has found fit words and music for the general thought, a mockery of the original song becomes easy to hundreds who sing from a recollection of what has pleased them, and ape the minstrel airs of the Byron of yesterday or of the Tennyson of to-day. It is wonderful how much clever journey-work of this kind is performed, and from one point of view it is encouraging, for the prevalence of this accomplishment does indicate, we are free to admit, a degree of popular refinement, and even a good deal of appreciative taste. But there is nothing new in it. We suppose that there was a mob of gentlemen in Rome who wrote easily, as we know that there was in England in the days of Dryden. But schools, magazines, newspapers, have made this poetical imitation cheap and common, while the passion for printing has kept pace with the multiplied mechanical facilities of printing—the power-press being responsible for thousands of volumes which nothing can save from oblivion, and which represent more heart-burning, more disappointment, and more ludicrous self-complacency than we care to compute. Poetry has grown to be like photography. We have all one's friends and acquaintances in our albums in their holiday raiment and with a perpetual putting on of their best looks; and altogether they are not worth so much to us as some old portrait of some unknown man or woman long ago dead, the painter of which knew the secret of avoiding that air of conscious propriety which no sitter before the camera can put off. There is no fault to be found with the photograph except the paradoxical one that it is so extremely like that it is not like at all. It is equally hard to say, sometimes, why or in what poetical disciples are not the equals of their masters; but the mysterious vice of imitation makes us indifferent to their best stanzas and deprives their finest tunes of the charm of sincerity. Byron said of Mr. Sotheby that he had imitated all the poets of his time, and had occasionally beaten all his models; yet a verse-maker more entirely forgotten than Mr. Sotheby we cannot at this moment remember.

We protest, in conclusion, that we have no quarrel with the *cacoëthes scribendi*, which we believe may often be turned to good account. It is from the folly of printing or of attempting to print that we would good-naturedly dissuade hundreds of estimable persons. The young gentleman who can make a clever sketch does not send it to the Artists' Exhibition. The young lady who can play tolerably well a concerto of Beethoven does not advertise a concert at the Academy. The best declaimer of the "private theatricals" does not apply to Mr. Wallack for an engagement. If we have amateur fiddlers and painters and pianists content with strictly domestic glory, why may we not have amateur versifiers building the lofty rhyme without the least ambition, and sending their sonnets to the seclusion of their desks, or to the albums of their gentle if not judicious friends? It may be pleasant to print, but it is also pleasant to burn; and to those who have never experienced the latter gratification, we cordially commend the experiment.

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April 30, 1866.

GOLD has advanced to 129¼, closing this evening at 126⅛. Exchange has simultaneously risen to 108¼ for bankers' bills on London. One leading cause of the advance has been the cotton panic in England. Cotton fell in Liverpool 3½d. per lb. in a single week, making a fall of 6d. per lb. in less than two months—a decline quite unprecedented in the history of the cotton market. United States bonds have likewise declined from 74 dividend on, to 67½ dividend off. These changes, which foreshadow a diminished foreign enquiry for American cotton and United States securities, have naturally encouraged buyers and frightened sellers of coin. They would have proved less influential had the expected policy of the Secretary of the Treasury been actually inaugurated. But, though more than a fortnight has elapsed since the passage of the loan bill, not a word has been said in Washington about the long-promised contraction. On the contrary, the whole action of the Treasury Department, thus far, has tended to increase the supply of money at the financial centres, to reduce the rate of interest, to develop speculation, and, as a natural consequence, to impair the purchasing power of the currency. It is quite clear that if the currency is to remain as redundant as it is at present gold is by no means dear. If the Secretary of the Treasury is going to abandon the views expressed in his Fort Wayne speech and his annual report to Congress; if he is going over to the side of the paper-money men in Congress, and intends to postpone indefinitely the policy which only four months ago he pronounced indispensable to the safety of the nation, a premium on gold of 30 per cent., or even

40 or 50, would not be extravagant. Gold fell from 148 to 125 on the general belief that an honest effort was going to be made to resume specie payments. Congress refused to confer upon the Secretary the exorbitant powers which he solicited for the purpose of bringing about this result. But it conferred upon him powers ample enough to fund all the short-date obligations of Government, and to absorb a substantial portion of the idle money at the financial centres. He has not used those powers, or tried to use them. On the contrary, he has created so plethoric a money market that his debt certificates and 7.30 notes, all of which might have been funded at a discount, are now uniformly held at a premium. People are beginning to enquire whether the Fort Wayne speech and the Treasury Report really meant what they said, or whether they were *ad captandum* discourses, not intended to be carried into practical effect—stump speeches, to be forgotten after they had achieved their object?

A rather better feeling prevails in business circles, owing to the advance in gold and the non-appearance of the expected Treasury funding scheme. With the exception of cotton, which has fallen to 31 cents for middling uplands, in sympathy with the decline at Liverpool, all articles of merchandise are higher than they were a week ago, and in better demand at the advance. People generally are beginning to doubt about the future. Two and three months ago every one was satisfied that we were on the high road to resumption and that a shrinkage in prices was inevitable. The triumph of John Sherman and the other paper-money men in Congress gave the first shock to this creed; and now the inaction of the Secretary of the Treasury has unsettled it altogether. If it were generally understood that there was to be no contraction, business would revive at once, prices would rise, and we should in a few weeks be once more launched upon a wild sea of speculation.

Money is extremely easy. The rate for call loans is 4 to 5 per cent., the former being the rule on Governments, the latter on railway securities. The country banks, which are full of money, are trying hard to lend their deposits for 60 or 90 days at 5 per cent.; but speculators, feeling that for this once they have lenders at their mercy, prefer to borrow from day to day. Paragraphs in the Washington correspondence of the daily papers announce from time to time that the Secretary "is contemplating" a 5 per cent. loan, but thus far his contemplations have merely had the effect of putting his short-date obligations to a premium, and so blocking the path for an economical funding scheme. A 5 per cent. loan at the present time might prove a failure. In the first place, the 5 per cent. 10-40 bonds are offered at 95. So long as this is the case, it is doubtful whether even an absolute 50-year 5 per cent. loan could be placed at or near par. Again, in the Western States and at the South—considerably more than half the country—money is worth over 8 per cent. per annum, year in and year out. To draw this money into the Government coffers, 5 per cent. might prove too small a temptation. A long 6 per cent. bond would be likely to command attention. But why should a Western capitalist who can lend his money at 8 and 10 per cent. give it to Government at 5? Why should the holders of 7.30 notes exchange them for 5 per cent. bonds, when they can sell them at a premium, or, by simply holding them, receive seven-thirty per cent. in interest, and demand payment in full at maturity? And suppose Mr. McCulloch should offer a 5 per cent. bond, and people should decline to take it, how high would gold rise, and where would be the credit of Government?

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets during the past week:

	April 14.	April 21.	April 30.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	104⅞	106	108	2	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103¾	104⅞	105⅞	1	...
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103⅞	104⅞	105⅞	1	....
10-40 Bonds	92	93⅜	95	1⅝	....
7.30 Notes, second series	100¾	101⅞	101⅞	....	....
New York Central	93⅛	93	92⅝	....	⅜
Erie Railway	72⅛	73⅛	73¼	....	¼
Hudson River	109 ex. d.	109	110¼	1¼	....
Reading Railroad	104¼	104	105¾	1¾	....
Michigan Southern	80	82⅛	78¾	....	3¼
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	79¾	81¼	81	....	¼
Chicago and North-western	26⅞	26⅞	28⅝	1¾	....
" " " Preferred	55¾	57¾	58¾	1	....
Chicago and Rock Island	119⅛	121⅛	122¾	1¼	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	91¼	97⅛	98⅝	1⅛	....
Canton	52⅜	52⅛	56	3⅞	....
Cumberland	44⅛	44⅛	45	⅛	....
Mariposa	13	11⅛	12⅛	1	....
American Gold	126⅜	126¾	126⅛	....	⅝
Bankers' Bills on London	107¾	107¾	108¾	⅛	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

A general advance took place in prices during last week, based altogether on the ease of money and growing doubts as to the sincerity of the Secretary's desire for contraction. To-day there has been some reaction. Excellent reasons might be given for a decline instead of an advance in stocks. Government securities are much higher here than abroad, and parties desiring to purchase would save money by sending their orders with the exchange to London. Railway business is steadily declining. On the very best authority, we report a falling off of not less than $10,000 a day on the New York Central, and $12,000 a day on the Erie—as compared with last year. An increase is reported in the papers in the traffic on the Michigan Southern and the Rock Island. But as it is known that in the course of the recent corners the directors have been saddled with the bulk of these stocks, these reports are not only disbelieved, but are received with derision. Experienced railroad men are confident that the earnings of all the roads will be less this year than last. Still, so abundant is the volume of paper money, and so despondent are the operators who pinned their faith to Mr. McCulloch's Fort Wayne speech and his Report to Congress, that prices rise steadily in the face of all reasons to the contrary, and the bears of Wall Street lose money daily. The New York Central relief bill has been returned to the Secretary of State without the Governor's assent; notwithstanding which, the stock is higher than it was a fortnight ago. Bankers are willing to lend 85 to 90 on the stock to borrowers in good credit, and there are plenty of speculators who are buying it up in expectation of a new carnival of speculation. A lively movement took place at one time last week in the Northwest stocks, which sold respectively as high as 59¾ and 31; they close considerably lower. Rock Island is dull but firm; the directors own the bulk of the stock, but would probably be willing to share with the public, if the latter were so disposed. Another spasmodic advance in Canton will be noted. Nothing further has transpired with regard to the purchase by Government. Michigan Southern is heavy and lower. The public show remarkable circumspection in dealing in this stock, and the cornerers may yet experience some loss in disposing of their stock. Fort Wayne has been as high as 101; it closes at 98½, after selling at one time to-day as low as 97¾. Among the people who, without being regular brokers or speculators, frequent Wall Street from time to time, and deal occasionally in stocks, the belief is gaining ground that the ease of money and the absence of any practical contraction will lead to fresh speculation in stocks and to higher prices, without regard to the intrinsic value of the properties dealt in. This theory will ensure its own verification if it be held by a sufficient number of persons. But the market is getting into a condition which would render a panic quite likely in the event of a change in the money market, or, what is more probable, an unexpected development of bankruptcy in a leading railway company.

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At the request of their numerous policy-holders, this Society have determined to declare their dividends ANNUALLY IN CASH: the first Dividend will be declared February 1, 1867. The last Dividend declared on the quinquennial plan reduced the premiums in some cases more than 50 per cent., or doubled the policy during the next dividend period. It is believed, for the future, that no Company in this country will be able to present greater advantages in its dividends to persons assuring than this Society, as its total expenditure to cash premium received was, by the last New York Insurance Report, less than that of any of the older American Life Insurance Companies.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

The new business of this Society for the past year ($13,623,900) exceeds the new business of any New York Company in any previous year.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

Hereafter Dividends on the first annual premium may be used as Cash in the payment of the Second Annual premium, and so on thereafter the dividend on each premium may be applied to the payment of the next succeeding premium. Policy-holders in most other Companies MUST WAIT FOUR OR FIVE YEARS before any advantage can be derived from Dividends.

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ONE MILLION OF DOLLARS

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS,

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,341 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

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Edw. Reynolds, M.D., M. I. Perry, M.D.,
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BOSTON, February 29, 1848.

Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D.
" Brooklyn, C. L. Mitchell, M.D.

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FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
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New York, January 1, 1866.

The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, THURSDAY EVENING, MAY 3, 1866. NO. 45.

J. H. RICHARDS, Publisher, 130 Nassau Street. ISSUED EVERY TUESDAY AND FRIDAY. Five Dollars per Annum. Seven Cents per Copy.

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Topics of the Day.

A most extraordinary illustration of the haste and carelessness with which the work of law-making is sometimes done in our State Legislatures has just been afforded at Albany. A bill was forced through the last session of the Legislature with unprecedented secresy and despatch, taxing the merchandise brokers one per cent. on all sales of wine and ardent spirits, one-half per cent. on all sales of goods imported from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, and on sales of all other goods three-quarters per cent. This tax would amount, in many cases, to more than three times the amount of the brokerage which the brokers usually receive, and, if levied, would, we believe, pay the interest on the national debt, and what is of more consequence, would reduce New York to the position of a third-class port, and drive its business to Philadelphia and Baltimore. The finishing touch was given to the measure by a clause ordering all brokers, no matter how long they may have been doing business, to give bonds for $500 with two freeholders as security. The act has created great excitement and confusion in business circles. This is bad enough, but it is not half as bad as the fact—for such we understand it to be, that Governor Fenton signed it as a matter of course, and without knowing anything of its real significance, and that the New York delegation were in their places all through the session and saw the thing done without a word of warning or remonstrance. The occurrence, however, may not prove wholly unprofitable, if it turn the attention of business men to the commercial danger of having a city like this represented in the State Legislature by the nominees of dance-houses and grogshops.

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, has laid it down in the Senate that if four bodies of men meet in Washington, two professing to be the Senate of the United States, and two the House of Representatives, the President has discretionary power to decide which is the true and which the false Senate or House. The conclusion to which this doctrine points is, of course, not concealed. It would, in practice, arm the President with arbitrary power, and take away from Congress all right to judge of the qualifications of its members. Under it the Southern members might have seceded in 1860, and Mr. Buchanan have then pronounced them to be the true Congress, and have delivered the government over into their hands, and thus have saved them the trouble of fighting. Avowals like this of Davis's are mainly valuable as indicating the policy of the revolutionary party, and the nature of the danger with which we shall next have to contend.

Mr. Trumbull, we are glad to say, has succeeded in inserting an amendment to the post-office appropriation bill, providing that no person appointed during the recess of the Senate by the President to fill a vacancy not caused by death, resignation, expiration of term of office, or misconduct, shall receive any salary or compensation for his services. This, if sustained by the House and passed over the President's veto, for he will doubtless veto it, would be the first step towards a return to the practice of the earlier days of the Government, and would inflict the first blow on one of the most corrupt and corrupting practices of our day—the practice of making terms of office depend not on good behavior, but on political subserviency. The President professes horror of concentration of power; he has now a chance to prove his sincerity in a very striking way.

The officers of the Board of Health think that one case of cholera has occurred within the city limits. An Irishwoman living in the eastern part of the city, in a crowded tenement-house, fell sick on the afternoon of Monday last and died on Tuesday morning. The physician who attended her, and the physicians of the Board whom he called in to view the body, united in the opinion that her disease had been cholera. The Board is still at work, and we notice, and think it worth recording, that its Sanitary Committee has reported favorably upon the request of the homœopathic physicians to be assigned to hospitals. There is nothing like panic in the city, and there is no increasing of the disease at the quarantine ground. A second case is reported on Mulberry Street.

The committee appointed by the English bondholders of the Confederacy to look after their interests have submitted a series of propositions to Mr. Seward of a most extraordinary character. They seem to have come, at last, to the conclusion that they have been swindled by Erlanger & Co., the Confederate agents, and ask to have Erlanger's contract with the Confederate government supplied to them, as evidence, we presume, to be used in a suit. They also offer, if something handsome be done by the United States, or the several States, or somebody, with regard to the payment of these bonds, to get up a loan in London to aid in the development of the resources of the South. The correspondence is curious mainly as exhibiting the state of mind of the bondholders, who seem to be a stupid set of men, anxious to make money, decidedly indifferent as to means, and to have furnished splendid food for the sharks of the Confederacy. Mr. Seward dismisses the whole subject rather contemptuously, but the wonder to us is that he should have thought it worth while to sum the correspondence up as elaborately as he has done.

There is a most extraordinary despatch from Commodore Rodgers, giving an account of his attempt to prevent the bombardment of Valparaiso by the Spaniards. "Strict neutrality" had been enjoined on him by his instructions, but he offered to go beyond his orders if the English admiral would join him. The reasons he gives for his course are curious, as showing the tendency which prevails amongst our naval officers on foreign stations to shape the national policy on high moral or other high grounds. He proposed to interfere first "to keep the peace." Second, to prevent breaches of what neutral naval officers con-

sider "the law;" and lastly because "Chili having reached the goal in human progress marked by the establishment of religious toleration, Spain, on a point of etiquette, rather than from any great political end, as he believed, proposed to burn the property and destroy the towns along the sea coast as far as she saw fit." This is funny reading, but it is a literal quotation from the commodore's despatch. All his arguments are stale, having been freely used in France and England during our war to justify French and English intervention. We hope Mr. Welles has by this time addressed to him a line reminding him that it is Mr. Seward's business to deal with those abstruse questions, and that his (the commodore's) business is to sail or fight his squadron. We congratulate the Government on having such an experienced, accomplished, acute, and skilful diplomatist as General Kilpatrick in Chili, at the present juncture. He and Captain Rodgers, between them, will shed new light on a good many vexed questions of international law.

THE news from Germany is more re-assuring than heretofore. On the one side, the adventurous proposition of Count Bismark, addressed to the Germanic Diet, concerning the convocation of a general deliberative parliament, based on universal suffrage, to decide on Prussia's schemes for a re-organization of Germany, seems to have had an effect no little discouraging to the cabinet of Berlin. The people, in meetings as well as in the press, loudly express their unwillingness to follow as leader in so momentous a work a statesman whose whole career has been an unbroken series of flagrant encroachments upon constitutional rights and popular freedom. The secondary states of the Confederation, with the exception of Hanover and Electoral Hesse, which are prevented by the necessities of their geographical position, are concerting, under the lead of the Saxon minister Von Beust and the Bavarian, Von der Pfordten, a common line of action in reference to the aggressive moves of Prussia, which may serve to counterbalance the advantages to the latter of an alliance with Italy, who is said to be arming both by land and sea. On the other hand, Austria, slowly, if at all, advancing in her attempt to conciliate the Hungarians, terribly embarrassed by her financial condition, and undoubtedly anxious about the intentions of Russia, who is not idle in view of the new complications in the Danubian Principalities, shows a growing desire to come to terms with her German rival, even on unfavorable conditions. She is now asserted to have submitted to Prussia propositions for mutual disarmaments, according to which she was to reduce her military establishment on the 25th of April, and Prussia to do the like on the following day—a slight surrender, which would augment the previous advantages of the latter power in the Schleswig-Holstein question.

The Paris conference for the re-adjustment of the Moldo-Wallachian affairs shows no progress. In the meanwhile this question becomes more and more complicated. Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, by a kind of mock election, improvised by the provisional government, has been chosen to the Rouman throne, made vacant by the revolutionary overthrow of Prince Couza in February last. It is doubtful whether the German prince will accept a dignity already rejected by the Duke of Flanders, and very unlikely that the election should meet with an easy confirmation on the part of the Porte or of the "guaranteeing" powers. A bloody outbreak, attributed to Russian machinations, took place at Jassy on the 14th of April, the object of which was the separation of Moldavia from Wallachia. It was easily suppressed.

On the 15th an attempt to assassinate the Emperor Alexander was made at St. Petersburg by a disaffected nobleman. It failed by the timely interposition of a peasant, who pushed aside the assassin's pistol. Had it succeeded, the emancipator of the Russian serfs would have perished on the first anniversary of the death of Mr. Lincoln, the emancipator of the American slaves.

The election in the French Department of Bas-Rhin, which attracted so much attention, is over. The Government candidate, M. Bussière, has been elected by a majority of almost two-thirds of the votes cast. The friends of the distinguished Liberal candidate, M. Laboulaye, console themselves with the considerable democratic gain in the city of Strasburg.

The Upper House of the Hungarian Diet has adopted the second address of the Lower House, a work of Francis Deák.

CONGRESS.

DIARY.

Monday, April 30, 1866.—In the Senate, a bill for the construction of bridges across the Mississippi, and establishing them as post-roads, was passed. The Post-office appropriation bill was discussed, on an amendment proposed by Mr. Trumbull withholding compensation to officers appointed by the President without the advice and consent of the Senate.

In the House, Mr. Julian's resolution in favor of the speedy trial of Jefferson Davis was referred to the Judiciary Committee. Mr. Stevens, from the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, reported a proposed amendment of the Constitution, providing for equality of civil rights in all the States; for apportioning representatives to population, after deducting the numbers disfranchised for other cause than rebellion; for disfranchising in elections held for Congress and President until 1870 all voluntary participants in the rebellion; and prohibiting the United States or any State from paying rebel debts or compensation for slaves. Made a special order for May 8. The same committee reported a bill for the admission into Congress of senators and representatives from any State ratifying the above amendment, as soon as it shall have become a part of the constitution and said representatives have taken the required oaths of office. Also, a bill declaring certain persons lately in rebellion ineligible to office under the Government of the United States. The river and harbor bill, making appropriations for the survey and improvement of many harbors and rivers important to national commerce, was passed. A special committee to investigate charges against the Provost-Marshal-General's Bureau was ordered.

May 1.—In the Senate, a joint resolution, extending the time for the completion of the eastern division of the Union Pacific Railway to June 27, 1866, and extending the time for succeeding sections about one year, was passed. A long debate on the President's power of removal took place, with no conclusion.

In the House, Senate resolution appropriating $4,200,000 *per annum* for collecting the customs revenue was passed. A bill to regulate immigration in passenger ships was passed. A resolution requesting the President to instruct officers of the Freedmen's Bureau to provide for starving citizens of Alabama was passed. The bill making appropriations for the support of the Freedmen's Bureau was passed—yeas, 79; nays, 41. The bill to construct a ship canal around Niagara Falls was passed, the House previously refusing to lay it on the table by a vote of 32 to 85.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE April number of the *American Freedman*, organ of the American Freedmen's and Union Commission, undertakes for the first time to give a comprehensive and, as nearly as possible, accurate view of the number of schools at the South, their location by States and towns, and the societies by which they are sustained. According to the tables South Carolina is the most favored, having 129 schools in operation; Virginia next, with 104; then follow North Carolina, 80; Tennessee, 65; Maryland, 61; District of Columbia, 41; Georgia, 31; Florida, 29; Alabama, 28; Mississippi, 20; Arkansas, 10; Missouri, 8; Louisiana, 6; Kentucky, 5; Kansas, 4; Illinois, 3; Ohio, 1; in all, 613. Taking South Carolina and Kentucky as the extremes of the formerly slaveholding States, it appears that so far as the opportunities for a new life and a speedy regeneration are concerned, it has been for the latter State rather a misfortune than otherwise that she did not succeed in seceding together with the former.

—Dr. Wilson, principal of a freedmen's school in Columbus, Miss., having been threatened by persons hostile to his profession, the common council of the city passed resolutions condemning these menaces and promising protection to Dr. Wilson and his assistants whilst engaged in their lawful pursuits.

—The bill making appropriations for the Bureau for the year commencing January 1, 1866, passed the House on Tuesday. The items amount to upwards of ten million dollars; $21,000 being assigned for school superintendents, and $500,000 (in place of $3,000,000, as originally reported) for sites for school-houses and asylums.

—Telegraphic despatches represent that a serious riot broke out in Memphis, in the southern part of the city, on Tuesday evening, occasioned by an attempt of the police to arrest a white man whom the negroes desired to protect. The troops were called out and restored order, which was interrupted again in the morning by a renewal of hostilities, in which, as on the day before, both black and white men lost their lives. "Fears are entertained," says the second despatch, Wednesday evening, "that the negroes will attempt to burn the city, but they are groundless up to the present time." The third despatch, a little later, says: "Fires are raging in South Memphis *among the negro quarters*. No effort is being made to quench the fires." It is impossible at this hour to fix the responsibility for this unhappy conflict.

Notes.

LITERARY.

Late French journals bring us intelligence of the death of M. Gustave de Beaumont, in Paris, at the age of sixty-five. M. de Beaumont will be remembered by the readers of De Tocqueville as having accompanied the latter in his famous visit to this country in 1831, and as having edited the latest editions of De Tocqueville's works, to which he contributed much new and valuable matter. Elected member of the Chamber of Deputies in 1839, he distinguished himself as a political economist; nine years later he was appointed ambassador to Vienna, a post which he soon resigned. The *coup d'état* was his exit from political life—a happy one, as regarded his literary reputation, since it afforded him an opportunity for study and reflection. He published many works, among others one on the social, religious, and political condition of Ireland; a second on "Slavery in the United States." His most important work is, perhaps, his "Treatise on the Penitentiary System of the United States and its application to France." M. de Beaumont was a member of the French Institute, where his death has left a vacant chair to be sought after and intrigued for.

—Those who are curious as regards the history of royal impostors in general, and in particular as regards those who passed themselves off as Don Sebastian of Portugal, after the death of that "madcap youth" in the sands of Africa, may be interested in knowing that a volume has been written upon the last by Don Miguel d'Autas, Portuguese chancellor of legation at the French court, under the title of "Les Faux Don Sebastien, Etude sur l'Histoire de Portugal." Beginning with a biography of Don Sebastian, which rivals that of any hero of old romance, especially in its fatal and mysterious close, Don Miguel d'Autas proceeds to give us the history of the false Sebastians—the King of Penamacor, Matheus Alvarès, Gabriel de Espinosa, and Marco Tulio—and of the means by which they succeeded in imposing themselves and their claims upon the credulity of the Portuguese people, who would not believe for a long time that their king was really dead. This curious episode of imposture is worth all the study which the writer has bestowed upon it, standing pre-eminent as it does in the checkered history of royalty.

—Dr. A. Büchner, who possesses the rather remarkable talent of writing well in four different languages, Latin, German, English, and French, has just published in the last a work upon the comedies of Shakespeare, which he considers vastly inferior to his tragedies, ranking Shakespeare as a comic writer far below Molière, and even Ben Jonson. Sadness, he thinks, is the chief element of the English stage, the comic element being merely introduced to relieve its sombre aspect, and to divert for a moment the overwrought attention of the spectators. This is true, in a certain sense, of its profoundest efforts, as "Hamlet," "Lear," and "Othello," but it would not be easy, we fancy, to convince the students of Shakespeare in this country and England that the grave-diggers in "Hamlet," the fool in "Lear," *Falstaff* in "Henry IV.," and other comic characters in Shakespeare's tragedies, were merely thrown in to light up the shadows and to make the groundlings laugh. In Shakespeare, as in human life, the comic and tragic elements are inextricably mingled, Dr. Büchner and his thesis to the contrary notwithstanding.

—The course of the authorities of the Roman Catholic Church is often as inexplicable in literature as in theology. A case in point has recently come to light, being that of Professor Tischendorf, who has a European reputation from his discovery of the Biblical text known as the "Codex Sinaiticus," and who was recently sent to Rome by the Emperor of Russia to compare it with the "Codex Vaticanus," which was published many years ago by Cardinal Mai. In the course of his studies Professor Tischendorf discovered many grave errors in the latter which he was naturally anxious to correct. He arrived in Rome and was presented to the Pope, from whom he obtained permission to examine the "Codex Vaticanus." He went to the Vatican for several mornings and pursued his labors, but was finally stopped by the intimation that the permission which had been extended to him was suspended. Why it was suspended he was not able to learn, nor, at the last accounts, had he been able to resume his studies in the Vatican. A few years since, the University of Oxford requested of the Roman authorities photographic copies, of the size of the original, of several texts of this same "Codex Vaticanus," among others of a portion of Matthew, extending from the 52d verse of the 27th chapter to the 10th verse of the 28th chapter inclusive, which request was promptly and decidedly refused. There must be something in all this, one cannot help thinking, adverse to the pretensions of the Catholic Church, theological as well as literary.

—The most absurd notions which have ever obtained in regard to the cosmical phenomena are undoubtedly to be found in the legends and theories of the Buddhists, which have recently been made the subject of a volume by R. Spence Hardy. According to the Buddhist philosophers, the universe is peopled by innumerable worlds, in sections of threes. In the centre of each system there is a mountain one million six hundred and eighty miles from base to summit (there is nothing like exactness in trifles of this sort), which stands on a three-peaked rock, which stands in turn upon a world of stone. A stone ridge, or wall, runs round each system, thirty-six millions one hundred and three thousand five hundred miles in circumference. Between this wall and the central mountain are seven rocky circles and seven seas, the dimensions of which correspond to those already given. There is a sun and a moon to each system, but they are amazingly small compared to the worlds they are expected to light, the former being only fifteen hundred miles in circumference, and the latter just thirty miles less. Eclipses are the work of a demon named Ráhu, who has a mouth three thousand miles deep, into which he occasionally crams "the greater and the lesser lights," which he does not attempt to hold, however, for fear the bawling gods should escape through the crown of his head, no easy feat, one would think, judging of its density by his proceedings. In the seas of the Buddhist worlds there are fish ten thousand miles long; and when one of these, who is only half that length, a playful little creature called the Timira Pingla, shakes his left ear the water is disturbed for five thousand miles about. The size of the birds corresponds in a measure with that of the fish, one being fifteen hundred miles long, while the trees on the average are not over one thousand miles high, which makes them, we should say, rather inconvenient roosting-places for the Buddhist birds. Not less, but rather more, extraordinary are the lions, which are of different colors, as black, dove-colored, yellow, and mealy—the latter species having mouths and feet as red as sealing-wax. At one spring they can jump eleven thousand two hundred feet, and can run fast enough to overtake the echo of their own voices.

—It is not a good thing to be a literary Bohemian in Bohemia, whatever it may be elsewhere. So at least we judge from a statement recently made by Kober, a well-known publisher of Prague, who says that books written in his vernacular not only do not pay, but entail a positive loss on their publisher, no matter how much they may be needed and however well they may be spoken of. He issues a prospectus of a "Französisch-Tschechisches Wörterbuch," by Dr. Gabriel, the MS. of which he purchased three years ago, and which he has but just made up his mind to publish at the cost of four thousand florins, a portion of which, he feels certain, will be lost, although the work in question is the first of its kind in Bohemian literature. As an instance of the loss which awaits such undertakings, he mentions Wojaczek's "Lateinisch-Deutsch-Tschechisches Lexicon," which everybody implored him to undertake, but which, when published, only found one hundred and fifty purchasers in two years. So with "Don Quixote," a beautiful book, with one hundred and fifty original illustrations by Manes and Purkynje, only three hundred and fifty copies of which were sold, while it required at least the sale of nine hundred copies to meet the mere outlay. This last failure might be accounted for on the ground that "Don Quixote" was a foreign work; but, unfortunately, the works of native writers fare no better in Bohemia, for Kober announces that he has been compelled to discontinue the publication of the "Tales and Romances of Karoline Swetla," the most noted of the Bohemian novelists.

SCIENTIFIC.

Preservation of Meat.—A novel and somewhat elaborate method of preserving meat is now being carried out upon the large scale in England, and appears to be attracting considerable attention there—the more, no doubt, because of the prevailing Rinderpest and the consequent dread that a scarcity of butcher's meat is imminent. A noteworthy peculiarity of the new process is that by means of it the flesh is preserved in the fresh, raw condition; no processes of cooking, such as are involved in the usual methods, being here applied. The joints of meat to be preserved are placed in tin canisters provided at either end with short metallic tubes. After their lids have been securely soldered, the canisters are placed in a strong iron chest, in the upper story of the factory, and, by means of elastic tubes, the bottom tube of each canister is attached to a pipe which runs along the floor of the chest, while the upper tubes of the canisters are in like manner connected with a corresponding pipe at the top of the chest. Water is now caused to flow into the chest and canisters until both are completely filled with it; the lid of the chest is then shut and screwed down, so as to be air-tight. By means of the

water, the air which was previously in the canisters is almost entirely expelled. This first stage of the process being complete, the water supply is shut off, and the second part of the process begins. Connected with the floor of the chest are two perpendicular pipes which pass down to a well in the basement, a distance of upwards of thirty-five feet. One of these vertical pipes opens into the cavity of the chest, while the other is connected with the interior of the canisters by means of the horizontal pipe which runs along the floor of the chest. By opening the appropriate cocks, the first of the vertical pipes is placed in communication with the chest, and the second with the canisters. Two water barometers are thus formed; all the space within the canisters and chest being now a vacuum at the summits of these barometers. The chest is made strong enough to withstand the pressure of the atmosphere, and the vacuum is made within it in order that the tin canisters may not collapse upon being exhausted. When the water has all sunk down out of the canisters, as is ascertained by vacuum gauges, the cocks in the vertical pipes are closed and nitric-oxide gas is allowed to flow into the canisters and chest simultaneously. The nitric-oxide combines at once with any traces of oxygen which may still be adhering to the meat or tin, and neutralizes it completely. The chest and canisters are now again filled with water, which, as it enters, drives the nitric-oxide into an appropriate gas-holder. A vacuum is again created, and into it is finally made to flow a current of nitrogen gas mixed with a small proportion of the nitric-oxide. The lid of the chest is now opened, each one of the canisters is carefully lifted, its lower tube secured by first pinching and then soldering it; a quantity of sulphurous acid gas proportionate to the weight of the meat is then forcibly injected into each canister through the upper tube, which is then closed and soldered. The canisters are finally exposed to a temperature of 90° during several days in order to test their integrity, and are then sent to market.

The process in question will evidently be somewhat more expensive than the ordinary, well-known cooking process of Appert, but nevertheless promises to yield a product of so much higher quality that the extra cost will be more than compensated for. It would even appear that the inventors of the process as yet only seek to use it for the preservation of the better quality of meat, the best joints only of the animal being subjected to this process, while the coarser pieces of meat, and those of inferior grade, are treated by the old method of Appert. Attempts to apply the new process in the grazing districts of Australia are already in progress, and there seems at last to be some promise that the teeming life of the southern hemisphere may really become in some measure available to supply northern races with force needed for the advancement of northern civilization.

Supernumerary Fingers.—A discussion upon the subject of supernumerary fingers, which took place at a recent meeting of the Surgical Society of Paris, was somewhat remarkable for the discrepancy of opinion which was elicited as to the frequency of the occurrence, and is on that account interesting, as going to illustrate the freaks and accidents of which the statistician may be the sport.

One physician had observed numerous instances of extra fingers during a two years' residence at the Foundling Hospital; another could not regard the deformity as a rarity; while a third declared that among about 10,000 new-born infants which had come under his notice he had met with an extra finger but once; the fourth speaker asserted, on the contrary, that the deformity in question must be very common, for he had himself seen some fifteen cases; while the fifth stated that he had seen not only a great number of instances of supernumerary fingers, but even of supernumerary hands. Speaker number six remarked that during his twenty-five years' practice at the Maternité Hospital he had not met with more than ten of these cases, and that in a statistical record of the London and Vienna lying-in hospitals, comprising at least 14,000 children, it was shown that not a single instance of the deformity in question had occurred. The third speaker here re-entered the discussion for the purpose of remarking that the long service of his master (sixth speaker) at the Maternité, joined with his own observations at the same hospital and also at the Clinique, furnished the somewhat formidable number of from 90,000 to 100,000 infants, among whom only twelve or thirteen cases of extra fingers had been observed. At this point M. Velpeau turned the subject by speaking of the curious coincidences which chance often throws in the way of the medical practitioner, and cited, as an example from his own experience, the fact that he had once in private practice met with three instances of fracture of the neck of the thigh-bone upon the same day.

Manufacture of Chloroform.—As illustrating the extensive use which is now made of anæsthetic agents, it is noteworthy that, as recently stated by Prof. Simpson, the firm of Duncan, Flockhart & Co., of Edinburgh, make every day upwards of 7,000 doses of chloroform, counting two drachms as a full dose, or nearly 2,500,000 doses a year. In order to appreciate fully this statement, it must be borne in mind that it applies only to the product of a single manufactory, and that in many localities, as in the south of France and in our own country, sulphuric ether is employed to a much greater extent than chloroform for producing anæsthesia.

THE "CATHOLIC PARTY" OF CESARE CANTU AND AMERICAN SLAVERY.

Among the European notabilities who are now at Rome, the visitor probably most acceptable to the Pope and his confidential advisers is Cesare Cantù, of Milan, a member of the Italian Parliament, and the most prolific of Italian, if not of modern, historical writers. At the age of fifty, Cantù had composed and published a universal history in nineteen royal octavos, a history of the century between 1750 and 1850 in four smaller volumes, a history of the Italians in twelve large octavos, numerous historical works of less extent, some romances, and many essays, reviews, and pamphlets. His larger works had gone through many editions, successively revised by their author, and had been translated into more than one foreign language under the personal supervision of Cantù himself. The Americans are considered bold and rapid operators in book-making as well as in more purely material matters, but how poor does our literary enterprise appear when contrasted with such swift productiveness as this! Prescott and Bancroft devote a whole generation to historical study and composition, and with what results? Not above eight or ten moderate volumes apiece, and those embracing the history of but three or four countries for only as many centuries. The Italian, on the other hand, has surveyed all time, all space; and the entire labors of Marshall, Prescott, Bancroft, Motley, and Palfrey scarcely amount to half as many pages of letter-press as those of Cesare Cantù.

And yet his *furor scribendi* is by no means exhausted. He is now engaged on a voluminous history of Italian heresies and heretics, and one object—politicians think not the only one—of his present visit to Rome is the collecting of materials for this great work. The most secret recesses of the Vatican will be thrown open to him—under supervision, of course—and if he would make a judicious and candid use of the stores at his disposal he might produce a most important contribution to the history of the great struggle of the sixteenth century between the intellect and conscience of man on one side and ecclesiastical ambition and unreasoning authority on the other. He might show, for instance, the hollowness of that widely received but shallow platitude which—in the face of the notorious facts that southern France, with a Provençal population, is very largely Protestant, the northern departments, inhabited by the Norman and Germanic stock, almost exclusively Catholic; that the German Swiss cantons of Lucerne and Friburg are intensely Catholic, French Geneva ultra Protestant; that the great European school most thoroughly imbued with the principles of Jesuitism is the Belgian university of Louvain; and that, at this moment, even the Neapolitan clergy are half detached from Rome—continues to assert that the races of southern Europe are by nature essentially Catholic, those of the northern countries constitutionally inclined to a Protestant faith and ritual. He might further prove that in the sixteenth century the principles of the Reformation were received in Italy with as much avidity as in Germany itself; that the book of which the largest number of copies were sold in Italy for a hundred years after the invention of printing was Paleario's argument for the fundamental doctrines of Protestantism; and that nothing but the sword and the scaffold prevented the universal acceptance of those doctrines in Italy, and even in Spain, during the reign of Charles V. and his successor.

But the friends of the "priestcraft" which "never owns its juggles" need entertain no apprehension of indiscreet revelations from the pen of our historian. Cantù has not forgotten his old associations, or shaken off the principles he imbibed, the shackles he voluntarily assumed, in days long by-gone. He is what his countrymen, in a spirit of derisive, but too often unjust, sarcasm call a *prete spretato*, a dispriested priest, and thus belongs to a class of persons who are regarded in all Catholic countries with a certain degree of jealousy, if not of aversion. It is but fair to say that most Italian ecclesiastics who renounce their profession, renounce with it the narrowness and the superstition by which it is usually characterized. Some of the most liberal and enlightened statesmen of modern Italy, some even of her bravest and ablest soldiers, have once worn the cowl, and no small number of the most determined and generous champions of civil and religious liberty on both sides of the Atlantic are secularized priests who, in throwing off the uniform, have abjured also the creed of the Romish church.

But Cantù is far from being a good specimen of the enlightened body of secularized ecclesiastics designated by the epithet I have quoted. He is a bigoted sectarian, obscurantist in religion, and a retrograde in politics. So strong, indeed, is public opinion against him in Italy that, on his first election as a member of the national Parliament, about two years ago, a large majority of the Chamber of Deputies refused him admission to their body, as a man notoriously hostile to Italian liberty and the general interests of modern civilization. Upon his re-election, however, he was admitted to a seat; but he has remained a wholly uninfluential member, and it may be fairly said that his support is prejudicial to the success of any policy he espouses.

Cantù, though by no means an accurate or a comprehensive scholar, is well read in the ancient, mediæval, and modern literature of his own country. He is an industrious compiler, dexterous in the use of his materials, and plausible in the presentation of his conclusions. His historical works are attractive in style and lucid in arrangement and narrative; they are accompanied with appendixes of interesting illustrative matter and documentary evidence, and they are marked by an affectation of candor and liberality which, combined with a parade of citation and other historical proof, disarms suspicion and recommends them to superficial readers as impartial and trustworthy sources of information. Hence they had become very popular, and have been much used as convenient manuals by persons who do not by any means sympathize in the now well-understood principles and aims of their author. But searching criticism has convicted him of gross carelessness in citation of authorities, and of very numerous errors in statement, if not of positive and deliberate perversion of truth, and he no longer enjoys the confidence of competent critics in Italy as either a judicious or a fair-minded historian.

But, while he is losing character at home, he is gaining popularity abroad, and it may not be amiss to put American students on their guard against his forthcoming work, which, however it may be varnished over with a specious show of impartiality and Christian charity, will be in reality a covert sophism in defence of the detestable doctrines of the recent encyclical letter, namely, the temporal and spiritual supremacy of the Pope, and the right and duty of combating dissent from the dogmas of Rome with the old arguments of the rack and the fagot.

Americans in general are not familiar enough with the materials out of which the annals of the Old World are constructed to be competent judges of the soundness or fairness of Cantù's critical appreciation of the facts or principles of European history; but the following passages, which I translate literally from a note on page 763 of the sixth volume of the ninth Turinese edition of his "Universal History," revised by himself, and printed in 1865, will serve to give a just notion of his accuracy and love of truth in regard to American matters. It should be premised that the first paragraph of the extract is substantially a reprint from a former issue; the second was evidently written for the present edition:

"The number of the [United] States has now increased to fifty-one, and in the present century the population has risen from four to twenty-three millions. New York, which in 1793 numbered thirty-two thousand inhabitants, now counts above half a million. The Valley of the Mississippi, which then had a population of four hundred thousand souls, has now thirteen millions. Monroe, who afterwards became President, declared in 1828 that the Union claimed the right of intervention in the affairs of Europe, and that America belonged to the Americans, not to [foreign] colonists. On this ground they are continually threatening Cuba, and the incursions of daring chieftains, like Walker, who occupied Nicaragua, are only the preludes of new conquests, especially in Central America, which has now become important in reference to the communication between the two oceans, whether by railways or a canal. The Know Nothing faction is striving to secure the ascendency of the native element, not fearing for that object to brave the wrath of England, which submits even to insult to avoid a war which would deprive her of her supply of the cotton that furnishes subsistence to half her population. The Democratic party is always aiming to invade and absorb new territory, in order to introduce slavery into it, while the party called Catholic desires the abolition of slavery.

"The cause above indicated, namely, slavery, produced, in 1861, the outbreak of a war between the Northern and Southern States which cost 2,250 millions of dollars a day, and has sacrificed the whole prosperity of the country as well as an infinite number of lives. It was only in 1865 that the Southern States were again reduced to submission."

If we concede that historical honesty does not imply reasonable diligence on the part of a writer in ascertaining the actual character of the facts he sets forth, we may admit that most of the misstatements in the foregoing paragraphs were *innocently* made; but we must admit at the same time that the author's indifference to the truth is fully equal to his ignorance of it. In other words, if he did not know that he was misrepresenting facts, he cared as little whether he was or no, and framed his assertions to suit his purposes

But even this poor plea will not avail him in reference to the last clause of the first paragraph. The position of the "Catholic party" in America on the slavery question is as well understood in Europe as it is in the United States. In the second year of the war, the French Bishop of Orleans publicly attacked Bishop Hughes for his pro-slavery sentiments, and Montalembert has confessed and feelingly deplored the general complicity of European Catholicism in the sympathy of American Romanists with the cause of slavery and rebellion. Cantù's relations with Rome are so intimate that he could not possibly be ignorant of the fact, notorious to every political man not merely here in Rome, but throughout Italy, that the Pope and his court openly sympathized with and encouraged that cause through our whole struggle. Mr. Bancroft deserves the gratitude of his countrymen for drawing their attention to a truth which has been studiously disguised, and it is to be hoped that the thoughts of Americans may be turned much more earnestly to the fundamental connection between civil and religious liberty than for a long time they have been. Every man familiar with our party history knows that the American Catholics as a body have uniformly voted with the pro-slavery party, and it is too soon to forget that the Irish, who at the outbreak of the war affected enthusiasm for the Union, withdrew as far as possible from rendering aid to the national cause as soon as the war assumed an anti-slavery character on the part of the national government. He who knows how exclusively the political action of the Irish is controlled by their priesthood, and how submissive that priesthood is to Rome, will have no difficulty in conjecturing the source and cause of the cooling down of Hibernian zeal for the restoration of the Union.

Between all despotisms, temporal and spiritual, there is a solidarity. Lay and ecclesiastical princes sympathize in each other's triumphs, deplore each other's reverses. High churchism, irrespective of sect and country, Romish and Protestant, monarchical and republican, is everywhere hostile to every form of human liberty. During the late war our most rancorous European enemies were the clergy of the state churches. Christianity, as "established by law," asked no triumphs for institutions which proclaim that all men are equal before God as well as before the law, offered up no prayer that the rod of the oppressor might be broken and the bondman go free; and one need only have studied the columns of the *Saturday Review* and followed the fearful history of the recent troubles in Jamaica to perceive that even in enlightened Great Britain the "dissenter" and the democrat are as cordially hated as they are at benighted Barletta. VIATOR.

ROME, April 5, 1866.

PALFREY'S ABRIDGMENT.*

DR. PALFREY'S history has attained the dignity of an abridgment for popular use, being also eminently suitable for the use of schools, as we conceive. And this is no retrograde promotion, but a testimony to the substantial excellence of the work which will bear such reduction. However it may be with the heroes whose achievements are recorded in history, it is no disparagement to their historian—contrariwise, it is a compliment of a high order—to have it said of him, "Ut pueris placeat et declamatio fiat." We think that Dr. Palfrey will be found by the youth of America a gracious and engaging guide in the field he has chosen for his explorations. It is not always that an author is the fittest carver to cut himself down—to reduce by the Banting process works held to be too corpulent to a convenient macilency. But we think we can assure those of our readers who are not disposed to undertake the larger work that they can safely invest their time and money in the smaller one. The exhaustive fidelity of Dr. Palfrey's historical labors in his great work is guarantee enough that the lesser is as perfect as care and pains can make it.

It is obviously absurd to do more than speak in the most general terms of a work of the magnitude and laborious character of this "History of New England." It seems to us to be completely exhaustive of its subject, and that nothing remains for future writers in the field of enquiry to which Dr. Palfrey has limited his labors. The geography, the natural history, the meteorology, the manners and customs and way of living, the private as well as the public life of the most interesting race of which he treats, are all thoroughly examined and clearly set forth. A true son of New England, and full of the filial piety which marks and elevates the breed, he observes a judicial impartiality in relating and commenting upon their questionable actions—certainly setting down naught in malice, but as certainly ex enuating nothing. He gives due proportions to all the various parts into which New England is divided, and one rises from reading his work with a clear idea of the relative importance of the different colonies at that early time, of their relations to one another, and their effect on the later history of the

* "A History of New England, etc. Being an Abridgment of his 'History of New England during the Stuart Dynasty.' By John Gorham Palfrey." 2 vols. Hurd & Houghton, New York.

country. The transfusion of blood from one great member of the earth to another is one of the most interesting experiments—physical, physiological, psychological, and politico-economical—that the history of the world affords. This great experiment is yet going on and has not yet reached its crucial point. Thus far it has disappointed the theories of speculative philosophers as to its effect upon the free institutions which we have inherited through New England from Old England. The tremendous strain of the rebellion has been borne, and the prodigious change which the abolition of slavery, which flowed from it, has worked in the social condition of the South and in the political condition of the whole country, has been effected by the extraordinary commixture of blood and of nationalities of which the American people is now made up. The elasticity of temperament and of institutions which stood the tension of the rebellion, and the good sense, patience, and skill which are now called into action to make it a wholesome crisis instead of a malignant disease, lingering, if not mortal, we think may be reasonably attributed in a large measure to the New England element, which is found everywhere leavening the lump. The New England breed of men is singularly free from foreign blood. It is, as Dr. Palfrey says, "a type of the Englishman of the seventeenth century," and a type of the very best class of that time, "*Sincerum ab omni colluvione peregrini ac servilis sanguinis populum.*" With the excellent but unappreciable exceptions of the Huguenot and Scotch-Irish emigration, of 1685 and 1719, the New Englanders of today are of almost unmingled English blood—of the blood of the Englishman of 1642 and 1688. The great Irish and German emigrations of the last thirty years are things apart as yet, having had no perceptible effect on the race. The volumes of Dr. Palfrey tell the story of the gathering of the progenitors of this peculiar people in this New World, and of their hardships and their successes, and tell it well.

We do not doubt that the abridgment will answer a good purpose and meet the wants of a class of persons to whom the three large volumes might be a terror. But we should advise those whose courage or whose leisure is competent to the undertaking not to shrink from grappling with the work in its original shape. They will find it eminently readable and entertaining from beginning to end, full of curious and important matter, and, we believe, of impregnable authenticity.

Lays of the Scottish Cavaliers, and other Poems. By W. E. Aytoun. (W. J. Widdleton, New York.)—This is a new and pretty edition of a work that will long be popular. There is not much poetry, but occasionally, as in the "Execution of Montrose," there is a ring in the verse and a touch of energy that is able to stiffen a young lad's sinews as he declaims it, and summon up his blood, especially if the lad is Scottish and thinks himself a high Tory. Now that the day of democracy is come, ingenuous youth may be permitted to look backward and dream of feudalism, as the youth of threescore years ago looked forward and dreamed of pantisocracy and equal rights, until manhood comes to wake him.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, April 13, 1866.

SINCE the fashionable world has emerged from the penitentialities of Lent and the festivities of Easter, the principal feature of its gaieties has been a succession of brilliant "Bazaars," gotten up by various lady-leaders of Parisian dissipation, in aid of charitable societies patronized by them—the stalls having been held on these occasions by the proudest and most beautiful dames of the upper spheres of this gay capital. All these "Fancy Fairs" have proved splendid successes, that is to say, they have been crowded to suffocation, and have realized sums of money amazingly out of proportion to the intrinsic worth of the objects sold.

Among the most admired of the beautiful women, the sight of whom has constituted one of the main "attractions" of these gatherings, are three or four Americans, proclaimed, by common consent, "fairest of the fair." As several of the reigning belles of the American colony here are as conspicuous for the brilliance of *les beaux yeux de la cassette* of their respective papas as for the charms of their own visual organs, they are very dangerous rivals to the generally graceful, but rarely handsome, natives of this region, and are, accordingly, the objects of the most intense detestation of Parisian mammas, whose souls are perpetually vexed by seeing the highest prizes of the matrimonial lottery carried off by the fortunate daughters of "the Great Republic." Plenty of instances might be cited of fortunes and titles (some of the latter akin to royalty) thus won by American girls, to the immense disappointment and anger of maternal Paris, frustrated by these "interlopers" of the result of the patient net-spreading of successive seasons. Among other curious consequences of these intermarriages of Republican beauties with scions of European royalty may be mentioned the fact that charming Princess Helena of England, the especial darling of the widowed Queen "on whose dominions the sun sets not," will shortly, by her approaching marriage with Prince Christian of Augustenburg, become the niece of a lady of New York named Lee. The family of this lady established themselves some years ago in Paris, and speedily obtained a footing in the most fashionable circles of the capital. The elder of the two daughters married Baron Wachter, minister of Würtemberg to the court of the Tuileries; and the younger, soon afterwards, made a still more brilliant alliance, having captivated Prince Frederick of Augustenburg, brother of the late reigning Duke of Augustenburg, and uncle of the present Augustenburg princes. The marriage was solemnized at the American embassy in this city, and the prince and his bride started for the East on a wedding tour. Just as they had reached Beyrout, in Syria, the prince fell ill, and died. His widow returned to Paris to the house of her sister, Baroness Wachter, and is now about to become the aunt of an English princess.

It would be difficult to find a second group of sisters-in-law representing interests so violently contrasted as those which will thus have been brought together under the auspices of Queen Victoria. The Princess of Wales, daughter of King Christian of Denmark, the Crown Princess of Prussia, a Princess of Augustenburg, and Princess Alice of Hesse—which little state is menaced, like all the minor states of Germany, by what Austria calls the "insatiable land-greed" of her aggressive and unscrupulous rival—would seem to offer as pretty a set of elements for a family feud as could well be got together. In point of fact, they all seem to get on very amicably; but it can hardly be doubted that they must, at times, be conscious of a necessity for the exercise of something very like what would be called, in less exalted circles, "self-restraint." Happily for them, they are all kindly and amiable young women, and have been brought up not only in the habits of self-command so necessary in their position, but also with strong convictions on the subject of social conscientiousness and the sanctity of domestic peace.

Without attempting to divine the future of the "heir apparent" of the Napoleons, it may be stated, in general terms, that his youthful highness, just turned ten, is by no means an ordinary child, and that he already shows qualities that promise a maturity of no ordinary power. He is a handsome, well-formed boy, extremely active, both in mind and body; and though surrounded by all the observances of etiquette, really leads a life so simple and laborious as to remind one somewhat of that happy conceit by which Dickens shows us a young gentleman at a fashionable boarding-school being ceremoniously served, by a black-coated and white-gloved serving-man, with a penitential dinner of dry bread and water, advantageously displayed on a silver salver, with irreproachable accompaniments of silver fork, snowy napkin, and finger-glass.

The large room in which the young prince takes his lessons is plainly furnished, its principal piece of furniture being the large, low mahogany table, full of drawers and covered with leather, at which he works with his tutor, M. Mounier. On this table is a common porcelain inkstand, with pens and rulers of very democratic appearance. On either side of the inkstand are two small busts, of gold, of the Emperor and Empress and two miniatures of their Majesties painted on ivory, and, in front of these, a paperweight, whose marble base supports a figure of the First Napoleon, representing the founder of the house astride a chair in the traditional position, and admirably carved from a single block of ivory. At this table are two straw-bottomed chairs, one high and with its seat intact, being the usual seat of the tutor, and the other low, the edges of the seat worn and ragged, and the front rungs much the worse for the friction of restless feet, being that of the Imperial pupil. On the shelves of a small book-case are the works used for the prince's studies, containing a good many of the valuable elementary series written by M. Duruy, the present Minister of Public Instruction, and a collection of classical works, all plainly bound, worn, and dog's-eared. Besides the daily routine of book-lessons, with maps, globes, and the usual apparatus of the school-room, M. Mounier more particularly instructs his youthful pupil during the walks they take together. History is his favorite study, but all the phenomena of natural science interest him greatly, and he is never weary of talking of them. His powers of observation and investigation are remarkably developed for his age.

The little prince inherits from his father a very decided talent for drawing, paints prettily without having taken any lessons in the art, and copies maps and diagrams with remarkable correctness and neatness. During the Emperor's visit to Algeria, his Majesty having complained in one of his letters that he was greatly annoyed by the badness of the maps of the country, the little prince set to work with immense perseverance and activity, and prepared, with his own hands, a set of maps which he sent to the Emperor, and which the latter found to be far superior to any that he had been able

to obtain, and so useful that he wrote to the boy thanking him and telling him how much pleasure they had given him. The little prince dashes off pen-and-ink sketches with great boldness and spirit, and sometimes produces these compositions as *souvenirs* for persons presented to him. Thus, a few days ago, a literary gentleman, who had been presented to him, having begged Miss Shaw, his English governess, to ask his little highness to put his name to one of his drawings and give it to him, the prince, on receiving the request, replied, "I will make a drawing on purpose for him," and came a few minutes afterwards bringing in his hand the little composition he had just drawn, and which, the ink being still wet, represented a young man sitting under a tree and playing on a flute, with a dog sleeping at his feet. A huge oak fills the centre of the sketch, and to the right are shades of forest scenery. The prince, having signed this sketch and presented it, began to talk of his interest in the annals of empires in general, and of that of France in particular, and then took him to see the bust of his tutor, which he modelled entirely with his own hands, after quietly watching the manipulations of M. Carpeaux, to whom he had given several sittings for the bust of himself which the Empress had desired of that artist as a surprise for the Emperor on his return from Algeria. This bust, and also the one which he afterwards made of the Emperor, and which was placed on the Imperial table to await his Majesty's return from Algeria, though very roughly executed, are full of spirit, and striking likenesses. The "heir of the Napoleons" is very affable and unaffected, graceful and refined in appearance and manner, and grows every year more and more like his mother.

Some amusement has been created on both sides of the Channel by the determination of the Bretons to get up an "Eisteddfod," or general glorification of the old tongue, still so religiously cultivated in Wales, and formerly spoken on both banks of the Channel, and the invitation just addressed by the representatives of ancient Brittany to their brethren to come over and join in the proceedings. These will, no doubt, consist of the reading of essays asserting the superiority of the old British language to every other, of harp-playing, and the singing of extempore verses. Those distinguished Breton antiquaries, Viscount Hersaut de la Villemarqué and Count de Carné, will hold high festivals in their respective castles of Keransker and Marchallach during the "Eisteddfod," which is to be held next autumn at Vannes. To these two hospitable castles all the staunch Welch gentry are invited to repair, and it seems probable that the capacities of these and neighboring dwellings will be tested to the utmost by the descendants of King Arthur and his lusty knights.

THE MILITARY STRENGTH OF ITALY.

FLORENCE, April 13, 1866.

THE sole topics of conversation and speculation are "War or no war" and the fall of Italian funds. For a few days all the world believed in war, and now that the public has almost ceased to believe, the competent authorities shake their heads and say it is inevitable. That Italy will strike for Venice if Prussia bites as she barks, is certain; but then, Prussia caved in to Austria at Olmstud, and therefore may do so again. This time the retreat would be more disgraceful; but, then, liberal Prussia says that Prussia proper cannot be disgraced by the conduct of one man; that the King may throw Bismark overboard with profit to himself and his realm, and the smaller German states seem to be of the same opinion. As the case stands, the Prussian government has not only announced its intention of annexing the Duchies, and increasing, up to a certain point, its own power and territory, but also to change the military organization of the confederation; to concentrate in one hand all the forces of the north of Germany; to isolate Austria; to annul or considerably weaken the minor states. Will Austria consent to this? Will she allow the annexation, even if sanctioned by universal suffrage? Benedek, whose word is law, says: "Civilians have placed us in this predicament; only by the sword can we maintain our honor intact." Prussia hesitates; she has appealed to the minor States, who, while they have been taught by the Liberals that their only anchor of salvation lies in combination against Austria, have no love for Prussia, appeal to the eleventh article of the Federal contract, and, sheltering themselves under its provisos, wait to see who is strongest. The eleventh article runs thus:

"The Confederate states pledge themselves never to make war on each other, under any pretext whatsoever; never to settle their differences by force of arms, but to submit them to the Diet. The Diet will, by means of a commission, try mediation. If this fails, and if a judicial sentence be necessary, an extra legal jury must be formed, and the contending parties submit to its verdict without further appeal."

Thus the course to which Austria and Prussia are pledged is clearly indicated. If either, or both, refuse to fulfil the pledge, the Diet has the right to enforce its fulfilment; but if neither will submit, what can the other fifteen members of the German confederation hope to do? Clearly nothing. If, on the contrary, Austria and the larger states insist, the Diet will fulfil its mission, and Prussia must abide by the issue or illegally appeal to the sword.

Meanwhile the disputants are anxiously counting their relative numbers, and the Italians are no less eagerly calculating the forces which, by land or sea, they can muster for the occasion. A few days since the *Diritto*, the most influential newspaper of the parliamentary opposition, asserted that at the present moment Italy could not bring into the field more than 197,448 men, which statement the official organs indignantly denied, and to-day the War Minister, General D. Pettinengo, has published the following statement of the force and organization of the Italian army:

Officers under arms,	14,004
Non-commissioned officers and soldiers,	190,325
Officers on furlough,	1,754
Non-commissioned officers and soldiers on furlough,	148,660
Total,	354,743
In 1859 the sum total amounted to	83,299
Showing an increase of	271,444
Army, 1866,	354,740
Conscripts of 1842 and 1843,	150,000
" 1845,	30,000
Total,	534,740

In other words, something over the half-million proposed by Count Cavour. Of the officers, 8-16ths belong to the old kingdom of Sardinia; 2-16ths to Lombardy; 2-16ths to the Neapolitan provinces; 1-16th to Tuscany; 2-16ths to the other provinces of the realm; 1-16th to Venice and Rome. Half of the officers, therefore, have gone through the campaigns of 1848–9, the Crimea, and the campaigns of 1859–60; a fourth have served under Austria, the Grand-dukes, or Neapolitan sovereigns, the remainder under Garibaldi or against the brigands.

Of the men 30,000 have been, without interruption, under arms six years at least; 38,000 have been under arms for six years and on furlough for two and a half; 110,000 have served uninterruptedly from three to five years; 132,000 from fourteen months to four years; 29,000 belong to the *caribinieri* or to the military colleges and establishments, or are invalids; the last levy was only summoned on the 11th inst., so are raw recruits. This is the official statement; according to the "Almanac de Gotha," the Italian army, June, 1865, officers and soldiers included, stands on a war footing at 494,791.

We must take both the statements of the *Diritto* and of General De Pettinengo for what they are worth, and draw a line somewhere between the two.

According to an official document just distributed to the deputies of the lower House, the Italian navy stands thus:

IRON-CLADS.—Three first-class frigates—*Re d'Italia, Re di Portogallo, Roma;* the *Venezia*, now building at Genoa, and two others, "not yet christened," building, one at Castellamare, one at Spezzia; seven second-class frigates; two first-class sloops-of-war; two first-class gunboats; four second-class gunboats; two floating batteries. Total, 24; horse-power, 1,248; cannon, 448; men, 8,738.

SCREW STEAMERS.—Eight first-class frigates; three first-class sloops; three second-class sloops, one building; five gunboats. Total, 20; horse-power, 6,780; cannon, 544; men, 7,155.

PADDLE-WHEEL STEAMERS.—Three first-class sloops; seven second-class; three third-class; two first-class cutters; nine second-class. Total, 25; horse-power, 6,050; cannon, 118; crew, 3,381.

Transports (screw), 12; horse-power, 2,550; cannon, 24; crew, 1,092. Transports (paddle), 11; horse-power, 1,840; cannon, 12; crew, 634.

SAILING VESSELS.—One transport, third class; cannon, 2; crew, 26. Admiralty frigates, 2, and 1 sloop; cannon, 72; crew, 1,140. These, with four sailing vessels, are condemned as old-fashioned. Other four vessels—horse-power, 510; cannon, 59; crew, 1,049—are appropriated to the use of the naval colleges.

If these reports be trustworthy, and there can be little doubt about the navy, we must admit that General Lamarmora uttered no vain boast when he said that Italy was not only in a condition to wage war with Austria, but also to sustain a defeat.

J. W.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should e addressed to the Editor.*

DISFRANCHISEMENT AS A BASIS OF RECONSTRUCTION.

THE incorporation in the plan of reconstruction proposed by the Committee of Fifteen of a section requiring the consent of the Southern people to the disfranchisement of three-fourths of their own number as a condition of their re-admission to the Union, is the most striking illustration we have yet had of the want of practicalness by which some members of the Committee have all along been afflicted. The object of disfranchising the majority of the Southern people for a term of years is either to punish them or to deprive them of the power of mischief until they are restored to a better frame of mind and are likely to take part in the government as men devoted to it. But nothing we can now inflict on the South can possibly act as a punishment. The worst punishment it could possibly undergo was defeat in the war. To that we can add absolutely nothing that will produce either of the two great objects of punishment—the reform of the criminal or the supply of warning to others. If the South has not been convinced of the folly and wickedness of treason by the events of the last four years, it is not likely to be convinced by four years' exclusion from the polls. And if the next generation is not deterred from rebellion by the memory of their fathers' sufferings in the field, they are not likely to be deterred by hearing that no Southern man was allowed to vote at the presidential election of 1868. Persons convicted of felony are in this State, and, we believe, in every other, *ipso facto*, disfranchised; but how many crimes does any one suppose are prevented by this portion of the penalty?

The great objection which many of us feel now to the admission of the Southern people to the enjoyment of their old rights is based on what we hear of the determined disloyalty of their temper, and of the hostility which they still cherish to the Federal Government and to the people of the North. The number of us who ask for vengeance, is small; but we all ask for security for the future. Yet no better mode of keeping alive feelings of disloyalty and of irritation could be devised than disfranchisement on a great scale for an offence of which this generation at least does not see the moral guilt, and we greatly fear will never be got to see it, do what we may to open their eyes. Everything which looks like persecution will, of course, only irritate its objects, keep alive the old feelings of exasperation, and, by dividing the community into two classes—the one favored, the other outlawed—lay the foundation for hates and feuds of which we fear this century would not witness the termination. We doubt if any worse service could be rendered to the Union men of the South than the commission to them—a handful as they are—of power or privileges withheld from their neighbors. The curse of test oaths, and all the rest of the apparatus for ascertaining men's loyalty, is that it breeds and perpetuates social hates, and a republican community in which these have not only found a place, but are fostered by law, may be fairly said to be possessed by devils.

We are, for our part, for the abandonment of all attempt at punishment, or at anything which looks like punishment, except in the case of a few leaders, who worked their wickedness, knowingly, and who, far from suffering by the war, profited by it, and who ought to be made an example of for the benefit of all future plotters of revolution. We are opposed to the creation of any barriers or the resort to any means of future protection which takes the form of a penalty or a disabling act. The punishment of communities is a task for which neither our Government nor any other is competent. What we have to do with the South is to let by-gones be as far as possible by-gones, but to see that justice is done within her borders, that she does it and receives it. Our salvation lies not in restricting privileges, but in extending them; not in erecting a class for our defence, but in breaking down all class distinctions; not in perpetuating hates, but in leaving no man a reason for feeling wronged. In other words, as we said a few weeks ago, our policy of reconstruction should be based on inclusion, and not on exclusion.

Of this there is absolutely not one word in the reconstruction scheme of the Committee of Fifteen. There is proscription and disfranchisement throughout; but no trace of enfranchisement, and no mention of equal rights. And yet if any change is to be made by constitutional amendments, it would be far easier, in our opinion, to secure the assent of the South to one which now or at a certain fixed date would admit all classes to a share in the Government, than to one which for a certain term disfranchises four-fifths of the white men above the age of twenty-five for an offence which nine out of ten of them glory in.

SPAIN AND THE SOUTH AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

THE detention of the steamer *Meteor* by the United States authorities, and the subsequent examination of the Chilian consul for an alleged attempt to violate our neutrality laws, have called public attention to the present war between Spain and Chili.

With the exception of those merchants whose commercial interests were affected by the blockade of several important South American ports, few have given more than a passing notice to this struggle. When the theory of government is under discussion we always express much sympathy for our sister republics in the south. The practical knowledge which we possess of their condition, progress, and prospects is exceedingly limited. The French interference in Mexico has met general and oft-repeated popular remonstrance. But the movements of the Spanish forces in the South Pacific receive scarcely a comment. Yet, undoubtedly, Spain has entertained hopes of re-establishing her authority in her ancient colonies, and the seizure of the Chinchas in 1864 and the present war are measures adopted to discover if her hopes are based upon reasonable probabilities.

Underlying all other causes of trouble is that intense hatred of the Spaniard which exists in every South American republic. Long intervals of peaceful relations, social and commercial, have temporarily allayed the force of the feeling. But a slight agitation is sufficient to revive it with unabated intensity. The relation of Chili to Spain has been of a warmer and more friendly nature than that of Peru. But there has been no obliteration of old feuds. The government of each republic have endeavored to protect Spanish citizens resident within their territory in the enjoyment of their rights; and, except in seasons of ungovernable popular excitement, Spaniards in Chili and Peru have been unmolested in their business pursuits and avocations. The long residence of Tavira, Spanish minister to Chili, at Santiago was, socially considered, pleasant. He held the people of Chili in esteem and won the affection of numerous friends. He respected the people for their industry and persevering attempts against natural obstacles to build up a nation at the extreme south of the great American continent which might compare favorably with its older sister at the north.

When the Spanish squadron first arrived in the Pacific it consisted of two frigates and one gunboat. Of these the frigate *Triunfo* was destroyed by fire at the Chinchas in 1864. The squadron has since been reinforced by one iron-armored frigate, the *Numancia*, three ordinary frigates, one gunboat, and a transport steamer. They were received as peaceful visitors. Their officers were most hospitably entertained at Valparaiso, Callao, and Panama. But when, after their cruise in the North Pacific, they paid their second visit to Valparaiso, they met a cool reception. The rumor that Spain was making attempts to revindicate had preceded their arrival. Admiral Pinzon sailed from the Chili coast and met on his way north, either by accident or by agreement, Mazerrado, the violent commissioner to Peru, who had left Callao in a rage on the gunboat *Covadonga*, and immediately proceeded to take forcible possession of the Chincha Islands. When the news of this seizure reached Chili, the excitement was so great that the Government was unable to control the popular action. The spirit of resistance in Peru was tame compared with the forcible remonstrances which issued from Santiago and Valparaiso. The Government sympathized earnestly with Peru; and it is not unlikely that if Peru had manifested any resolute intention of defending herself, Chili would have joined with her in an alliance offensive and defensive. But, as Chili had no

direct cause of war on her own account, the Government endeavored to maintain a strict neutrality. The citizens, however, were beyond restraint, and in more than one instance the articles of the treaty between Spain and Chili were violated. Such infringements are not denied by that Government; yet all complicity with those of her citizens who were the guilty parties is strenuously denied. The following charges are the most important urged by the Spanish minister Tavira against the Government:

1. An excited mob surrounded the Spanish legation, insulting the ambassador, and conducting itself in the usual mob style, while no effective endeavors were made by the authorities to disperse it.

2. A paper, called *San Martin*, was permitted to publish daily attacks upon Spain of a most libellous, scurrilous character, which the Government did not suppress.

3. A schooner, called the *Dart*, owned by a Chilian citizen, sailed from Valparaiso to Callao, loaded with arms, and conveying one hundred Chilian volunteers for the Peruvian army.

4. After the declaration making coal contraband of war, French men-of-war were supplied with coal at Lota, and also the Peruvian gunboat *Lerzundi*, while this same privilege was refused to Spanish vessels.

5. The *Lerzundi* recruited seamen at Valparaiso and received provisions and naval stores necessary for her voyage to Callao. It was claimed that these acts of commission and omission were not only national insults to Spain, but highly prejudicial to her naval operations. Not simply a pecuniary reparation was demanded, but also a redress for the alleged slight to Spanish honor in the shape of a salute of twenty-one guns from some Chilian fort to the Spanish flag. Señor Covarrubias, the Chilian Minister of Foreign Affairs, in reply declared that his Government was not accountable for the acts of its citizens, inasmuch as its agents had, in each instance, exerted their utmost power to prevent violations of neutrality. Although we may suspect that, in a measure, the Government was responsible, yet Senor Tavira was so far satisfied with the rejoinder of the Chilian minister that he accepted a compromise, throwing out the pecuniary demand, and agreeing that a simultaneous salute should be fired from a Chilian port and a Spanish man-of-war. The late Admiral Pareja, who had succeeded Pinzon, refused to acknowledge this treaty. Tavira left the matter to the home Government, and, as previously stated, was not upheld. The mail which brought Tavira's recall conveyed to Admiral Pareja his appointment of minister to Chili, with full powers to do whatever he might deem expedient in regard to the negotiations with that nation. He immediately proceeded to Valparaiso with four frigates and one gunboat. This was an undue manifestation of defiance. He arrived at that port during the week in which the Chilians were celebrating the anniversary of their independence. A diplomatist, either prudent or desirous of promoting peaceful relations, would have paid a decent regard to national prejudices. On the contrary, he persisted, wilfully, in pursuing a course which would inevitably result in war. He made his demands, which were the same as those of Tavira, accompanying them with a threat, or an *ultimatum*, to the effect that, if his request was not complied with at the expiration of a given time, a blockade would be established. He turned a deaf ear to the remonstrances, solicitations even, of the members of the diplomatic corps at Santiago. Our minister, Mr. Nelson, was active in attempting to effect a conciliation. All offers of mediation were refused. The Chilian Government, ready before to make fair reparation, now considered itself insulted, and refused to comply on any other terms than those accepted by Tavira. The blockade was thereupon established by the Spanish squadron, and war declared by Chili.

There is no doubt that Chili would have been willing to avoid war by greater concessions to Pareja than she had given to Tavira. But the violence of the former in presenting his charges and demands excluded all hope of peace. Chili gains the sympathy of all who have thought her culpable, and her subsequent course in rejecting a Spanish insult is universally respected. The decisive measures adopted by her Government put to shame the vacillating policy of the Peruvian administration of General Pezet.

Thus we have described the causes which led to the adoption of warlike remedies. There have been few noteworthy occurrences in its conduct. The Spaniards have gained no advantage. The original blockade extended to only four of the forty ports of Chili. It afterwards included five. At present they are able to blockade only Valparaiso, which they have lately bombarded. Spanish commerce, although, as yet, threatened by no privateers actually afloat, has received a serious check from the mere apprehension of danger. They have lost their most efficient gunboat, which was captured by the Chilian sloop-of-war *Esmeralda*. They are at a great distance from a base of supplies. They have been so unsuccessful that the Spanish admiral, overwhelmed either by a perception of his own hastiness and its destructive consequences, or fearful that the issue might be entirely disastrous to Spain, avoided all further responsibility by taking refuge in suicide. Besides the capture of the *Covadonga*, Chili has been encouraged by the alliance of Peru, which brings to her assistance a respectable navy. The allied squadron is anchored in a little bay on the southern coast of Chili, the approach to which is exceedingly hazardous. They lost one frigate in entering the bay; but the guns were preserved and are now mounted on shore, where they will prove more effective than on the deck of the leaky *Amazonas*. The Spanish squadron has made one unsuccessful attempt to destroy the fleet. It is reported that the armored *Numancia* will make a second effort. But her ordnance is not heavy, and it is improbable that she can place it within range of the vessels. The commerce of Chili has been driven from the Pacific, consequently the war is most severely felt by her merchants. In other respects her people have not been seriously discommoded. The blockade of a few ports has driven foreign vessels to others less convenient, yet there has been no lack of articles usually imported which are necessary for consumption. Many of the vessels formerly under the Chilian flag have been transferred. A number of small brigs and schooners have been taken as prizes. But the value of all the captures amounts to a trifle. The Spanish admiral retained for a time a small steamer, but a question as to her nationality has deprived him of any benefit which he might otherwise have received from her capture.

Now that we come to consider the probable issue of this war, we mourn over its continuance. The naval force of Spain in the Pacific is nearly double that of the allied republics, the former having 217 guns, while the latter have only a force of about 130. But so long as the allied squadron remains in the present stronghold, which is the most secure refuge on the whole coast, it cannot be destroyed. There can be no advantage in prolonging the struggle. Spain is already bankrupt. The supplies for her Pacific squadron are sent from home at great expense. No dependence can be placed upon assistance from those adventurous voyages, one of which recently cleared with difficulty from Panama, which, in the end, are very expensive to the party purchasing their cargoes. If she *should* destroy the allied fleet, very little progress would be made in attaining her object. Her armies can never gain a foothold on the territory of Chili or Peru. The possession of the guano islands, with no recourse to the rich farms along the mainland, or the flour mills of Chili, far from any other source of supply, would not be profitable. Few vessels would transport her guano to a productive market. Her men-of-war would be in constant danger from expeditions organized by the energy and patriotism of her enemies. The tradition of Chili would be again exemplified, "that no Spanish vessel of war which came to the Pacific ever returned to the Atlantic." The bombardment of seaport towns will be a barren vengeance, calling forth a remonstrance from all nations. Neither can Peru or Chili gain any good from the war. They require every dollar of their revenue for the maintenance of their position as free and independent people. They have been too frequently delayed in their works of internal improvement. Revolutions have interrupted the growth of Peru. Chili is without the rich source of revenue with which Peru has been blessed, and is obliged to labor earnestly for self-support. The present war is a blight upon their prospects—an injury which can be repaired only by years of industry. Yet so long as Spain continues her hostile efforts the republics must make defence. Each party has made a sufficient display of courage to satisfy the claims of honor. Prudence ought now to have an audience, and the policy which she proposes should be accepted by both Spain and the republics.

THE SOLDIER'S REVENGE.

A.D. 1655.

THIS golden legend first was told
When Swedes and Danes were foes of old.

One morn the Swedes gave way so soon
The battle ended at the noon.

Two foes lay sweltering on the sand,
Each wounded by the other's hand.

The Swede exclaimed, "O day accurst,
That sees a soldier die of thirst!"

The Dane replied, with anguish wrung,
"My water-flask shall cool thy tongue.

"I filled it at a mountain-spring:
Drink thou to Denmark and the King!

'But precious loss if any drips;
So hold it steady to thy lips!"

The Swede replied, "If thee I kill,
Thy flask is mine to drink my fill!"

Then, drawing poniard from his girth,
He struck a blow, but stabbed the earth.

The Dane exclaimed, "O wretched Swede!
How durst thou try so base a deed?

"By heaven! I take revenge, O knave!"
Then, snatching back the flask he gave,

"Thirst thou," he cried, "while I shall quaff
Thy throat shall swallow only half!

"But curse thy loss, O dastard soul!
I meant to bid thee drink the whole."

The King of Denmark overheard,
And smiling at the deed and word,

Proclaimed in sight of all his train,
"I dub thee knight, O noble Dane!"

Uprose a noise of Danish cheers—
Heard yet through twice a hundred years.

So every hero hath reward—
Of men, of kings, or of the Lord!

THEODORE TILTON.

DOMESTIC UPHOLSTERY—WINDOW-CURTAINS.

CURTAINS are almost out of use among English-speaking moderns. Nor are they much used by any of those peoples who affect to be, in a particular and exclusive sense, "civilized." There has been a gradual abandonment of the custom, once universal, of hanging up pieces of woven stuff where the free passage of light and air would be objectionable; and the tendency now is toward a still more general forsaking of it. Nobody now hangs arras around his rooms with any other motive than a love of beautiful wall decoration. There are rooms lined with rep or with chintz, but it is plaited and drawn and tufted, and is to prevent echoes, as in the Stock Exchange, or for coolness, as in some summer boudoirs. Nobody puts up bed-curtains now; are there any yet remaining *in situ?* There are few four-post or canopy bedsteads still doing their work, and from those few the curtains have been torn away. In France, still, people have curtains over their chamber doors, but there are few in England and fewer still in America. A relic of the olden time remains in the huge leather curtains that hang down and fill the open doorways of churches in Roman Catholic Europe. But all that remains of the once dominant custom, for most of us, are the window-curtains which everybody has and which "no gentleman's windows should be without." Why these are the only curtains left is easy to see: it is only at the windows that light and air can enter unbidden, nowadays. Light, of course; and light is not always wanted unsubdued; but air also has more or less chance to make itself into draughts and currents about the windows. But still the tendency is to eliminate the curtains here, also. Our windows fit tight; for the sake of easily adjusted tight joints we relinquish the time-honored and seemly hinged sash, and our ugly sashes run up and down in grooves, counterpoised by weights. We reinforce our few hinged fillings of apertures with "weather-strips;" and, lest the passing off of heat from within outward should cause currents of air inside the glass, we adjust the double sash with air-chamber between. As for light, we have the handy inside shutters, solid or slatted, or in their place the "Venetian" blinds. An appliance, which is not a curtain but something like it, we constantly use—linen shades on rollers; white linen, buff, blue, very dark green, painted, ornamented with borders. And for the actual darkening of rooms at will, these roller-shades and the inside shutters, if present, are all that is used. For protection against the curiosity of people outside, there is lace and muslin, generally covering only a part of the window, and wire gauze stretched on a frame; these are not curtains. Nor are musquito nets curtains, whether on frames and set into windows or draped about bedsteads gracefully. On the other hand, those *are* curtains which surround and enclose shower-baths, but this division of the subject is not, æsthetically considered, an important one.

Window-curtains, then, are our subject; what is the law of their being? That they should be of some use, seems evident. Suppose a room with inside shutters to its windows, and light or dark linen shades on rollers close to the sash of the windows; in very many cases this room will not be the better for curtains at all. Or, if curtains for two openings are provided, the chances are that the doors will have more need of them than the windows. In small rooms, especially if rather too full of furniture—and it is in small rooms too full of furniture that city people live—window-curtains are apt to be a great annoyance. They prevent the convenient placing near the window of some piece that ought to be there. They either bully the inmate or else get torn and soiled themselves; and for danger—but our hands still tingle with reminiscences of burning window-curtains torn down ten years ago, and criticism ought to be unbiassed by personal considerations. It is a fact, however, that can be easily ascertained, that a room otherwise neat, and furnished and decorated without conspicuous violation of good taste, will generally be as effective without curtains as with them.

Curtains, as usually put up, are merely modest refusals to plead guilty to poverty or to carelessness. A family move into a hired house for the summer; it looks "bare;" but if brocade curtains are put up to the parlor windows they are supposed to assert something for the wealth of the new tenant; if muslin curtains are seen through the chamber windows they are thought to bear testimony to the neatness and management of his wife and daughters. But people ought not to mix the desire they may have for these declarations of their respectability with the idea that the beauty or comfort of a room is enhanced at the same time. Of what use are the decorations of this sort which are applied to the windows of fashionable parlors? There is a gilt or a walnut "cornice," from under which issues a broad surface of perfectly opaque and very heavy material, which divides just below the cornice, separates more and more widely as it descends, and is festooned finally over two pins or with two cords, leaving a curiously shaped bit of the outside daylight visible, the horizon for the whole width of the window, and a mere twinkling point a little higher up. This sort of curtain has one possible use: it can be dropped of a cold night from its festoons and made to keep the warmth in the room. But that is all that can be done with it. It is immovably fixed at the top; and when the light is wanted and the curtains are drawn back to their utmost, the little light that comes in comes horizontally, not white light from the sky, but reflected from houses, grass, and trees, feeble and impure. Any one who spends much time in rooms whose windows are curtained in this way knows how hard it is to read in them and how impossible to write in them, except near the window. In summer, while darkening they might cool the room; but in summer they are never in place; they are locked up in trunks until the fall, and for three months or so the light of heaven fills the room whose windows then have only thin lace hangings before them.

All non-transparent curtains should be made to run easily upon rings, supported by a thin brass or iron rod. They should admit of being easily thrown back to leave the window fully exposed to the light, and should be as easy to draw close. It is common in the French cities to arrange even the most costly and elegant curtains in this way, two cords with weighted tassels hanging down at the side, of which the one draws the curtains across the windows and the other folds them back to the jambs. When two windows are near together, as is usually the case with our city parlors, it will often be best to treat the whole end of the room as if it were a large

double window, and curtain it as if one opening. In all these cases, of course, the rods and rings should show and be made ornamental. There is no need of such huge thick gilded rods as were once fashionable, with bouquets and pine-apples at the ends, nor of gilded rings as big as Dio Lewis's lignum-vitæ ones; but the principle of those ugly and forgotten decorations was good and will not be forgotten.

Whenever the weaver's art shall become again a fine art, weaving of curtains will be one of the great opportunities for the display of power of design. These will be of simply woven stuff more generally than dress-materials, which, when costly, will be much overlaid and modified by embroidery; and, on the other hand, much richer patterns can be made, and in much richer materials than in the case of carpets. Different uses for curtains call for different characters in the design. Some are to be large and rather straggling, formal vines with large conventionalized flowers; some are to be uniform diaper patterns, the figures of the diaper having animals and birds in them alternating with purely conventional forms; some are to be mere stripes. Just at present, with our small resources in the way of woven stuffs, we have reason to be glad of the "curtain reps" that the upholsterers offer us—marroons and browns, with broad borders made up of numerous narrow bands of brilliant colors. Some of these are really excellent in their rather humble way, and deserve better rooms than those they will help to make endurable. But they are too often put up with the stripes vertical; whereas, when a curtain is long in proportion to its width, it is almost essential that it should have a border along the bottom. The colors of this border may be, and generally should be, repeated by a narrow band near and just above it, and again by a band near the top, all horizontal. This arrangement of parts is so important to most curtains that, even if a housekeeper should have curtain material as splendid as an India shawl, the curtain should, like the shawl, have its border well defined.

Nowadays, if anybody wants a beautiful curtain it must be embroidered. Of curtains so made there are occasionally splendid ones to be seen, but no more can be said of them now and here.

GOOD MANNERS.

THE standard of manners changes from generation to generation. Sir Roger de Coverley or Sir Charles Grandison is not the type of the gentleman of the present day. But though the standard varies, the best of good manners is unchanging, for it is derived from the moral principles of human conduct. Bad manners indicate ill morals, good manners are the expression of good morals, and the best manners are those of the best men. The old dramatist, Thomas Decker, goes to the heart of the matter when he speaks of our Saviour as

> "The first true gentleman that ever breath'd."

So, too, Charles Lamb, in his tender and delightful account of Joseph Paice, of Bread-street Hill, gives the picture of a truly well-mannered man. "Though bred a Presbyterian, and brought up a merchant, he was the finest gentleman of his time. He had not *one* system of attention to females in the drawing-room, and *another* in the shop or at the stall. I do not mean that he made no distinction. But he never lost sight of sex, or overlooked it in the casualties of a disadvantageous situation. I have seen him stand bare-headed—smile, if you please—to a poor servant girl, while she has been enquiring of him the way to some street, in such a posture of unforced civility as neither to embarrass her in the acceptance nor himself in the offer of it. He was no dangler, in the common acceptation of the word, after women; but he reverenced and upheld, in every form in which it came before him, *womanhood*. I have seen him—nay, smile not—tenderly escorting a market-woman whom he had encountered in a shower, exalting his umbrella over her poor basket of fruit, that it might receive no damage, with as much carefulness as if she had been a countess."

Such manners as those of Joseph Paice are not often seen in our streets, our horse-cars, or other public places, and yet we are apt to boast that women are nowhere treated with more courtesy and consideration than throughout America. Some twenty-five or thirty years ago, when the late venerable Josiah Quincy was president of Harvard College, he was going one rainy evening from Boston to Cambridge in the omnibus. At the bridge the omnibus stopped and a poor black woman with a heavy basket got in. There was no seat for her, and no one of the young men in the omnibus offered her his place. Mr. Quincy rose, and, with the quietest politeness, said to the woman, "Madam, be good enough to take this seat," and he took his place outside the door upon the steps of the vehicle. The act was characteristic of the man.

Yet although morals is the best of good manners, and the good man is certain to have manners essentially good, there is an art of manners which he may not possess. The art is the result of long culture of what is called good breeding, and in some cases it may be carried so far that the well-bred man, even if not a good man, may possess all the externals of good manners. But the art, unless associated with excellence of character, is unreliable. It will not stand against passion; it is apt to be a disguise of selfishness. "Scratch a Russian," said Napoleon, "and you will find a Tartar."

The value of the art of manners is that it helps to the attainment and security of that upon which good manners rest, namely, self-reliance. The good man is naturally self-reliant, for he knows that his poise is not to be readily disturbed; he is, therefore, at ease, and he sets others at ease. The aim of good manners is to make people happy, to set them at their ease, to enable them to be at their best with each other. Whatever interferes with this is bad manners, and the whole art of manners is ideally directed to this end. "Manners," says Mr. Emerson, "are the happy way of doing things."

Many false notions still prevail about manners, derived mainly from the feudal conditions of European society, in which, men being divided into classes, there were introduced many factitious and conventional relations, a due regard for which constituted a large part of the manners of courts and of society. The traditions of the past in regard to manners, as in regard to other arts, are not to be held in too high respect. In our country, where the relations of men are simple, natural, and humane, we must revise the old codes of manners. Those codes were part of the laws by which the false distinctions among men were maintained. An aristocracy finds its securest defence and safeguard in its superior manners. The plebeian may get riches, the tradesman's son may be wiser than the lord's, the manufacturer may get estate and title, but the aristocracy still possesses exclusively its manners, the inheritance of five hundred years. The aristocratic manner goes with the blue blood. It is the element that changes least in aristocratic power.

But in our society the only conventionalisms in manners which are important and require to be preserved are those which long experience has shown to be requisite or desirable as aiding to place men in equal relations with each other in a mixed society. In a family, conventionalisms and factitious manners mainly disappear because in domestic intimacy each one knows the others thoroughly, and the relations of all are determined by affection. But in society men meet on different terms, ignorant often of each other's special tastes, foibles, inclinations, and capacities, and conventionalisms in manners serve to bring all the company upon a common level, to set each man at ease with his neighbor, and to prevent each from giving unwitting offence. It is a part of good morals to make one's self familiar with these conventionalisms. It is of the nature of a duty to society and to ourselves. It is selfishness to neglect them.

But the tendency of American life is not altogether favorable as yet to the production and general cultivation of good manners. So far as the relations between man and man are truer, simpler, more confiding, and more humane than they have been or are elsewhere in the world, we may hope, we have the right, indeed, to believe, that the manners of men will constantly improve; that they will be simpler, more considerate, more conformed to the absolute test of morals than the manners of other peoples. We think we already see a great advance; we have got rid of the faults that spring from the existence of an upper and lower class, of arrogance, pride, servility, flunkyism as embodied in conventional manners. But, on the other hand, the loose organization of our society, the sturdy individualism which it has developed, the absence of any social stability, the low standard for the most part of the cultivation of our most cultivated people, the rude life and habits of backwoodsmen, emigrants, and frontiersmen, which react upon our most civilized and refined classes; the immense flood of half-barbarian foreigners who draw together in degraded masses in our cities—these are among the circumstances which combine to affect ill our manners as a nation. Slavery also was a constant element in degrading the tone of manners; and the Southern gentleman, who was the theme and admiration of our Northern flunkies, was a type of that class which makes clean the outside of the cup and the platter but whose inward part is full of wickedness. The manners of a Southern man rarely gave assurance of that self-control without which manners are a mere pretence.

Mr. Lincoln possessed the essentials of good manners. He showed us what manners an American "railsplitter" might have. They were the manners of a good heart, that trusted itself and other men. Upon such a foundation we may build whatever superstructure of beauty, grace, and art we choose. And though our manners be uncouth and unconventional to-day, they shall to-morrow—a hundred years hence—be the noble manners of men not only gentle in heart but of refined and elegant cultivation.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday Evening,
May 3, 1866.

GOLD and exchange have again advanced since we last wrote. Gold has been as high as 128, closing this afternoon at 127⅞. Exchange closed at 109¼ for yesterday's steamer; some sales were made as high as 109½, and many look for an advance to the specie-shipping point unless cotton should decline here or advance abroad, or unless a new enquiry should spring up in Europe for 5-20 bonds. General business is dull, but the ease of money prevents goods being sacrificed.

Money continues to rule at 5 per cent. on call. First-class paper is current at 6 to 7. The decision of the Secretary of the Treasury to receive no more money on call will have the effect of further glutting the market, and very low rates of interest must be expected until general business becomes much more active than it is, or until the Secretary undertakes to fund the interest-bearing legal tender. Senator Sherman, on the 2d, introduced into Congress a bill authorizing a consolidated loan of the United States, in thirty-year 5 per cent. bonds, not to be negotiated under par. The measure is generally approved and will probably pass.

Much sensation has been caused by the development of the Ross frauds. John Ross, a gold and stock broker, on the 1st inst., forged certifications to his own checks for large amounts and obtained a quantity of gold, with which he absconded. He also forged bonds and borrowed on them. It is not yet known how much he stole or what has become of him.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	April 21.	April 30.	May 3.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	106	108	108¼	¼	....
5-20 Bonds, old	104⅞	105⅞	101⅞ ex.c	....	...
5-20 Bonds of 1865	104¾	105⅞	101⅞ ex.c	....	....
10-40 Bonds	93⅜	95	95¼	¼	....
7.30 Notes, second series	101⅞	101⅞	101⅞	....	....
New York Central	93	92⅝	9⅜	....	⅜
Erie Railway	73½	73¼	73½	¼	....
Hudson River	109	110¼	110½	¼	....
Reading Railroad	104	105¾	106¾	1	....

	April 21.	April 30.	May 3.	Advance.	Decline.
Michigan Southern	82⅛	78¾	78	....	¾
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	81¼	81	81¼	¼	....
Chicago and North-western	26⅞	28⅝	28¼	....	⅜
" " " Preferred	57¾	58¾	58½	....	¼
Chicago and Rock Island	121½	123¾	123¾	1	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	97⅛	98⅝	98⅞	¼	....
Canton	52½	56	59½	3½	....
Cumberland	44⅛	45	44¼	....	¼
Mariposa	11½	12½	12¾	....	¼
American Gold	126¾	126½	127⅛	1⅜	....
Bankers' Bills on London	107¾	108¼	109¼	1	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

The stock market has been rather dull for the past day or two. One or two of the clique stocks have advanced. Reading has sold as high as 107; Pittsburgh at 82½, and Illinois Central at 122. No specific cause has been assigned for the advance, which is simply due to the cliques moving the stocks up by fresh purchases in the idea that they are thus making money Erie and Central are steady without much animation. There is a large short interest in both, but the earnings are falling off so fast that even the boldest bulls do not care to corner them. Governments have been active, chiefly on seller's option, large lots having been sold to arrive.

The annual report of the Erie Railway Company for the year 1865 has at length made its appearance. It is full of instruction. The business of the year 1865 compares as follows with that of 1864:

	1864.	1865.	Increase.
Gross earnings	13,429,643	15,434,774	2,005,131
Expenses	8,961,285	10,368,264	1,406,978
Net earnings	4,468,358	5,066,510	598,152

It would thus appear that expenses increase so much faster than earnings that an increase of over $2,000,000 in traffic ensured only about $598,000 increase in profits. But we must turn to page nine of the report before we make too sure how much the profits really were. On that page the directors state that they expended in the year 1865 $4,941,293 in "construction," to wit: in new locomotives and cars, new side-track, shops, depots, bridges, engine-houses, etc. As the facts actually stand, therefore, the business of 1865 was as follows:

Gross receipts		$15,434,774
Operating expenses	10,368,264	
Construction	4,941,293	
		15,309,557
Net profits for the year		125,217

out of which the company had to pay interest on bonds, rents, taxes, and dividends, amounting in all to a trifle over $5,000,000. This, of course, could not be done. Having spent in construction nearly all the money earned, the directors were forced to borrow in order to pay interest, taxes, rents, and dividends, and they did accordingly borrow as follows:

On sterling bonds	$3,816,582
On fourth mortgage bonds	900,000
On Long Dock bonds	619,055
Total	$5,335,637

If this were the first year during which the company had to borrow money to pay interest on its bonds, rents, taxes, and dividends, the anomaly might be susceptible of explanation; but, on referring to the report made a year ago, we find that in the year 1864 the company borrowed as follows:

On fifth mortgage bonds	$737,000
On Buffalo branch bonds	13,600
On long dock bonds	469,000
On construction stock	2,200,000
Total	$3,419,600

In that year the interest on bonds, rents, taxes, and dividends amounted to $4,458,042, toward which sum it thus appears that the earnings of the road only contributed about a million. Not only, therefore, have the dividends been borrowed for two years, but most of the money paid for interest on bonds, taxes, and rents. The following table tells the story:

Years.	Dividends Paid.	Money Borrowed.
1864	$1,460,102	$3,419,600
1865	1,813,282	5,335,637
Total	$3,273,384	$8,[illegible]237

When the company was taken out of the hands of the receiver on 1st January, 1862, its cost stood at $40,104,700; it now stands at $47,476,782 (exclusive of floating debt); increase in four years, $7,372,082, considerably more than the aggregate sum paid in the shape of dividends.

The answer of the directors to these startling figures is very simple. They say that the road is not finished, and never will be; that the money borrowed in 1864 and 1865 was used to increase the capacity and property of the road, and that it (the road) is just so much the more valuable by the said expenditure; that they see no reason why they should not go on borrowing money to lay a new track and increase their capacity for doing business, though at the same time they are paying dividends out of earnings. This line of argument raises the vexed question as to what constitutes construction proper, and what repairs. Allowing that the directors are right in their theory, that there is nothing inconsistent in the simultaneous borrowing of money for construction and the payment of dividends to stockholders, it is clear that no such dividends could be justified if the money borrowed was to keep the road in repair, or to replace worn-out locomotives and cars, or to rebuild station and freight houses falling into ruin. This is precisely the difficulty with the Erie Company. Of the expenditure under the head of construction during the year 1864 only about a million was for new track and new buildings, while nearly $2,500,000 was for cars, locomotives, sheds, depots, and the like, and ought to have been charged to repairs. Of the $4,941,293 spent for "construction" in 1865 only about $819,000 was for new track, and perhaps $250,000 for absolutely new works. The rest was for new locomotives and cars, depot and freight buildings, bridges, shops, etc., and clearly should have been, in part at all events, if not wholly, charged to repairs. A road which cannot earn enough money to keep its buildings in repair and to replace worn-out cars by new ones, or to add new cars and locomotives from time to time as they may be required, certainly should not pay dividends.

It is now understood that the floating debt of the Erie is nearly $4,000,000, and that the company has no means of paying this debt except by the sale of more stock at par. Under the circumstances it is difficult to perceive upon what grounds the directors "anticipate most satisfactory results from the operations of the road." It would be more natural to anticipate, first, a suspension of dividends, which is inevitable; and secondly, whenever the money market becomes active, so that the Erie acceptances now afloat can no longer be negotiated, new suits by angry creditors, new judgments, and probably, after a long agony, a second lapse into the hands of a receiver.

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Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

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Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,320 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71		
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52		
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,720 87		
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40		
Paid Annuities	10,242 55		
Paid Taxes	38,076 52		
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94		
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63	
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82		
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30		
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25		
Real Estate	782,307 34		
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85	
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00		
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73		
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03	
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,780 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, MAY 7, 1866. NO. 46.

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Topics of the Day.

The wholesome tyranny of our Board of Health has found expression in a most comprehensive code of ordinances. Too comprehensive to be very effective some of them seem, as, for example, where it is commanded that "no person shall carelessly or negligently do, or advise, or contribute to the doing of any act or thing dangerous to the life or detrimental to the health of any human being;" an injunction which opens to persons of tender consciences and lawyers a very fine field for casuistry. Every owner, or lessee, or tenant of a house, within the sanitary district; every shipmaster, every trader, physician, policeman—in short, every natural and every artificial person, from the manufacturing corporation down to the man that shakes carpets—will find some strict order laid upon him, and is required in general to take notice of the one hundred and sixty-four ordinances and obey them all. The one hundred and sixty-fifth requires him to obey any that may be made hereafter. There have been but two well-authenticated cases of cholera as yet, and but one that proved fatal.

Mr. Deming, of Connecticut, delivered in the House on Thursday a speech on the bill creating the grade of general in the United States army—one of those speeches which make Congress and the country ridiculous. He cited as precedents for the promotion of General Grant to the newly created dignity Sesostris, Rameses, Pharaoh, and several unmentioned Babylonian and Assyrian chiefs. He was "down on" the Trojan war, but of course did not deign to call it by so simple a name. In his more noble language, it was the war "which, for two centuries, raged round mighty Ilium." Most of the discourse was of a piece with this; and when one thinks that the orator was uttering the voice of the House upon one of the most inspiring themes of the century, one cannot help asking solemnly, whether nothing can be done to improve Congressional rhetoric.

A grand dinner in honor of the Confederate dead, and of "Admiral" Semmes, was recently held in Mobile, at which the first toast was "The Day we Celebrate;" the second, "The President of the United States," which was received with roars of applause. The third was "Jefferson Davis;" and "tigers" were given for the hero of the "glorious Alabama," who, as a reward for his services in destroying American merchant vessels, is to be elected probate judge. All this is bad and irritating, no doubt, but we see no help for it. In our opinion, the best way to extinguish the feelings which prompt demonstrations of this kind, is to let them have vent. The other plan has been tried in various European countries, and has failed.

The probable occasion of the three days' riot at Memphis seems to have been a chance collision in the street between a white and colored driver. The cause of the atrocities that ensued when the immediate excitement was over, and everybody thought that order had been restored, was of course the hatred, bequeathed by slavery, of a despised and hitherto helpless race. This directed the incendiary to the negro quarter of the town, where, if any culpable resided, also dwelt a large and innocent population of both sexes. It is noteworthy, too, that the torch was applied not only to their habitations, but to their churches and school-houses, of which, says a despatch, eight were burned—in a spirit, we may add, akin to that which destroyed the colored orphan asylum of this city in 1863. Gen. Stoneman has taken control of Memphis and superseded the civil authorities.

The consolidation of the British North American provinces appears to be now quite certain, and this result of its influence, not to say its too active interference, in colonial affairs, the home Government will no doubt view with great satisfaction. Now that our neighbors are to be confederated, and while the fishery question awaits settlement, perhaps we may hear something further of a proposal which was first made nearly a year ago in the New York Chamber of Commerce, and which attracted some attention in England. It was suggested that England and the United States should declare the new federation neutral territory. This would be a very good thing for England and a very good thing indeed for British America. The young nation could proceed to grow and develop itself undisturbed by any fear; except, perhaps, the fear of not being able to preserve its neutrality along the Canadian border. The loser by such an arrangement would be the United States, which, in parting with the right to make war in Canada, would lose we will not say the surest guarantee, but certainly a valuable guarantee, that England will not lightly disturb the peace between herself and us.

Earl Russell, in a letter to Mr. Adams, denies Mr. George Bancroft's assertion that he, as "the British Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs, made haste to send word through the palaces of Europe that the great republic was in its agony," etc., and calls Mr. Bancroft's attention "to some facts of a totally opposite character." In a debate in the House of Commons, occurring in the end of May, 1861, he declared, replying to some member who said it had, "that the republican bubble had not burst." Whereupon Mr. Bancroft proves that in the first week of May the secretary, without waiting for official information from Lord Lyons, recognized the confederacy as a belligerent, spoke of the Union as "the late Union," and wrote Earl Cowley in Paris to that effect. This was being in haste, and, substantially, was doing what Mr. Bancroft charges; so the historian, or rather the orator, seems to us to have the best of the argument. Mr. Bancroft takes occasion to put in a defence of his speech against the accusation that it was grossly impolite to the representatives of foreign nations. In our opinion he relieves it of the weight of that charge, although he is not so successful in justifying himself for dwelling at such length upon the conduct of France and England when he was undertaking to speak of the life, death, and services of Abraham Lincoln. When he made his speech the main business of the day was to speak to Americans about their President. The presence of the foreign ambassadors was a mere incident of the occasion, and even at that an incident unforeseen by the orator.

The last news from the European continent, though pacific in its main features, is not apt to dispel all apprehensions of a great war. It is true we receive the positive report that Prussia has agreed to Aus

tria's proposition for a mutual disarmament, and we also hear that the minor States of the Germanic Confederation have come to an understanding to accept the Prussian proposal, regarding the convocation of a general parliament as a starting point for a reform of the federal compact of Germany. But the arrangement between the two great German powers for the re-establishment of peaceful relations seems to have been made with great verbal and mental reservations, as on one side we hear Count Bismark, in his reply to an address for peace, still speak of war possibly becoming a necessity, in spite of the King's desire to avoid it; and on the other, see Austria continue her armaments, in a highly menacing way, in her southern provinces, under the pretext that a warlike attitude there was made necessary by the concentration, on the part of Italy, of considerable bodies of troops in the vicinity of Bologna. And, according to the latest advices, Prussia objects to disarming her forces as long as Austria is determined to keep her own on a war footing in any part of the empire. Nor do we hear of any approaching solution of the vexed Schleswig-Holstein question which has led to all these threatening complications, which, however, must be definitively solved if peace in Germany is to be regarded as secured.

As was expected, the Turkish Government protests against the election in Moldo-Wallachia which calls Prince Charles of Hohenzollern to the throne of that semi-independent country. A Rouman deputation has, in the meanwhile, left Bucharest for Berlin to tender the hospodarship to the elected prince.

The telegraphic summary of the *China's* news from Halifax announces that the English reform bill has passed the House of Commons by a majority of five. This undoubtedly means that it has passed the second reading only, and the smallness of the majority makes it certain that it will be killed in the committee, if the ministry push it so far. The result will probably be a dissolution of Parliament, unless the prospects of a coalition ministry should be sufficiently good, as far as Mr. Gladstone is concerned, to induce him to save his friends the expense of re-election. The two causes which have most contributed to the failure of the measure have been the apathy of the working classes and the determined hostility of the "thinking Liberals," represented by the *Spectator*, who dread such a preponderance of the working-men's interest in the House of Commons, in case the bill were passed without a careful re-distribution of seats, as would simply substitute another class government for that already existing.

The Pope has elevated the *Civiltà Cattolica*—a Jesuit newspaper, and once published in Naples, but expelled from that city owing to its being too strong even for King Ferdinand—to the position of the authorized exponent and defender of the Catholic faith. Its editors are to form a separate college at Rome, and its leading writers are, of course, to have a character of *quasi* infallibility. The event has created a great sensation in the Roman theological world, as it indicates that the Pope has thrown himself into the arms of the Jesuits, and that the old orthodox Catholics, represented by the Belgian University of Louvain, are ousted. It has a literary significance, too, which is worthy of note, as it is the most considerable tribute ever paid, considering the quarter from which it comes, to the growing power of the periodical press. That the Pope should pronounce the contents of a book pure truth, to be swallowed unhesitatingly by the faithful, is natural enough; but that a newspaper should furnish thousands of subscribers every month with columns of rhetoric, under a standing certificate from the Vatican that they are to be taken as the utterances of the vicegerent of God upon earth, is verily something both new and startling. No higher compliment was ever paid to "the press," in the modern sense of the word. Nevertheless, there is something strange and grotesque in the spectacle. It is like Lancelot of the Lake or Amadis de Gaul working a Parrot gun in complete armor. The man who made the attempt upon the life of the Czar, who was first represented as a revengeful Pole, and subsequently as a disaffected Russian nobleman, is now said to be a hypochondriac of the government of Saratov (not "Laratof"), in the interior of Russia.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 5, 1866.

The present temper of Congress is not that of a general acquiescence in the plan reported by the Joint Committee of Fifteen. On the contrary, the rather complex scheme of constitutional amendment proposed has few really hearty friends in either House. The old enthusiasm and spirit of unity which carried through the civil rights bill after the presidential veto does not exist upon this new issue. It is felt that a more simple platform, such as "the plain people" (as Mr. Lincoln loved to call them) can understand at a glance, is needed. Perhaps the plan proposed is the best that could be arrived at, as the result of compromise among widely divergent views; but its disadvantages are seriously felt as a practical political issue. If adopted, it will only be from fear of doing worse, and an unwillingness to dissolve Congress and go to the people without some tangible scheme of a restoration of the whole Union.

The admission of Colorado as a State has been the feature of the week. It is acknowledged that the revival of this plan of admitting the baby commonwealth, defeated early in the session in the Senate, was brought about in great measure by the wish to render the two-thirds majority in that body impregnable. A presidential veto may defeat this, since the vote for admission was less than two-thirds in both branches.

DIARY.

May 2, 1866.—In the Senate, Mr. Sherman offered a bill for funding the national debt at an interest of 5 per cent. Mr. Williams offered an amendment to the bill of the Reconstruction Committee for restoring the rebel States to political rights, providing that senators and representatives shall be received after March 4, 1867, from any State which has previously ratified the proposed constitutional amendments; and that Tennessee and Arkansas shall be admitted without delay upon such ratification. The post-office appropriation bill was passed after the Senate had adopted—yeas, 19; nays, 11—an amendment withholding salary from officers appointed to vacancies created by the President's removal without the consent of the Senate.

In the House, the army bill was put upon its passage and lost—yeas, 36; nays, 83.

May 3.—In the Senate, a bill to pay the State of West Virginia $368,000 for expenses in aid of the United States during the war was passed. The post-office appropriation bill was recalled from the House of Representatives, and a motion to reconsider the amendment relating to removal of officers was entered.

In the House, a bill to annex 18,000 square miles of the territory of Utah to the State of Nevada was passed. The Senate bill for admission to the Union of Colorado was taken up. Mr. Washburne, of Ill., moved an amendment that the admission should not take effect until the State should strike out from its constitution the word "white" as a qualification of voting. Lost—yeas, 37; nays, 95. The bill admitting Colorado was then passed—yeas, 80; nays, 55. The Senate bill extending the time for completing the Eastern division of the Union Pacific RR. was passed, with an amendment extending for two years the time for commencing and completing the Northern Pacific RR.

May 4.—The Senate spent the day on private bills.

In the House, a resolution congratulating the Emperor of Russia and the twenty million serfs upon his providential escape from assassination was passed unanimously—yeas, 124; nays, 0. The bill to revive the grade of general in the army of the U. S. was passed—yeas, 116; nays, 11.

May 5.—The Senate was not in session.

In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Phelps, Bundy, Ingersoll, Rogers, and Randall, of Pa.

THE FREEDMEN.

Reports from sixteen sub-districts in South Carolina show a decided change for the better in the condition of the freed people, and some improvement is visible even in the Edgefield district, which is still harassed by outlaws. Reports from North Carolina and Texas represent the freedmen to be industriously at work and prospering. At Houston, the planters employ runners to find hands for them, at the rate of from $3 to $12 for each hand secured, and these agents are frequently despatched to other States to induce emigration to Texas.

At Augusta, Ga., the colored people, accompanied by some whites, had proceeded to the city cemetery for the purpose of decking the graves of the Union dead (white) with flowers, when they were met by the mayor and a squad of police, who forbade them to enter. The matter was finally compromised by the mayor permitting those who had flowers to enter; but as a general rush was made as soon as the gates were opened, they were again closed, and everybody was excluded.

Notes.

LITERARY.

Mr. G. H. Lewes has lately published, in "The Fortnightly Review," a paper on Baruch Despinosa, or Benedictus de Spinosa, as he called himself after the scholarly fashion of his time—that much maligned Hebrew philosopher whom the godly Malebranche pronounced "a wretch," the sceptical Bayle "a systematic atheist," the pious Schleiermacher "a saint," and Novalis "a God-intoxicated man." The subject is not a new one, Mr. Lewes himself having written upon it over twenty years ago in "The Westminster Review"—his article, by the way, being the first attempt to vindicate Spinosa in England—but it has all the charms which freshness and vigor of treatment can impart to it, and the merit of presenting the chief facts of Spinosa's life briefly and interestingly. From the philosophy of Spinosa Mr. Lewes entirely dissents, confessing that many of his conclusions are such as must shock all Christians and most Theists, and that to him even more than to Kant should be applied the epithet of "all-shattering" (*alles zermalmende*). "The horror which many feel at his opinions," he thinks, however, "is entirely due to the rooted prejudice that morality is inseparable from certain special dogmas which, if rejected, leave the man a prey to all animal and ignoble passions. But no one was more rigorous than he in the subjection of all passions and all egoisms to the love of God and the Divine will. The love of God is everywhere proclaimed the highest good, the noblest aim, the only source of permanent felicity. And when Isaac Orobio accused him of getting rid of all religion in the escape from superstition, he gravely asked, 'Is it to cast off religion to acknowledge God as the supreme good, and to love him with singleness of soul, which love must constitute our highest felicity, our most perfect freedom? that the reward of virtue is virtue, and the punishment of ignorance and impotence is ignorance? and that every one should love his neighbor and obey the laws?'" That Spinosa was aware, however, that the strong meat of his philosophy was not fit food for babes, is shown by Mr. Lewes in an anecdote which he relates of Spinosa's landlady, who asked him whether he believed she could be saved by her religion, which she knew was not his. "Your religion," he replied, "is a good one; you ought not to seek another, nor doubt that yours will procure salvation provided you add to your piety the tranquil virtues of domestic life." Not the least interesting portion of Mr. Lewes's paper is the excommunication which was fulminated against Spinosa by the Synagogue of Amsterdam, and which is worthy of a place beside the similar manifestoes of the Romish Church. "We beseech the great God to confound such a man, and to hasten the day of his destruction. May God, the God of Spirits, depress him under all flesh, extirpate, destroy, exterminate, and annihilate him." "Which way soever the impious man turn, he will never find anything but contradiction, obstacles, and curses. His soul at his death will forsake his body, being delivered up to the quickest sense of fear, horror, and anguish; it will then be impossible for him to avoid the blow of death and the judgments of God. God send the sharpest and most violent evils upon him. Let him perish by the sword, by a burning fever, by a consumption, being dried up by fire within, and covered with leprosy and imposthumes without." "He will drink the cup of the indignation of the Lord, whose curses will cover him as his garments. The earth will swallow him up. God will extirpate and shut him for ever out of his house. Let God never forgive him his sins. Let the wrath and indignation of the Lord surround him and smoke for ever on his head. Let all the curses contained in the Book of the Law fall upon him. Let God blot him out of his book. Let God separate him to his own destruction from all the tribes of Israel, and give him for his lot all the curses contained in the Book of the Law." "Our army swore terribly in Flanders," quoth Uncle Toby, "but nothing like that." Such, in the eyes of his Hebrew brethren, was Baruch Despinosa, who dared to think for himself in matters that concerned himself and his soul's salvation; a man of the purest morals and the sweetest personal character; who chose poverty for his lot, living upon twopence half-penny a day, yet contriving to spare something for the necessities of others; who was the friend of the great Jean de Witt; who was invited by the Elector Palatine to accept the chair of philosophy at Heidelberg; and who was offered a pension by Louis XIV. if he would dedicate a book to him, a piece of royal flattery to which the honest, simple-minded thinker was insensible—replying that he had no intention of dedicating anything to his Majesty. Clearly there was something good in this man, whatever may be thought of his philosophy.

—The cost of manufacturing books in this country has driven a number of our publishers into the English market, and will drive others thither, unless the present system of oppressive taxation is revised. Many of the late publications of the Messrs. Appletons are manufactured for them in London, by Eyre & Spottiswoode, and other English houses. Messrs. Lippincott & Co., of Philadelphia, patronize the English book makers largely, taking whole editions of popular books, as the Globe Edition of Shakespeare; the favorite "Golden Treasury" series of Messrs. Macmillan & Co.; Figuier's "World Before the Flood;" Prof. Owen's "Comparative Anatomy and Physiology of the Vertebrate Animals," of which, by the way, the second volume is nearly ready; and most of the cheap English editions of the English novelists. Messrs. Roberts Brothers, of Boston, have about one-half their publications manufactured in England, the most recent instances being Combe's "Tour of Dr. Syntax," Butler's "Hudibras," and Miss Jean Ingelow's "Stories for Children." Mr. W. J. Widdleton is manufacturing books in England, while Messrs. Leypoldt & Holt are manufacturing theirs, at least the Tauchnitz series of "British Authors," of which they are the sole American publishers, in Germany. There is a moral in this, if our legislators had the wit to perceive it, and one not at all creditable to their sagacity as political economists.

—The establishment of agents, or branches, of English publishing houses in this country is likely to increase our stock of good reading during the present season, as may be gathered from the announcements of one of their number—Messrs. Strahan & Co.—who will shortly publish the following works: "Familiar Lectures on Scientific Subjects," by Sir John Herschel; "The Resources and Prospects of America," by Sir S. Morton Peto; "The Life and Light of Men," by John Young, LL.D.; "London Poems," by Robert Buchanan; "Family Prayers for the Christian Year," by Dean Alford; "The Dean's English," by Mr. G. Washington Moon; "Characteristics of Christ's Teaching," by Dr. Vaughan; "Essays," by Dora Greenwell, whose previous works were reprinted by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields; "Lives of Indian Officers," by John W. Kaye; "The Reign of Law," by the Duke of Argyll; "Days of Yore," by Sarah Tytler; "Reminiscences of a Highland Parish," by Dr. Macleod; "Cosas de España," by the author of "Flemish Interiors;" "Dr. Austin's Guests," by William Gilbert; "Wealth and Welfare," by Jeremiah Gotthelf; "Master and Scholar, and other Poems," by Prof. Plumptre, the translator of Sophocles; and a second series of "The Parables of our Lord," by Dr. Guthrie. This is a goodly announcement of books in press, though a solid one, it must be confessed.

—Messrs. Appleton & Co. have in the press: "Recent British Philosophy," by Prof. David Masson; a new and enlarged edition of Tyndall's "On Heat;" "The Life of Andrew Johnson, President of the United States," by a Southerner; a revised edition of the "Companion Hand-book of Travel in the United States;" Quackenbos's "Practical Arithmetic;" "Brevity and Brilliancy in Chess: a Collection of Games and Problems," by M. J. Hazeltine; and the "Annual Cyclopædia for 1865."

—The forgery of autographs is a distinct profession on the Continent, and one which can be made to pay handsomely by skilful hands. A case in point occurred last year, the autographs in question being a collection of letters of Marie Antoinette, which were purchased by Count Vogt von Hunolstein, a nobleman of Lorraine, and published by him in a volume, which occasioned a controversy between the experts of Germany and France; those of the former country, headed by Prof. Von Sybel, of Bonn, denying the authenticity of the letters, while those of the latter, with a few exceptions, maintained it, and with considerable heat. The Germans were generally thought to have had the best of it, owing to the researches of Prof. Von Sybel in the Royal Library of Berlin, where were a number of genuine letters of Marie Antoinette, with which he compared those of Count von Hunolstein, not at all to the advantage of the latter. The matter did not rest here, for we now learn that enquiries have been made into the antecedents of the collector from whom Count von Hunolstein purchased his collection, who was no less a person than M. Feuillet de Conches, Imperial Master of the Ceremonies, Introducer of Foreign Ambassadors, and Sub-Director of the Foreign Office. M. Feuillet, it appears, has been favored for ten years, or more, with the permission to take manuscripts and books from the Imperial Library to his own residence, a permission of which he has availed himself liberally. The pieces borrowed by him were invariably bundles of letters accounts, etc., of the last century, which at an early period were carefully counted when he returned them by certain doubtful officials, who, however, never found any of the number missing, although it seemed to them that the blank leaves, where such existed, were torn off. As blank leaves, however, were valueless for historical purposes the matter was thought no more of. A new director, M. Taschereau, entering upon his duties at the Imperial Library, he observed one day, in a conversation with M. Feuillet, that the library should never be deceived under his management by the pur-

chase of false autographs, since any one practised in the art could easily distinguish between genuine and forged documents. M. Feuillet did not agree with him, and gave his reasons: first, that imitation of ink and handwriting was not difficult to an expert forger; second, that it was easy to give the necessary crumpling to letters by sending them several times through the post; the third difficulty, which he considered the crowning one, lay in the nature and condition of the paper, a difficulty, by the way, which was early foreseen by the forger Ireland, who selected the paper on which he scribbled his atrocious Shakespeare forgeries from the fly-leaves of old books, and the blank leaves of old legal deeds, when either happened to bear the "jug" water-mark of the age of Elizabeth. M. Taschereau listened attentively, remembering the loss of the blank leaves already mentioned, but said nothing, though he probably "kept up a thinking." Not long since there was sold at auction in Paris a collection of autograph letters of Racine. The number of these autographs, seventeen, being the exact number of those in the Imperial Library, the purchaser was requested to produce them, when they turned out to be copies of the originals, with the exception that six of them were signed, probably for the sake of increasing their price at the sale, a blunder, since it was known that Racine was not in the habit of signing his letters. Enquiries concerning the persons to whom the originals had been entrusted disclosed the fact that M. Feuillet had had them in his possession for nearly two years. So stands the case at present, and it must be owned that it wears an ugly look for M. Feuillet, not only as regards the forged Racine letters, but also those of Marie Antoinette, for which he is said to have received eighty thousand francs.

—The late W. F. Fairholt, whose death we announced last week, has bequeathed his large collection of books of pageants, which contains many rare volumes, to the Society of Antiquaries, and with it the manuscript of an unfinished work from his pen on the pageants of the Middle Ages. His Shakespeariana, which includes a large volume of Shakespeare drawings, he has left to the Museum at Stratford-on-Avon, and a number of volumes, which he names, to the British Museum. The remainder of his library will be sold for the benefit of the Literary Fund.

—The late T. K. Hervey, who edited the *Athenæum* at one time for about eight years, is about to enjoy the honor of an American reprint of his verses by Messrs. Ticknor & Fields, who have in press a collection of them for their favorite "blue and gold" series. It will contain, we understand, all that Hervey published in the shape of verse during his life, with a selection from his manuscripts, the whole being edited by his widow, Mrs. Elenora Hervey, a poet herself, in some sort, and a novelist after a fashion, through her recent romantic tale, "Snooded Jessaline, or the Honor of a Noble House." We anticipate but little from the forthcoming volume, which will be sentimental, to say the least. Hervey's best work, as we remember it, is "The Book of Christmas," a readable and interesting account of that sacred festival of the Christian Year.

SCIENTIFIC.

Transporting Power of the Fog-vesicle.—That fogs and mists possess the power of transporting vapors, gases, odors, and the like, or even minute solid particles, as in smoke, is a fact well known to the observant. Many persons dwelling far to the leeward of certain manufacturing establishments are well aware that offensive or irritating gases may be caught upon the lap of a fog as they issue from the chimneys of the factory and carried away for miles. The same thing is apparent when the sea-fog sweeps inland, bearing the "smell of the sea," as the landsman calls it, or when the land-mists drift out on to the ocean, carrying to the incoming mariner the "smell of the land"—the odors in question, both that "of the land" and that "of the sea," being, in reality, one and the same, viz., the odor of the strand.

A somewhat analogous instance of the transporting power of the mist is seen in the long-persisting and all-pervading smoke-fogs which arise from burning forests and peat-bogs towards the close of our northern summers. These autumnal smokes are really of the nature of mists, as will appear from a moment's reflection upon the manner of their formation and upon the chemical composition of the products of the combustion of a forest. A very large proportion of these products is nothing but aqueous vapor, which, under the peculiar circumstances of the case, immediately assumes the vesicular condition which we see in fogs and clouds.

In defiance, then, of all the ordinary laws which control the diffusion of gases, fogs can buoy up, hold for a long time, and carry to great distances, odors and vapors which, under ordinary conditions, are but slightly volatile; and in the same way, though in a lesser degree, they can transport solid substances. Besides the soot above mentioned, another familiar instance of this transporting power, as regards solids, is that of the boracic acid brought up by steam jets which issue from the earth in the volcanic districts of Tuscany, and there is another striking example of the same thing in the salt which is carried inland by fogs from the ocean. As an evidence of the extent to which this process goes on in some localities, we may cite the experience of the farmers upon our eastern seaboard, where fogs are frequent. It is there found, even at distances ten or fifteen miles from the salt water, that animals have none of that craving for salt which is so strong in the cattle of the inland districts; and the farmer consequently pays no heed to a matter which is so important to the members of his calling elsewhere. He takes no pains to "salt his cattle," for he knows from long experience that they will obtain a sufficient quantity of this condiment in and upon the grass which they daily eat.

As bearing upon these well-known facts, the system of applying medicaments and perfumes by the so-called method of atomization which has come into vogue within the last few years, would appear to be worthy of the careful study of meteorologists; the phenomena of transportation exhibited by the "atomizer" being evidently akin to those manifested by the fogs and clouds which occur in nature. In order to atomize a substance, it is first dissolved in water, and this aqueous solution is then, by means of suitably disposed jets of air or steam, driven out of minute orifices in the form of a finely divided spray or mist. This spray is inhaled by the patient, and the physician is thus enabled to apply his therapeutic agents, such as the various astringents and alteratives, directly to the diseased part of the throat or bronchiæ.

Apart from its intrinsic scientific interest, this system of transporting drugs by atomization was undoubtedly a very important addition to the methods employed in the art of healing. But, as now appears, it has led to a discovery of still greater consequence, viz., to the production of local anæsthesia by freezing through the agency of certain volatile liquids.

Local Anæsthesia.—One invention begets others, often with great rapidity, the uses of the offspring being in many instances surprisingly unlike those of the parents. As a case in point we have, flowing from the method of atomizing liquids, to which allusion was just now made, the very important improvement of Drs. Richardson and Bigelow for producing local anæsthesia by means of the vapor of ether or of petroleum-naphtha. Scarcely had the atomizer become firmly established as a part of the physician's outfit when it occurred to Dr. B. W. Richardson, of London, that by employing in this instrument some highly volatile liquid, like ether, and throwing this out as a volume of fine spray, there would be produced, by the evaporation of the ether, such intense cold as would quickly benumb, and so render insensible to pain, any small portion of the human body that might be subjected to it. Dr. Richardson at once perfected his apparatus and obtained with it very satisfactory results, the ether spray having caused the mercury of a thermometer which was immersed in it to fall to 4° below the zero of Fahrenheit's thermometer within thirty seconds, and upon being thrown upon the skin such entire insensibility was produced that a needle could be passed through the part without being felt. "When the ether spray is directed upon the outer skin, the skin is rendered insensible within a minute; but the effects do not end here. So soon as the skin is divided, the ether begins to exert on the nervous filaments the double action of cold and of etherization, so that the narcotism can be extended deeply to any desired extent. Pure rectified ether used in this manner is entirely negative. It causes no irritation, and may be applied to a deep wound without any danger. . . . One or two precautions are necessary. It is essential, in the first place, to use pure rectified ether. Methylated ether causes irritation; and chloroform, unless largely diluted with ether, does the same." Dr. Richardson, in his published account of the invention, intimates that "if an anæsthetic fluid of negative qualities as regards irritation of nerve, and which has a boiling point of 75° or 80°, can be obtained from the hydrocarbon series, the deepest anæsthesia may be produced, and even a limb may be amputated by this method." The results of Dr. H. J. Bigelow, of Boston, go far to corroborate the correctness of Dr. Richardson's idea. By substituting for the ether that portion of petroleum-naphtha which boils at 70°, Dr. Bigelow is able to obtain a reduction of temperature even to 19° below zero, so that the skin can be frozen hard in five or ten seconds. The naphtha is convenient of application, is comparatively odorless, and is far less costly than ether. "Applied to the skin a first degree of congelation is evanescent; . . . but if continued or used on a large scale, the dangers of frost-bite and mortification must be imminent. . . . The opening of felons and other abscesses, the removal of small tumors, small incisions, excisions, and evulsions, and perhaps the extraction of teeth, may be effected by means of it with ease and certainty; and for these purposes surgeons will

use it, also, perhaps, for the relief of neuralgia, chronic rheumatism, etc. and as a styptic, and for the destruction by freezing of erectile and other growths. But for large operations it is obviously less convenient than general anæsthesia, and will never supersede it."

The naphtha in question, as is well known to chemists, is a mixture of several different members of the hydro-carbon series of hydrides of the alcohol radicals, containing notably the hydrides of butyl, of amyl, and of hexyl, together with other still more volatile hydrides which have not yet been examined. Of the products above mentioned the hydride of butyl boils at a temperature as low as 32° F.

Fracture of Large Masses of Iron.—Hitherto it has been a matter of no little labor and difficulty to break up large pieces of cast-iron—old cannon, for instance—into fragments small enough to be conveniently remelted. An ingenious method of overcoming this difficulty has recently been brought forward in France. It depends upon the familiar physical facts that water is, practically, as good as incompressible, and that liquids transmit equally in all directions any pressure to which they may be subjected. A hole having been drilled into the article to be broken, to a depth equal to about one-third the thickness of the iron, this hole is filled with water, and then closed with a closely-fitting steel plug. The hammer of a pile-driver being now allowed to fall upon the plug, the mass of cast iron will be broken in two at the first blow. The plan is, of course, identical in principle with the familiar experiment in which an earthen jug completely full of water is shattered by driving in the cork by a sudden blow of the hand.

EDUCATIONAL.

The "Back Bay Enterprise," in Boston, was a Yankee notion which, with Yankee forethought, has been turned to good account for the promotion of learning. It was proposed, in 1859, to give all the proceeds of the undertaking to the Massachusetts School Fund, but more recent legislation has distributed a good share of the profits among various establishments of science and art. A recent public document states that over four million feet of land have been "filled" (that is the official term), yielding the State a net profit of nearly a million and a quarter of dollars already. Quite as much more profit is expected from "filling" proposed but not yet accomplished.

The State has given, in land, to the Public Garden, 120,000 square feet; Institute of Technology and Society of Natural History, 131,520 square feet; City of Boston, 44,800 square feet; and in money to the Museum of Zoölogy, $100,000; Tufts College, $50,000; Williams College, $25,000; Amherst College, $25,000; Wesleyan Academy, $25,298 04; Massachusetts School Fund, $456,930 06; reserved by the Commonwealth, $613,157 53.

—A private letter informs us that the citizens of Nashville, Tennessee, have shown their good sense by returning since the close of the war to the maintenance of good public schools. Before the rebellion these institutions were the pride of the people. The teachers now employed (two of the principals being graduates of a Northern college) are determined that the schools shall merit in the future the same support which they had in the past. The city is said to have made an investment of $200,000 in the schools, and it maintains them at a yearly expense of $60,000. The whole number of scholars is about 2,000. One of the graded schools numbers 700 pupils.

—In various parts of the country what is called "The High School Question" is now under discussion. This includes the enquiry as to where the state should stop in its efforts to promote the instruction of the people, and where private schools or incorporated academies should be introduced. It is true that the subject has received a great deal of attention from able minds, but still an exhaustive or masterly consideration of all which it involves has never, so far as we are aware, been attempted. Such a treatise as thorough investigation would lead to is much needed. A very important and suggestive essay on the advantages of state institutions for what we call "high school" discipline, and what is called in Europe "secondary instruction," may be found in the lately published volume of essays by Matthew Arnold, a son of the renowned master of Rugby. The article is entitled "A French Eton," and, probably because it is included with a collection of pieces on purely literary topics, it seems to have escaped the attention of many who belong to the class of educators. The writer combats in a very vigorous manner the theory which is often heard in the mouths of American, as well as of English, grumblers, that "the state mars everything which it touches:" "it attempts to do things for private people, and private people could do them a great deal better for themselves." His exposition of the value of a public system of instruction (including "high schools") in promoting the interests of "the middle class" is well put. Considering that in this country "the middle class" comprises nine-tenths of the inhabitants, the separate publication of this essay, and, at any rate, its general perusal, might be productive of excellent results. Nearly all that he says of the wants, the power, and the capacity of "the middle class" in England may be applied with slight changes to "the people" in America. With us the necessity of higher education for the great body of our citizens is made apparent by the multitude of uneducated men who are brought into public life. In a land where any man may be called to any position, the advantages of widely diffused culture are apparent; but experience seems to show that this cannot be secured without liberal contributions and constant energy on the part of the state.

—A school has been established in New Orleans for the training of colored teachers, under the direction of Mr. Mortimer Warren, for the past year superintendent of the schools for freedmen in that city. The scholars are taken from the higher classes of the city schools for colored children. This normal school is a good step forward, and, if rightly managed, should receive particular encouragement.

—A catalogue of the graduates of the Union Theological Seminary in New York has recently been prepared by Rev. Dr. Hatfield and published. It contains not merely the names and titles of the alumni, but a brief record of their public career and a statement of their present residence and work. It bears evidence of great painstaking, and, although sharp eyes will detect occasional inaccuracies, it is probably the most complete and convenient catalogue of the sort ever published in this country.

RENAN ON FRENCH ART.*

The fourteenth century is not marked in the history of France as a century of great events; but, nevertheless, the steady struggle which is to be traced all through it, between the aggressive dominion of the church and the rising ambition of the kings, imparts to it a certain philosophical interest which more imposing periods fail to create. Yet it is in just this respect that the work undernoted seems to us defective.

M. Le Clerc was charged by the Institute with his part of the task—the condition of literature as long ago as 1842; and not a day has passed since, he says, in which he has not collected a new fact or written an additional line. In the discharge of his duty, in portraying the condition of the fine arts, M. Renan has made minute investigations throughout the whole region of the ancient Ile de France and of Picardy, where the Gothic art is supposed to have arisen. The work is thus the fruit of much labor, and a second edition of it in the course of two or three years shows that it is justly appreciated. M. Le Clerc, indeed, whose contribution is the larger and in many respects the more valuable of the two, has accumulated many curious facts touching the religious orders and the popes; while his careful illustrations of the state of the theology and rhetoric and language and dialectics of the age in their various aspects, as well as his sketch of French literature in Europe, must commend itself as a useful guide to one who is investigating for himself the development of that wonderful mediæval life. But the work, in both parts of it, though an excellent digest, is very far from being that luminous philosophical exposition either of the literature or of the art of the fourteenth century which the reputation of the younger of the writers at least would have led us to expect.

In his remarks, however, upon the origin of Gothic architecture, M. Renan has exhibited even more than his usual perspicuity of criticism. That the Germans had as little to do with this original creation of the Middle Age as the Arabians, to whom it has been so often ascribed, will seem to many, doubtless, a somewhat startling proposition. M. Renan's analysis, however, of the manner in which the Roman basilica was transferred by degrees into the Gothic cathedral cannot fail to interest, if not to satisfy, the most credulous.

The Gothic style, he affirms, which began to appear in the middle of the twelfth century, and, never for a moment stationary, was complete at the beginning of the fourteenth, and finally abandoned in the seventeenth, took its rise in the Ile de France and the surrounding districts—that is, in the original true France, the region in which, a hundred and fifty years before, the Capetian dynasty had been established. The edifices which exhibit and explain the transition from the Romanesque to the Gothic style are all to be found there. The cathedral of Noyon, for instance, shows that there must have been a time when both styles were followed simultaneously. Indeed, in all the churches in that region the two styles are profoundly blended. The general aspect may be Romanesque, though the leading features are

* "Histoire Littéraire de la France au Quatorzième Siècle: Discours sur l'Etat des Lettres, par Victor Le Clerc, Membre de l'Institut; Discours sur l'Etat des Beaux-Arts, par Ernest Renan, Membre de l'Institut. Seconde édition. Paris: Michael Levy Frères. 1865." (2 Vols.)

Gothic; while all the characteristics of the Gothic may be evident, though the building is Romanesque.

Thus the Gothic architecture, arising in the very heart of the French nationality, so to speak, in this rich and fruitful district, which was perhaps the first to throw off the feudalism of the Teutonic races, was purely French. There was no Italian or German element whatever in it. The borders of the Rhine were still filling with Romanesque structures, while the *chefs-d'œuvre* of the Gothic architecture had already been reared in the north of France. The Gothic cathedrals of England, built in the twelfth century, were the work of French artists. Even up to the fourteenth century the Gothic was called the "French style," *opus francigenum*. But the atrocities of the Inquisition, the misfortunes of a hundred years of war, extinguished the French genius. Strasburg and Cologne became the schools of the art which France had created, and thus the "French style" passed for German.

The manner, however, in which, according to Renan, the Romanesque became by mere expansion the Gothic style, is too curious to be passed over without a brief explanation. Before the eleventh century, as is well known, the churches of France, if not mere imitations of the Byzantine type, were wretched copies of the basilicas of the Christian emperors. After the eleventh century, however, the elements of these basilicas were changed in all directions. For the framework which supported the roof was substituted the arch; buttresses were applied to the walls; the form of the church became a Latin cross; two towers adorned the entrance, and a rose-window completed the façade; the choir was lengthened, and a central cupola arose over the junction of the nave and transept; while in the interior appeared an ever-increasing prodigality of wealth in decorative sculpture and colored incrustations on the walls.

Thus arose the Romanesque style, which in the eleventh century covered France with magnificent structures; in the central and southern part of the kingdom, however, its progress was timid and slow, but in the north it was rapid and complete. From the Romanesque style the change was easy and natural to the Gothic; the principles being established, needed only to be carried out in detail. To use M. Renan's phrase, it was as if a breath were breathed upon the Romanesque basilica, and it dilated in all its parts, and became aerial, and swam in light and color. The Romanesque aimed at solidity, the Gothic at lightness; the old narrow windows became high and broad; the architect was eager to invent novel and almost deceptive methods of construction.

Thus the Gothic cathedral is but the Romanesque basilica with a soul breathed into it; and thus from the Romanesque basilica to the Christian basilica of the Constantines, from the Christian basilica of the Constantines to the churches of the ninth and tenth centuries, from these again to the Romanesque basilica, and from that to the Gothic cathedral, there runs a line of direct succession. However little analogy there may seem to be between them, Notre Dame at Paris is a logical evolution of San Paolo fuori le Mure at Rome. As the Middle Ages created in Italy out of the crumbling elements of the ancient speech a new language adapted to its new condition and wants, so in the rest of Europe the new time created a fresh instrument for the expression of its new religious life. The Gothic cathedral is to the Roman basilica what the language of Dante is to that of Virgil, not the degradation of barbarism, but the inspiration of a rising civilization.

The Gothic architecture bears a resemblance, indeed, to the Arabian, but it is a resemblance which arises merely from their point of departure. One is derived from the Romanesque, the other from the Byzantine type; and both the Romanesque and Byzantine were corruptions of the classic type. The Gothic and Arabian styles, therefore, though somewhat analogous, really owe nothing to one another. They represent tendencies profoundly different. Unlike the ancient, however, the Gothic architecture bore in itself the seeds of its own destruction. If the human race had disappeared the morning after their erection, the temples of Baalbec and of Athens, as Renan remarks, would have been still standing entire—a Gothic cathedral would not have survived a hundred years. The Gothic architecture was, in a word, a prodigious *tour de force*, followed by complete exhaustion; yet if it died of subtility, it accomplished at least one remarkable result, in that it secularized art.

SERMONS TO CHILDREN.*

Mr. Brace has been for ten or twelve years engaged in philanthropic labors amongst the poor in this city, and has become, we suppose we may say, the leading American authority upon all questions relating to the possibilities of reform amongst "the dangerous classes." He has been dealing during the whole of that period with one of the most interesting and most momentous problems presented by modern civilization to thoughtful students of society, and has, no doubt, accumulated a large body of most valuable experience. And yet, if we are not mistaken, the volume before us is the first contribution made by him to the literature of his pursuit. He has published two books of travels and a work on ethnology, all valuable and instructive, but not one of them treats of things, as this does, on which he can speak with the authority of a master. We feel bound to say that this is not handsome, and that if the obligation to write books ever rests on a man at all, Mr. Brace has not yet discharged his duty to the public.

There are probably few stories in the romance of street life, or in the chronicles of Christian charity, more interesting than the following account of the foundation of the "News-boys' Lodging-House," in which the sermons before us were delivered:

"While engaged as secretary and trustee of the Children's Aid Society, in 1853–4, I was pained at the sight of such numbers of news-boys and street-boys, sleeping about at nights near the newspaper offices, in boxes or under stairways. I remember, one cold night, seeing some ten or a dozen of these little homeless creatures piled together to keep each other warm beneath the stairway of the *Sun* office. There used to be a mass of them also at the *Atlas* office, sleeping in the lobbies, until the printers drove them away by pouring water on them. One winter an old, burnt-out safe lay all the season in Wall Street, which was used as a bedroom by two boys, who managed to crawl every night into the hole that had been burnt. I was often amused at their accounts of their various lodgings. 'Oh, mister,' one said, 'there's nothing like them steam gratin's—it's just as good as a feather bed! And, next to 'em, I likes a good box of sand, 'cause you can git it all up 'round you, and kinder snuggle in it; but bummin' is hard work in a nor'-easter.'

"The boys were, as might be expected, a fighting, gambling set, and the little ones were continually plundered by the larger. On enquiring among the missionaries and others of the lower wards, I could not learn that these lads ever went to a Sunday-school or church, or ever had any good public influence exerted on them.

"Occasionally, some unusually enthusiastic street-preacher would go among them, but they 'chaffed' him so that he could do nothing for them.

"I asked what became of them, but, as with Dickens's 'post-boys,' no one seemed to know, until a printer undertook one day to show me, and we found some dozen young men who had been news-boys in the back room of a gin-shop, all more or less drunk, though it was then morning.

"Thinking it necessary to consult the police as to any plans which might be adopted for the improvement of these lads, I called upon Capt. Matsell, the chief. In reply to my suggestions, he said, with a smile at such mistaken benevolence, 'My dear sir, nothing can be done for these boys! They are a set of perfect banditti!' I had resolved, however, to attempt a simple experiment—to open a lodging-house for them as the entering wedge for good influences.

"The especial condition for the success of the movement, however, was the man to carry out the execution of it. Providentially, at this time, I chanced upon one of those men who are, perhaps, peculiar to America—a skilful mechanic, self-educated, of much natural tact, with an unbounded pity for the weak and miserable, and a good deal of sternness toward the lazy and shiftless, and who had been long at work among the children of the Sunday-schools, Mr. C. C. Tracy. As it turned out, not one man in a thousand would have been so well adapted to open such an enterprise. He happened to be temporarily unemployed (having just sold out the good will of his shop and tools), and, much against the advice of his friends, agreed to take charge of the intended lodging-house. He at once began his search for a house, but few would admit such a set as the news-boys then were within their building.

"At length he discovered an old, begrimed loft in the top of a building on the corner of Fulton and Nassau Streets, the '*Sun* building.' The owner, Mr. M. Y. Beach, began his long course of kindness to us by saying we should have that room for the experiment if every tenant left the building! Our plan was to divide the loft into a school-room, bed-room, office, and bath-room, and to furnish the bed-room with wooden 'bunks,' placed one over another, so as to hold the most lodgers in a given space. To Mr. Tracy was left the general carrying out of the plans with whatever changes he might think best.

"In a few weeks we had (at an expense of about $1,000), all furnished and nicely equipped, a lodging-house that could accommodate seventy-five lodgers. Notice was given in the papers, and Mr. T. himself spoke to many of the leading boys, who always carried with them a train of imitators in whatever they undertook.

"The first night (March 18, 1854), the school-room was crowded with a motley congregation of ragged and rough boys—many having come in only to make a disturbance. Mr. Tracy addressed them simply and kindly, and told them the objects of the plan: that we wanted to prevent them from growing up vagrants, and to save them from exposure to the weather, and consequent disease, and to help them on in the world. But that they were not objects of charity, but each one a lodger in his own hotel, paying his six cents for a bed, and the only rules were that they should keep order among themselves and use the bath. They cheered him warmly, and a larger boy, a 'speculator,' created a great impression by paying at once his whole week's lodging in advance. Those who had come merely 'to make a row' left in disgust, and the others passed a quiet evening, and were greatly delighted with the luxury of plenty of cold water in the bath.

"When they were 'turned in,' the superintendent could hear their exclamations of satisfaction. 'Better than bumming—hey, Jim?' 'Rather warmer than the soft side of a plank, aint it?' 'Did ye nivir see a bed

* "Short Sermons to News-boys. By Charles Loring Brace." New York: Scribner & Co. 1866.

afore?' and the like. The next day several said they 'could n't sleep, the beds were so soft!' During the night there was 'larking' going on in the stairways by the outsiders; the gas-burner was twisted off, which might have been followed by serious consequences if Mr. Tracy, expecting this, had not provided a cut-off in the inside.

"The next evening more came in to take beds. The superintendent talked pleasantly and instructively to them, and the boys, feeling that the keeping of order depended on themselves, were very quiet. They seemed to enjoy the lodging-room very much, but one thing they could not understand, and were continually 'speering' after—What all this was for? Some whispered, 'It 's a House-o'-Refuge trap!' another, 'I know—it 's worse 'an that—it 's *a Sunday-school trap.*'

"Their especial vices Mr. T. soon found to be their wasting of money and their gambling. Some of the more active boys earned sometimes from $3 to $5 a day with the sale of 'extras,' and the smaller averaged seventy-five cents. Yet every penny went for follies—theatres, cards, dice, policy-tickets, and games with pennies, while the lads themselves remained ragged and poor. To correct these habits, he introduced innocent games, such as chequers, backgammon, and others; and he contrived, what has since been a great blessing to hundreds of street-boys, the 'News-boys' Bank.' This was simply a table with a drawer divided into separate little compartments, each with a slit in the lid, into which the boys dropped their pennies; each box being numbered and reserved for a depositor. The drawer was carefully locked, and, after an experience of one or two forays on it from petty thieves who crept in with the others, it was fastened to the floor, and the under part lined with tin.

"The superintendent, following his usual plan, called the lads together for a meeting, told them the object of the bank, which was to make them save their money, and put it to vote how long it should be kept locked. They voted for two months, and thus for all this time the depositors could not get at their savings. Some repented and wanted their money, but the rule was rigid. At the end of the period the bank was opened in the presence of all the lodgers with much ceremony, and the separate deposits were made known, amid an immense deal of 'chaffing' from one another. The depositors were amazed at the amount of their savings; the increase seemed to awaken in them the instinct of property, and they at once determined to deposit the amounts in the city savings-banks, or to buy clothes with them. Very little was spent foolishly. This simple contrivance has done more to break up the gambling and extravagant habits of the class than any other one influence. The superintendent now pays a large interest on deposits, and our trustees have offered prizes to the lads who save the most. During the present year (1865) the savings in bank of the boys will amount to about $250 a month, beside what is deposited in the city banks or invested continually in business."

How the religious meetings, in which the sermons were delivered, came to be held, is thus explained:

"We chanced upon our religious meetings something in this wise. The boys had attended on a Sunday some public funeral, which impressed them much, and, while talking together earnestly over the matter, Mr. T. suggested that they should hear a chapter read and have a prayer. They assented, and a meeting was held, from which has arisen the long course of religious meetings held since for the news-boys, of which this little volume of sermons is one result."

Of the sermons, of course, anything like literary criticism would be impertinent. The three things which discourses to children ought to have—simplicity, directness, and abundance of illustration—were all present in them. They have, in a remarkable degree, that excellence which we seldom remember to have found in a "child's book," of being written in language such as children use and can understand. "The Parable of the Rich and Poor Boy," that on "Thankfulness" and on "Sacrifice," are, perhaps, the best.

The Resurrection of the Dead; considered in the light of History, Philosophy, and Divine Revelation. By Rev. Hiram Mattison, D.D. (Perkinpine & Higgins, Philadelphia.)—There is a distinction not altogether without a difference between the title of this work as it appears inside the book upon the title-page and as it appears outside, where we read "*The Resurrection of the Body.*" "Revelation," said somebody, discussing the doctrine of man's immortality—"Revelation has changed the interrogation point of the heathen philosopher to the exclamation point of the believing Christian." It was a figure more bold than happy; but still it is true that all the sects of Christendom with one accord declare that though a man die he shall live again. But what shall be the manner of the new life? Too many answers, Mr. Mattison thinks, are given to this question; too many Christians look for an answer to philosophy, falsely so called; "it becomes necessary to contend earnestly for the faith once delivered to the saints." In the world to come man will not exist as a disembodied spirit; the resurrection is not simply the quickening of the soul in regeneration, as some say; it is not the emerging of the soul from the body in the moment of death, as the Swedenborgians hold; it is not the construction of a new body, as Origen falsely maintained; it is not the evolution of a body from a small portion of the old one. It was to combat all these notions, to prove that in the hereafter the soul is to have a body, and to describe its structure and its various powers and functions, that this book was undertaken. The author assumes the truth of Scripture, and the correctness of the common version. Standing upon this ground he combats all the theories that oppose his own. His own may be briefly stated, and may, perhaps, be called the popular belief. At the end of the world, at the sound of a trumpet, the dead are to rise. All come forth—those who have been buried in the earth for ages, "whirled round with rocks and stones and trees," a part of the general frame of nature; those who were dropped into the sea; those whom fire burned, whose ashes the wind scattered; those who were eaten by beasts or whose decaying substances has nourished plants, and those also who ate the beasts and were nourished by the plants that lived on the flesh of the former generations—all come forth with a body at once perfect in all its parts and identically the same with that which they had in this life. No man should find this hard to believe. For, firstly, it is easy for God to order that the "small part of human dust which actually becomes part of vegetation should lodge in the roots and stalks and leaves without ever becoming a part of the grain" on which men feed; and, secondly, if this consideration should fail to satisfy the rational enquirer, the whole subject of the resurrection "must be studied in the light of miracles." It would be too much to say that the book adds anything to our knowledge, but it presents in a readable form the belief which is held upon this subject by a very large number of Christians.

Honor May. (Ticknor & Fields, Boston.)—The young person—for it is evidently a young person—who writes this book is fond of music, especially vocal, and of virtues, especially truthfulness. She—for it is unmistakably a lady—admires self-abnegation, devotion to an art, and strength to live without love. She believes profoundly in moral independence, the German school of singing, a pale, blond style of beauty for a woman, and in decorous behavior at concerts. With these unimpeachable tastes, she reads "Charles Auchester" and *Dwight's Journal of Music*, is seized with a divine afflatus, sees Messrs. Ticknor & Fields at her service, and writes a book. She will pardon us for thus sketching her own character, instead of Honor May's, or another of the personages of her story, because it is the single real one she has offered to our consideration. And of it, we refer only to those points which are admirable; there are others, quite as evident, of the kind that must inevitably appear where a novice brings to her undertaking enthusiasm instead of judgment, personal proclivities instead of observation, self-confidence instead of self-criticism. Shoals of books are written like this, some better, most not so good, which hold the mirror up to nobody's nature but the author's. The majority fall below "Honor May," because they exhibit scarcely anything besides the uncontrollable desire of their authors to give the public a sort of inventory of their smartnesses, their griefs, their aspirations, and get its admiration and sympathy in return. But beyond this weakness, the writer of "Honor May" entertains a laudable desire to advance the art of singing, for which desire we give her all credit, although the best part of its execution is not different from directions to be found in any good book on singing.

Where the moral intention of a story is so excellent, the task of censure is to the last degree ungrateful. To those fresh souls, full of strength and energy and self-reliance, chafing for any kind of action, so that it be not commonplace and under a bushel, it were far easier to say, with vague application: "Work! the night comes—the world needs a helping hand—labor in the cause of truth," etc., than, "He also serves who only stands and waits."

St. Martin's Summer. By Anne H. M. Brewster. (Ticknor & Fields.)—"While the rest," says the author, at Amalfi, "were loitering over some of the cathedral wonders, I stood alone on the top of the high broad stone steps, and gazed dreamily down into the square or piazza beneath. . . . I thought of those wonderful old Catholic days in 800 and 900 A.D., the first period of Amalfi's greatness. Then my memory swept on to 1200, 1300, 1400," etc. This rather ludicrous admixture of Murray's guide-book and the author's sentimentalism is found in varying proportions throughout the whole book, together with copious quotations from the poets and other writers, and an attempt to convert a diary into a romance. The result is what might be expected. We neither learn anything fresh or valuable about Italy nor get in the least interested in the lay-figures of the narrative. Miss Brewster gives evidence of extensive reading, but scarcely any of a capacity to compose a novel. It would be difficult to find more unartistic handling of good material than is shown in the episode called "Janet's Story." There is a work of fiction, based on a familiar acquaintance with Italy, of which it might be difficult to assert whether a description of the country was the chief or only a subordinate object, but which blends so perfectly romance and reality as to be in signal contrast to "St. Martin's Summer." We refer to Hawthorne's "Marble Faun." But in suggesting a comparison between the two books we perceive that we have done what the author deprecates in her preface—judged her *souvenir de voyage* ungently.

Indian Corn: its Value, Culture, and Uses. By Edward Enfield. (Appleton & Co., New York).—As its title indicates, this volume treats of the great American cereal. The author professes to be a practical cultivator of the crop, and has gathered much information relating to it. In fact he has too evidently "crammed" for the work by the perusal of many agricultural periodicals and the agricultural columns of the secular newspapers, and has not always well digested his materials. We notice some minor errors as a consequence, and we hope that in a second edition he will clothe his thoughts in plain language. The following will illustrate what we mean. The fertilization of the embryo seeds by the pollen falling on the silken pistils is described in this style: the "farina fecundans," "descending from the tassel, lights on the silken drapery of the ear, and the rudimental grains are thereby fertilized;" and this is about all the light we get on this important matter, although another chapter is devoted to hybridization, which depends upon it, and then follows a flowery outburst of reflections which he might have spared his readers without wronging them. In this way he is constantly soaring above and beyond the corn-field, and his flight is not always graceful. Nevertheless, if the practical farmer, for whom this work is especially written, will peruse it with care, and then only "hold fast that which is good," he will forget these and other defects, and cannot fail to gain much really valuable instruction and many useful hints from it. It lacks the convenience of an index.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

MR. LINCOLN'S SUCCESSOR.

THE advocates of Mr. Johnson's policy lay great stress upon its supposed identity with the plans of Mr. Lincoln. They urge that Mr. Johnson has simply acted as Mr. Lincoln's successor, and has inherited his policy as well as his office. It is said that Mr. Lincoln had committed himself to a particular scheme of reconstruction, that the people had endorsed that scheme by re-electing him, and that Mr. Johnson deserves commendation for having walked in the footsteps of his predecessor.

This argument is fallacious in several points. It is not true that the people meant to endorse all that Mr. Lincoln ever did or said, by re-electing him. Even the convention which nominated him by acclamation was opposed to some important features of his policy, and adopted resolutions which were designed to modify his course. Hundreds of thousands voted for him cheerfully who disapproved of some of his actions, and were anxious that they should not be made precedents. The same men who voted to re-elect him voted also to re-elect members of Congress who had differed widely from some of his views. The people had great confidence in Mr. Lincoln's honesty, patriotism, and general wisdom; and knowing that it would be impossible to find any man whose conduct in the same position would be faultless, they judiciously resolved to continue in office one whom they could trust for most purposes, whom they could influence by their will, and whom they knew to be always true to his sense of duty, and willing to receive new light from any quarter. Mr. Lincoln's tractability was one great cause of his popularity. He never boasted that he was too old to change his opinions. Accordingly, the most radical were willing to support him, confident that time and the logic of events would bring him to the right side. If he was not in advance of his party, he was at any rate not far behind, and no one feared that he would betray either his party or his country.

Mr. Lincoln had no cast-iron policy of reconstruction. The very ground upon which he refused to sign the bill passed by Congress upon that subject was, that he did not believe it safe to adopt any inflexible policy. He preferred to await further developments, and to make no decisions in advance of the necessity for them. Nothing can be more absurd than to cite his example in support of the effort now made to thrust rebels into power under an inflexible and infallible "plan."

The position of Mr. Johnson is very different from that of Mr. Lincoln. He was not chosen by the people for the office which he now fills. He was not selected as a representative of the mass of his party, but, in accordance with a universal custom, was taken up as a compliment to a small, though respected portion, of that party. He had not been tried in the same sphere with Mr. Lincoln. His training, his tastes, his associations, were dissimilar. It is not reasonable to ask the people of the North to put as unrestricted confidence in him as they did in a man of Northern training, of long fixed sympathy with the cause of emancipation, and of political associations not open to doubt. There is no need to impugn Mr. Johnson's good faith. Most men will trust their own brothers more than they will any new acquaintance, however respectable and honorable he may be. Mr. Lincoln was like a brother to every loyal man at the North. Mr. Johnson is a new friend, highly recommended, no doubt, and many of whose acts entitle him to confidence; but, after all, he is not Abraham Lincoln, nor can he ever have such a hold upon our affections as Lincoln had.

The people intended, by their votes in 1864, to give the control of public affairs to Mr. Lincoln and Congress jointly. Congress alone remains to represent the popular feelings. There is no ground for supposing that Mr. Johnson understands the wishes of the people any better than Congress. He was not elected by a larger constituency. He is not so closely in communion with the electors as a Congressman necessarily is. The form of the Constitution gives him disproportionate power, but there is nothing in his situation which entitles him to a moral weight equivalent to two-thirds of the national legislature.

In his peculiar position, a double measure of loyalty to his party would have appeared graceful in Mr. Johnson. The declaration which he was so fond of making last fall, that he disclaimed all partisanship, would have been highly becoming in one whose danger lay in that direction, and whose political principles were undoubted; but in a new convert, suddenly elevated to power by his party, a keen sense of propriety would dictate rather an assurance of his continued fidelity to the principles of the party than an ostentatious assumption of independence. So, in a man like Mr. Lincoln, expressly chosen for the position which he occupied, thoroughly known and trusted, familiar with the people of the North, and fully in sympathy with them, it might be excusable, nay, even commendable, that he should oppose the policy to which Congress inclined, and yet in Mr. Johnson the same action might indicate tendencies of the most dangerous nature. Had Mr. Lincoln vetoed the Freedmen's Bureau bill, no alarm would have been excited, because all the world would have known that some measure having the same ends in view, but altered in detail, would be sure to meet his approval, and that his objections arose from a conscientious interpretation of the Constitution, and not from motives of policy. But when Mr. Johnson's veto appeared, even those who coincided with its reasoning on some points felt troubled by the conviction that its real motive was not fully set forth, and that the arguments used were rather an excuse for than the cause of the veto. These thoughts were instinctive. They were not hammered out by any logical process. Much fault was found with those who expressed such views, and yet subsequent events have abundantly vindicated them.

Viewed in any aspect, this claim of an inherited right to confidence, by which any one who succeeds to the place of another is entitled to unqualified approbation if he does this year the same things which his predecessor was allowed to do last year, is destitute of reason. Every time has its peculiar need, and every man his peculiar gifts. The policy which in 1864 might have been successful, might in 1866 be a total failure. The policy which might, under one man's direction, be beneficial to the country, may, in the hands of another, equally sincere and well meaning, work irreparable injury. On the ground, therefore, that the men are different, that the times are different, that events have happened which have largely modified the people's judgment, and finally that Mr. Lincoln had wisely abstained from committing himself irrevocably to any plan of reconstruction, we deny that Mr. Johnson has a right to demand our support in carrying out, as an inflexible method, the experimental processes adopted by Mr. Lincoln two years ago.

THE HERALD AND THE NORTH AMERICAN REVIEW.

IN the last brilliant number of our leading review, forty-five pages are occupied by a very entertaining article which describes the rise and career of the New York *Herald*, sets forth the causes of its success, and discusses journalism in general. What should be the aim of the journalist? Who of American journalists best understands his business and has been most successful? These questions the reviewer asks and answers. The news, "it is that which constitutes the value and power of the daily press." The work of a journalist is to collect and print the news; editorials are his play. Editorials, though Burke should write them, or Macaulay, add nothing to the circulation or income of a paper.

The *Herald*, the reviewer says, has always far excelled its contemporaries in this true work of a journal.

The *Herald* has had no political convictions, no intimate connection with any party, and its version of the news has been nearly or quite undistorted and uncolored by partisanship.

It is the *Herald* which among American journals commands the greatest sale and which has attained the first place in point of "circulation, income, and power," and this success is due to its being the best newspaper. Its want of morality is scandalous; its editorials are disgraceful on account of their scurrility, insincerity, and weakness; but its news-columns best meet the requirements of the ideal standard of

news-columns. They are "fullest, promptest, and most correct on the one uppermost topic of the hour."

Now, are these general and particular statements wholly true? or are some of them not true, and some of them only to be received with important modifications? Let us see.

The rivalry of the newspapers reached its height during the rebellion, for it was then that the people were most eager for news. Then, if ever, the *Herald's* news should have been "fuller, prompter, and more correct" than what was furnished by the other journals. And certainly if we take the whole four years together, its reports were fullest, though even in this respect it was not infrequently beaten by its competitors. But the fulness was very often obtained at the expense of correctness. Its numerous reports were furnished by a large number of special correspondents, who either must have been fourth-rate reporters, selected at hap-hazard, or else they had been spoiled by the influence of "that exquisitely absurd custom" which the reviewer speaks of. Unless they were paid by the column and thus received a premium on verbosity, they would never have sent despatches so ill-digested, so full of confused details, so often self-contradictory, and contradictory of each other, and utterly perplexing to the reader.

So far as concerns promptness, the great number of the *Herald's* retainers gave it no marked advantage. The rules of the Associated Press and the fact that the telegraph was controlled by the Government put all the newspapers on an equality. Other papers, more trusted and better liked by the Government officials, got more favors from them in the way of special information than were ever shown the *Herald*. In the matter of publishing war news, then, the praise of superior fulness is all we are willing to concede to that paper. It is too much to say that in promptness it was superior to the *Times*, the *Tribune*, or the *World*, and in correctness it was, in our opinion, considerably the inferior of each and all of them.

Their system was not like that of the *Herald*. At every important point they kept a few capable reporters, subordinate, usually, to some one clever writer and observer. They aimed to present one early, comprehensive, graphic narrative of each noteworthy event, and generally refused to stuff their columns with the conflicting accounts of four or five bungling penny-a-liners. So from them we had more than one series of reports which were at once interesting and accurate, and which have since been found not valueless as authorities. It is unnecessary to mention names now before the public; three, at least, of these correspondents are in receipt of handsome incomes from the sale of volumes made up of their letters. We recollect only one *Herald* reporter who at all approached the standard of excellence which they established.

It was thus during the war, and before the war it was not different. In chronicling such matters of general interest as the trial and execution of John Brown, the journey of the Prince of Wales, the doings of the Japanese embassy, the *Herald* was, on the whole, outdone by its competitors. And we believe it to be true of the *Herald* at the present time that, while in the single department of Spanish-American news it is unequalled, in the important matters, in European and domestic intelligence, it has been beaten. As a general thing, the popular impression to the contrary has no better foundation than the incessant assertions of the *Herald* itself.

Next, as to the alleged impartiality of this journal's reports. It is well known that all the New York morning papers receive precisely the same matter from the Associated Press, and that by the press rules they can receive "special" only from Albany and Washington. It is in the special despatches from these capitals, therefore, that we must look for any superiority in point of impartiality. Will anybody deny that a strong partisan bias has always been as visible in the *Herald's* despatches as in those of almost any other paper? Even the reviewer, we think, will not be indisposed to make this admission, for although throughout the article he asserts, both directly and by implication, the impartiality of the *Herald*, yet we find him at last confessing "that journalism pure and simple does not exist in New York during a session of Congress." The topic uppermost in the minds of the people since the war closed has been the method of reconstruction. Have the telegrams and the Southern letters of the *Herald* had no decided leaning? It will not do to reply that the *Herald* has no convictions. The *Herald's* want of convictions somehow always puts it on the side of the strong against the weak; of privilege against the oppressed; makes it hate the slave and respect the slaveholder; makes it jeer at every reform. Its articles scoff at everything that is inherently respectable, and its reporters do their best to follow the copy set them. Furthermore, despite what is said of Mr. Bennett's antipathy "to" the church in which he was born, and his frequent gibes at its peculiarities, it is daily evident that his paper is the great secular organ of the Romish faith. Probably it would be within the bounds of truth to say that a large proportion of its editors are Catholics, and everything pertaining to the interests of their church is carefully watched and reported. Such, be they good or bad, are the convictions which govern this sheet. If the reports which we read in the *Herald*, and which, as it seems to us, are prepared by the same class of men and for the same class of men that read the editorials and believe in them—if these things are the unbiassed reports of our newspaper millennium that is to come, we only hope, and, moreover, we can firmly believe, that its coming is far off.

Editorials, the reviewer says, do not influence many minds nor change many votes. Yet he shows that the *Times* was "the monarch of Great Britain," by reason of the editorial ability purchased by its manager; it might even have stopped the Crimean war, he thinks; and it is only because the telegraph has prevented centralization that we, nowadays, are saved from a similar tyranny. "The power of the editorial lessens," he says, "as the intelligence of the people increases. The prestige of the editorial is gone." The first of these statements may be true, though we disbelieve it; but even if it were true, the second would not necessarily follow. As the intelligence of the people increases, the intelligence and honesty of the editorial must increase also; that is all. A good editorial is the earnest address of an exceptionally able and an exceptionally well-informed man to some fifty thousand, more or less, of his fellow-citizens. A specimen of the good editorial is one of those trumpet-blasts, as somebody calls them, which the *Tribune* blows just as the armies of electors in some neighboring State are about to join battle at the polls. These things can never go out of fashion, for they can never lose their use. The London *Times* is losing its supremacy in England not, as we might suppose, because the governing classes in England have grown too intelligent to follow its leading, but because a class of cheap papers has come into being whose editorials create and confirm a class of opinions that are opposed to the opinions which the *Times* maintains. When the world gets to be so intelligent that no man shall be more intelligent than any other man, and no man shall be swayed by his passions and interests, then there will be no need of editorial expressions of opinions, and editorial arguments and appeals will lose their power. True, the editorials of the *Herald* do not influence public opinion outside of New York, nor change votes; but the inference which we draw from this fact is not the inference drawn by the reviewer. It is not flattering to the population of New York city. We should say that the number of people here who resemble the reviewer's description of his favorite editor is only too great. There are plenty of people here in whom the moral element is lacking. The *Herald* is read by a class who cannot, in any proper sense of the word, be said to have opinions, who care nothing for opinions, who are, nevertheless, quite capable of forming the most bitter prejudices and of liking any person or party or paper that will pander to them. Therefore the mixture of balderdash and buffoonery of which the *Herald's* comments on public affairs are composed is just as welcome to them as if it was the essence of logic, scholarship, and humor.

The *Tribune*, on the other hand, has actually formed the political opinions of the great bulk of the country population of the Northwest. People read it by the twenty thousand not for the sake of the news—the telegraph and the local newspapers give them that—but to see what its editors feel and think. The *Times*, too, is a real power through its editorial comments. They make a strong impression on conservative Republicans, and do change votes. It is only the other day that its support of English came very near giving him the Connecticut election. We differ widely from the *World* on almost every question, and think very poorly of its morals, but it has a genuine

weight with a large class, and it owes that weight to the vigor, learning, and ability of its leading articles.

If the *Herald* is the most prosperous journal in America, it is such not because it is the best newspaper, but because it is published and finds most of its readers in a city where, unfortunately, too many thousand people are degraded and ignorant. If influence and not money makes success, it is the least successful journal in the country. Horace Greeley edits a hundred, yes, a thousand, newspapers in America where James Gordon Bennett edits one. In another article in the same number of the review, a more philosophical writer has stated clearly the ground on which newspapers, like most other enterprises, must base themselves: "There is no end to the sufficiency of character it can afford to wait. It cannot but succeed."

THE BOARD OF HEALTH AND THE GAS COMPANIES.

Amidst the serious facts with which they are surrounded, the highly respected members of the Board of Health must, if they are endowed with the sense of humor, feel it hard to school their faces to gravity in hearing the great nuisances defend themselves. In general, it is gratifying to observe the vested wrongs have made but a feeble fight. The butchers and the bone-boilers feel that the voice of society is against their pursuing their useful trades where they must be injurious. Besides, they are individuals; they are not corporations. It is only a grand incorporated criminal, great in its privileges, great in its dividends, greater in its stock and in its multitudinous *clientèle* of influential stockholders (to them "non olet") that can climb the height of comedy in its defence.

Here is a nuisance of the most gigantic description—a nuisance peculiar to New York—a nuisance that would not be for a moment tolerated in London, or Paris, or Boston. It assaults you in the inmost chamber of your house. You are waked in the morning, with your windows shut, by its intolerable breath; you eat sulphuretted hydrogen with your dinner, and you give it to your friends with your ices. You may sell your house in despair, and buy another a mile off, and before you have eaten a meal in it, there it is! "Sedet post equitem"—it gallops after you to the Park, and it poisons the air of the tenement-houses. *Pauperum tabernas regumque turres* in one. Well, this gigantic Mephitis is called before its judges—and what does it say? That it would be "*commercially imprudent*" to confine itself to such coal as would be inoffensive! Commercially imprudent! How all the combined nuisances of New York must have clapped their hands when they heard that phrase—the magic word which should save them all! Commercially imprudent, we should think! And how about the bone-boilers? Will it not be "commercially imprudent" for them to remove? And how about the "commercial imprudence" exacted of that useful class of our citizens who sell bad rum, as these burn bad coal and sell bad gas?

"We prefer," continues Mr. Adams, controller of the Manhattan Gas-works,—"we prefer rather to stimulate the prosecution of mining [is that the object for which they were chartered?] by all companies, making it for the interest of those colliers whose mines yield only a quality of coal containing a large portion of sulphur to mine at greater depths and bring up coal of better quality." Admire the respect evinced for the capacity of the judges in this logic! "They prefer" (a second admirable phrase),—"they prefer" to use bad coal in order to encourage the colliers to furnish them better! Or do they mean to burn up all the bad coal as fast as possible, that there may be only good left in the world? By the smell the last week we incline to the latter interpretation, and they must be making rapid progress. It is remarkable not to note any reference to the excellent health of the owners of gas stock in proof of the salubrious nature of the odor. But probably that argument was used up by the butchers.

Professor Torrey, though he does not aspire to the first part, is what the musicians would call a useful second. It is well put that "the use of cannel coal might modify, but could not entirely remedy, the evil;" the inference being that it is not worth while to try to "modify." Some allowance must be made for the gas companies in the fact that they seem honestly to have come to look upon the public as their natural enemies; at best a troublesome and most unreasonable public not to swallow its nice gas and be quiet. Mr. Torrey is a rash promiser, unless we take into account the enormous size of his "if." "If," he says, "within a week our experiments prove successful, every gas-house in the city can be made inoffensive before the first of June." There is not the slightest doubt that every gas-house in the city *can* be made inoffensive before the first of June, and a few more such "experiments" on the patience of the Board of Health will no doubt conduce materially to the result.

THE IMPORTANCE OF KNOWING ONE'S BUSINESS.

The military, naval, and civil services of every great power in Christendom with the exception of the United States have been in existence for generations; for generations, too, in which precedent was powerful; and now the public servants of foreign states have for their guidance in all possible conjunctures of circumstances an immense body of traditional usages and laws well-known to all. It is next to impossible, therefore, that an English admiral, a French general or minister, should not, upon all occasions, know the exact metes and bounds of his province of duty. Of course this has its inconveniences, and it is not hard to put them in a very ridiculous light. But "circumlocution office" and "red tape" are not phrases that can be accepted as giving an exhaustive description of that machinery, more or less complicated, but valuable, indeed absolutely necessary, which exactly divides and apportions to every official, high or low, his proper work.

Our public service in all its branches is a thing of yesterday. It is without traditions. We have some men who have grown gray in the various bureaus and departments, and we have a very few men whose fathers were in service before them; but as a general thing our officials are an exceedingly short-lived generation. Naval officers sometimes, and army officers very frequently, drop back into civil life; and as for the people who have places in other branches of the Government service, they hardly expect to keep them longer than eight years at the furthest. Public service is found to be no inheritance; and, indeed, it can hardly be called the business of anybody, though it furnishes employment now and again to great numbers of people. But it offers no man a career; it offers no man even the certainty of a livelihood. Its work, we may say, is done by a fluctuating crowd of individuals, while in European countries the various classes of officials form bodies that have almost the continuity and unity of corporations. Even if our public offices had well-settled laws and usages, they could hardly succeed in getting handed down so as to become traditional.

We have, therefore, no schools to teach thoroughly, and we have no class of men who are learning thoroughly, the difficult and most important business of managing the details of the Government. In diplomacy, in all our intercourse with foreign nations, we mainly depend on volunteers; in finance, in short, in everything but the officering of our army and navy, we get along as we can, and trust our honor and our interests to guardians and servants always untrained and often incapable in all respects.

It is no wonder, then, that every little while the country should be surprised at some new impropriety on the part of one of its public servants. The latest case is that of Commodore Rogers. He was sent into Chilian waters in command of our South American squadron, and his orders were to observe a strict neutrality in the war now going on between Spain and the South American republics. The Spanish admiral determined to bombard the city of Valparaiso. It was Commodore Rogers's duty to do one of two things—either to prevent the bombardment, or peaceably to afford such protection as he could to American citizens residing in the city. But he and the American minister, General Kilpatrick, take this very singular view of his duty in the premises, that although he alone would have no right to prevent the bombardment, yet if the English minister and the English admiral could be got to join with General Kilpatrick and himself, he would then be clearly right, or at any rate right enough, in forcibly resisting the Spaniard's demonstration. Up to this stage in the proceedings, neither our minister nor our fleet commander seems to have shed much honor on the United States public service. But the commodore goes a step further, and takes it upon himself to write a very singular despatch to the Secretary of the Navy. It deals with moral and international law, with the recent history of the South American republics, with the rights and duties of neutrals, with the commodore's opinion about the space of time in which the *Monadnock* could destroy the *Numancia*, and all with such a pleasing air of authority and such an unconsciousness that the writer is meddling with matters which are no concern of his and of which he is wholly unqualified to treat, and finally, the last paragraph suggests so amusing a picture of the learned commodore and the gallant minister bringing their minds to bear upon

Wheaton and the other authorities, searching out instances and the same, when found, making a note of, that we are almost inclined to forgive the writer for sending the despatch and the secretary for letting it get into print.

Commodore Rogers is as brave and able an officer as there is in the world, but this very fact may have much to do with making him a very poor publicist, and such he evidently is. The qualities which make a man a good admiral are rarely those which make a man a good secretary of state. It is time, however, for officers, both naval and military, to learn that they were made officers for certain definite purposes, among which purposes the arguing of political questions and nice points of constitutional and international law has no place whatever. It is easy to recollect other glaring instances of the same fault. General McClellan at Harrison's Landing, of all places in the world, saw fit to write President Lincoln a letter of advice as to the best manner of carrying on the war, the proper course to be pursued in regard to emancipation, the composition of the army, and other matters of public concern. In 1862 all this was hardly laughable, but the absurdity of it was very apparent. Then, afterwards, there was Sherman's truce with the rebel army, in which that commander seemed to think that he combined the powers of a victorious general and of the United States Congress. Before that we had the *Trent* affair, in which Commodore Wilkes ventured to expound the rights of neutrals and belligerents, and, as payment for his pains, lost both the vessel which he might have taken and the prisoners which he took.

But the list of cases that are well known would not be a short one. It is very evident that in the management of public business upon the present system there is a lack of thoroughness, a lack of dignity, and, more than that, a continual danger that some ill-instructed, incapable representative of the Government, by meddling injudiciousness or ignorance, will involve us in quarrels that can neither be prosecuted nor abandoned with credit.

Correspondence.

PISCICULTURE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

The article upon pisciculture which appeared among the scientific notes of your issue of the 26th ultimo suggests the query, whether in seeking to re-stock our rivers with the salmon, shad, and alewives with which they were originally filled, legislators and commissioners are not paying undue attention to a specious argument; whether, in short, they are not following a sub-aquatic will-o'-the-wisp, and so taking no head of real lights.

In consequence of the establishment of human societies upon their banks, the rivers of to-day are no longer the salmon-haunted streams of the Pilgrim fathers; they are now no longer capable of supporting precisely the same forms of animal life as then. Clearly, therefore, in seeking to stock these altered rivers in a permanent and natural way (and it may safely be taken for granted that no system can be permanent if it be not in harmony with the actual surroundings), we must look for fishes differing from the old salmon and shad as much as the rivers of to-day differ from those of the last century.

The only pertinent argument for re-stocking our rivers with fish is, of course, based upon the fact that these would furnish a certain amount of food to the community. Now, any given river is capable, by virtue of the shell-fish, worms, insects, and vegetable growths which are to be found in it, of producing annually a certain number of tons of fish fit for the use of man. In the old time, when the salmon had the right of way, there may have been comparatively small chance for the growth, or even for the appearance of many other of the less rapacious species of fish; but now that the course is well-nigh clear, there would appear to be a wide field for the introduction by man of, so to say, domesticated fishes of such kinds as have no need to pass over dams, and are in other respects adapted to the requirements of the case. There are certainly such fishes to be found by searching. The Chinese, in particular, who have long since carried the art of pisciculture to a high degree of perfection in a climate similar to our own, could doubtless furnish us with a number of available species.

It might be necessary to feed some of these artificially-introduced species during the winter months, but the process of feeding would probably be far less costly and less detrimental to the community than the interferences with manufacturing establishments which are now recommended by some persons for the sake of a few salmon. Moreover, there are some species of fish which hibernate during the months when food is scarce, and several of these would probably be found well suited to portions of our rivers.

Pimelodus.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Monday Evening,
May 7, 1866.

The week opens on an easy money market, call loans being 4 to 5 per cent., and first-class short date paper passing at 6 to 7 per cent. Money which ten days ago would have gone into the Sub-Treasury on deposit is now flowing into the brokers' offices.

Gold sold as high as 128⅛ on Friday. To-day it has touched 128¼, closing at 128⅜. Exchange sold up to 109⅝ for Saturday's steamers. It opens to-day at 109¼. In consequence of the advance in bills about $1,200,000 in specie was shipped on Saturday, a large portion of which was silver coin and gold bars. It is still cheaper to buy bills as a remittance than to ship gold, but unless the cotton and produce markets advance abroad, exchange can hardly fail to advance to the specie-shipping point early in June.

Stocks have been dull since we last wrote. The clique movements in Fort Wayne and Pittsburgh continue, and the price of both stocks is higher without any obvious cause. Governments are steady, and some of the sellers on options are covering their sales by purchases on this side. Western Union Telegraph has advanced from 58 to 64, on purchases for Western account. Canton and Northwestern preferred are both higher, on purchases by Wall Street cliques. Erie and Central dull.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	April 30.	May 3.	May 7.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	108	108¼	109	¾	....
5-20 Bonds, old	105⅞	101⅞ ex.c	102	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	105⅞	101⅞ ex.c	102	⅛	....
10-40 Bonds	95	95⅜	95⅞	⅝	....
7.30 Notes, second series	101⅞	101⅞	102⅛	¼	....
New York Central	92⅝	92¼	92½	....	....
Erie Railway	73¼	73½	73⅝	⅛	....
Hudson River	110¼	110½	110¼	....	....
Reading Railroad	105¾	106¾	107⅛	¾	....
Michigan Southern	78¾	78	78	....	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	81	81¼	82	¾	....
Chicago and North-western	28⅝	28¼	29½	1¼	....
" " " Preferred	58¾	58½	61	2½	....
Chicago and Rock Island	122¾	123¾	125	1¼	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	98⅝	98⅞	100	1⅛	....
Canton	56	59½	58½	....	1
Cumberland	45	44¾	44¾	....	....
Mariposa	12½	12¾	13	¼	....
American Gold	126⅛	127⅛	128⅜	⅞	....
Bankers' Bills on London	108¾	109¼	109¼	....	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

Considerable excitement has been created by the failure of the Merchants' National Bank at Washington, which has collapsed, owing the Government some $600,000. The removal of Government deposits from national banks is seriously mooted.

The topic of the day is Senator Sherman's bill for consolidating the debt of the United States into a uniform five per cent. thirty-year bond, free from income tax. In financial circles, opinions are divided upon the subject. Few careful observers share the sanguine expectations of the senator that, under this measure, all the obligations of Government will shortly be gathered under one bond and funded at one rate of interest; but it is quite possible that, with judicious management, a commencement of consolidation may by this bill be inaugurated. The measure takes for granted, in the first place, that a 5 per cent. loan can be negotiated at par. If it cannot, there is an end of the whole scheme. There is something to be said on both sides of the question. On the one hand, the only 5 per cent. U. S. bonds afloat, the 10-40s, have never been at par since they were first negotiated, have been as low as 90, and are now, in a 4 to 5 per cent. money market, selling at 95½ to 96. Furthermore, the average rate of interest throughout this country during a series of years is much nearer 7 than 5, and it is questioned by many whether we have in the country enough accumulated capital to justify an average rate of interest even at the financial centres of 5 per cent. On the other hand, it is argued that the credit of this country, with its large income and increasing prosperity, should not rank below that of Great Britain, France, or Massachusetts; that the short 5-20 bonds are at a premium here, and are steadily advancing under a foreign as well as a home demand, and that hereafter, as the effect of the war passes away, and the resources of the South are developed under a system of free labor, capital from all parts of the world will flow hither for employment, and money will be as cheap here as in England. Let us assume—for the purpose of looking further into Senator Sherman's bill—that the latter view is the correct one, and that, at the right time this summer or next fall, a 5 per cent. thirty year loan can be floated at par.

The securities which it is proposed to absorb into this new loan may be classed under three heads:

1. Temporary obligations, consisting of deposits on call, say $131,000,000 debt certificates, say $62,620,000; compound-interest notes, say $167,012,000; in all, $359,632,000. If a 5 per cent. loan can be floated at par, these obligations can all be converted within a brief period, the deposits and debt certificates at once, and the compound interest notes before their maturity, by receiving them at their face value, with interest. Here the Government is master of the situation.

2. Seven-thirty notes, say $814,000,000. The case of these securities is very different. They are either payable in lawful money at maturity or convertible into 5 20 6 per cent. bonds, *at the option of the holder.* This option is fatal to Sherman's funding scheme, so far as these notes are concerned. For if 5-20s are not worth par when the 7.30s mature, holders will demand their money, and 5 per cent. bonds will not be salable at 95. And if 5-20s are worth par or a premium, holders of 7.30s will convert, and will laugh at an offer of a 5 per cent. when they are entitled to a 6 per cent. bond. Exemption from income tax (which tax, by the way, is said to be terminable in 1870) is worth about 30-100, or less than ⅓ of 1 per cent.; or, in other words, a 6 per cent. bond, subject to income-tax, yields more than ⅔ of 1 per cent. more revenue than a 5 per cent. bond free from income tax. There is, therefore, very little chance that the exemption will tempt any of the holders of 7.30 notes to forego their privilege to convert into 5-20s for the purpose of accepting new 5 per cent. thirty-year bonds. It is clear that the 7.30 notes will, as a rule, be converted on maturity, and that this portion of the debt will not fall within the control of the Secretary until the 5-20s created by the conversion are themselves redeemable, which will be on May 1, 1872, for the first series, and at various days in 1873 for the second and third. At those periods, if a 5 per cent. thirty-year bond can be sold at par, that portion of the public debt now represented by 7.30 notes can be converted into 5 per cents. We do not see how it can be done before.

3. Five-twenty bonds, amounting altogether to $745,780,000. Of these the old issue, amounting to $514,730,000, is redeemable next May; the second series, $100,000,000, in 1869; and the new bonds in 1870. It is clear that if, between this and May next, a 5 per cent. thirty-year loan can be floated at par, the Government will avail itself of its reserved right to redeem the old issue of 5-20s, and will do the same in 1869 and 1870 with the two later issues. But there is very little prospect of this becoming feasible until the bonds are redeemable.

To those ardent minds which are bent on seeing our heterogeneous debt neatly condensed this year or next into a United States consol, bearing 5 per cent. interest, this will seem very slow work. But it is hard to discover how it could be managed more quickly. History is full of instances of national debts being consolidated and the interest reduced. But these operations have generally been accomplished at the sacrifice of the creditor. Bondholders, failing to receive interest on their bonds, have compromised

with their delinquent debtor, and accepted 4 per cent. where they had been promised six, and had been actually paid nothing. England gave perpetual bonds in exchange for terminable annuities, and so secured a reduction of the interest charge. This country does not propose either to ask a compromise with its creditors, or to perpetuate its debt for all time. We cannot reduce the interest on our debt until it is within our control. We cannot ask any creditor of the nation to forgive us one cent or one week. And so we must wait patiently, and diminish our interest charge when we can.

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TOTAL ASSETS	$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00
Temporary Loans	92,630 00
Real Estate	10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00
Government Sec., value	144,514 00
Cash on hand	18,042 34
Interest due	3,085 58
Premiums due	6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26

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Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,240

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The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following

Statement of its Affairs on the 31st December, 1865:

Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865	$6,933,146 80
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1865	2,019,324 73
Total amount of Marine Premiums	$8,952,471 53
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.	
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865	$6,764,146 38
Losses paid during the same period $3,659,178 45	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses $992,341 44	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:	
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks	$4,828,585 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise	3,330,350 00
Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages	221,260 00
Dividends on Stocks, Interest on Bonds and Mortgages and other Loans, sundry notes, re-insurance, and other claims due the Company, estimated at	144,964 43
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable	3,283,801 96
Cash in Bank, Coin	80,462 00
" " U. S. Treasury Note Currency	310,551 78
Total Amount of Assets	$12,199,975 17

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next.

Fifty per cent. of the outstanding certificates of the issue of 1864 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next, from which date interest on the amount so redeemable will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled to the extent paid.

A dividend of Thirty-Five per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending the 31st December, 1865, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the Third of April next.

By order of the Board, J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

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For the guidance of those who may feel disposed to assist us with their contributions, we may mention that the contents of THE NATION will fall nearly under four divisions—or that, at all events, these divisions would have to be kept in mind by anybody writing for it as a volunteer.

1. References to, and concise comments on, the news of the day, with the view of fixing the degree of its importance, and suggesting its bearings upon and relation to the main current of contemporary history.

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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, THURSDAY EVENING, MAY 10, 1866. NO. 47

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Topics of the Day.

Mr. Stevens admitted in the House, on Tuesday, that the plan of the Committee of Fifteen was not what he would have liked, but that he had accepted it as the best thing that nineteen States could be got to adopt—a rather remarkable concession to expediency to emanate from one of the most uncompromising worshippers of abstract right we have amongst us. Mr. Blaine, in a conversation which followed, knocked the bottom out (to use a homely phrase) of the third section of the constitutional amendment, by calling attention to the fact that the people whom it proposed to disfranchise had nearly all had their political rights restored to them by the amnesty proclamation, or had been pardoned by the President. This view Mr. Stevens concurred in, so that the amendment will probably now come before the country in a practical shape, and admit of serious discussion.

The Senate has passed the joint resolution congratulating the Emperor of Russia on his escape from assassination. Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, made a desperate effort to have the words ascribing the crime to "an enemy of emancipation" struck out, but was unsuccessful. There is, at this moment, perhaps, no more valuable life in the world than the Czar's, and we trust he will live to see the distinctions which he has effaced from the laws disappear also from the manners of his people. Freedom will speedily bring this latter result about; but even now the addition of sixty millions of freedmen to the working population of Europe is one of the most momentous economical, as well as social and political, facts of our time. If the empire was in a sufficiently advanced stage of culture to make it possible to offer settlers in it the same freedom that is enjoyed here, its immense tracts of unoccupied land would make it a serious competitor with us amongst the would-be emigrants of more powerful countries.

The Anti-Slavery Society has made its yearly announcement of principles and opinions. The resolutions declare that every political right of a citizen should be guaranteed to the negro; this we owe to him and to ourselves; now, with these rights denied, the negro is but nominally free; the Southern policy in regard to the negro is to be seen in the glass of Jamaica; as for the rebellion, it has not ceased; "once it fought, now it intrigues; once it followed Lee in arms, now it follows Johnson in guile and chicanery; once it had its headquarters in Richmond, now it encamps in the White House;" the President should long ago have been impeached; he has been guilty of gross usurpation in his manifest use of his high powers to aid rebellion; reconstruction should be based upon universal suffrage and universal amnesty; let the loyal people in each Southern State meet first, however, and prepare a State constitution that shall be republican; Congress deserves praise for passing the civil rights bill, but it stultified itself when Colorado was admitted with the word "white" in its aristocratic constitution; the defeat of the Union party in 1868 is better than compromises which sacrifice justice and fling the gains of the war away. The speaking at this year's meeting seems to have been hardly so good as usual, but of course Mr. Phillips made some effective speeches. He charged Mr. Seward and the President with planning to split the Union party because they saw that if it remained a unit the next President must be Grant.

The Legislature of Tennessee has just passed a bill which disfranchises every citizen who took any part in the rebellion or gave it any indirect support. It is provided that in every county of the State a commissioner shall be appointed who may hear evidence and who shall see that the law is executed. No suspected man may vote until he proves by two qualified voters that he has never committed any disqualifying act, and then he must take an oath affirming his loyalty and binding himself to conform to all the requirements of the amended State constitution. Of course such a law provokes the bitterest hatred of a large majority of the population, and is pronounced infamous, tyrannical, and unconstitutional. Thus a thing which, as a matter of policy, Congress hesitates to do, which it does not attempt to do without a preparatory amendment to the Constitution, the Tennessee Legislature has done without scruple.

The bill to encourage telegraphic communication between the United States and the Bahamas, Cuba, and other West India Islands, has received the signature of the President. Although it sanctions a monoply, the rights of Congress and the public have been carefully guarded, and the company may proceed without jealousy to lay their lines and reap their dividends. The fair prospect of the new Atlantic cable ought to stimulate their exertions. Both England and Spain will thank them for anchoring their colonies at their own door, as it were.

The Republicans of Connecticut, after much animated discussion, have nominated General O. S. Ferry as their candidate for Mr. Foster's seat in the Senate. Mr. Foster's long services and very respectable character pleaded for him as well as the fact that since the assassination he has been the acting Vice-President. He also had the endorsement of General Terry, whose own name had been mentioned as a candidate. But the left wing of the party were dissatisfied with him, and this nomination of General Ferry may be regarded as their triumph, and it seems not wholly without meaning as showing the ground occupied by the Connecticut Republicans. It will be remembered that even since the Hawley election and narrow escape from defeat, the Secretary of State and Lieutenant-Governor Winchester have declared that the course of President Johnson has been wholly satisfactory to them and the party.

Three or four days since, Secretary McCulloch, with a party of ladies, took a trip down the Chesapeake. He had not intended to go so far, we are told, but the weather was so fine that he got down to Fortress Monroe. Then, for what reason nobody knows, he paid a long visit to Jefferson Davis. The *Herald* correspondent, to whom we are indebted for these facts, suggests that the secretary merely wished to gratify his curiosity with a sight of the prisoner and "have a social chat with him as man to man." Nothing is known of what took place at the interview, but "it is to be presumed," the correspondent says, 'that many topics were discussed in which the shrewd, cultivated, and incisive vigor of their diverse minds and views shone out with brilliant effect." Very likely, too, Mr. Davis would betray a palpable eagerness to speak of his long imprisonment, his impaired health, and his eager-

ness to be tried, and no doubt Mr. McCulloch "would listen with mingled politeness and patience" to these diversions. As a bit of pure speculation, the above is interesting.

THE ship-builders' strike in this city, by which some 1,000 men of various trades are said to be thrown out of employment, still rages. Its object is the substitution of eight hours for about nine as a day's labor, but, as usual, the last thing the strikers seem disposed to concede in the matter is liberty to their fellows. Those who would rather work nine hours than eight are not allowed to do so, some thirty of them having been set upon by a mob of three hundred, and several severely beaten while at work. There is a touch of the comic given to these proceedings by the fact that we are asked to believe that the men who display this brutal disregard of their neighbors' rights seek more leisure in order to devote it to the cultivation of their minds.

PROBST, who murdered the Deering family, has told the story of his butchery with the same nonchalance with which the horrible deed was committed. The matter was a very simple one: he was in want of money, and he thought he could get what he wanted by murdering a former employer. When he found or believed it necessary to despatch also the entire family, he enlarged his determination without flinching, and would have killed them on their way down to breakfast if he had felt sure of succeeding. There is absolutely no trace of mercy or pity in the whole proceeding—hardly any of remorse, if that can be called remorse to which he alluded in saying "Yes" to the question whether he "felt bad" after the murder. One can scarcely imagine more inhuman apathy than was displayed by him in shaving himself with the razor of his chief victim, and then making a meal in the house. Yet, with an inconsistency which is remarkable, he supplied the horses in the stable with as much hay as he could before leaving the premises. The cunning of the man was as brutal as his action.

THE cholera makes no progress here, apparently, but the cold weather is now fairly over, and, if the pestilence is coming, we may now look for it very shortly. In England, the second outbreak is daily expected. The disease having already reached Rotterdam in its westward progress, the Privy Council has issued an order proclaiming its approach. In New York, despite some false alarms, there have been no well-ascertained cases as yet on shore, and the Board of Health is assailing the nuisances with imperial power and more than imperial vigor. Judge Barnard has "enjoined" it against removing some stalls on the sidewalk, but the injunction will probably fail very much like the fly on the cart-wheel. There is hardly anything the New York courts have not now issued injunctions against. Why not try the effect of one on the cholera? The most important part of the work the Board is now doing is the organization of a system of preliminary relief for the visitation of the poor and the discovery and treatment of cases in which only the premonitory symptoms have occurred. This is something which can only be thoroughly done by volunteers.

WE have received expostulations from some friends who misunderstood the duty undertaken by THE NATION on our presenting public criticism of the public acts of Mr. Stevens and Mr. Sumner, upon the ground that at this time it was better to overlook minor differences about means among those who have the same general purpose in view, rather than at anything which might lower the public confidence in their clear-sightedness and ability as leaders. That neither of these gentlemen takes this view of the matter is shown by some recent remarks of Mr. Stevens, in which he quotes Mr. Sumner as characterizing the course which he has himself felt it right to pursue, as "gross, foul, outrageous, with every other vulgar epithet which polished cultivation could command," and in which he accuses Mr. Sumner of "a perversion of philological criticism which if, when I taught school, a lad who had studied Lindley Murray had assumed, I would have expelled him from the institution as unfit to waste education upon."

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 9, 1866.

THE opening, in the House, of the discussion upon the Reconstruction Committee's constitutional amendment shows a greater degree of adhesion to the measure than was anticipated. The chief objections brought forward by Republicans were to the third section, which denies suffrage for representatives in Congress and for President to all lately engaged in rebellion, until the year 1870. This may yet be stricken out, and, if so, there is little room to doubt the passage of the remainder by the requisite two-thirds majority. Representatives have heard widely from the people as well as from the press, and assert a unanimity among the former which is not at all reflected in the voice of the latter. Outside the chief cities, it is alleged, the whole North will sustain the exaction of these guarantees.

The House has gone vigorously to work upon the tax bill, and is sitting to a late hour each evening to perfect its many details.

The Senate has fallen into the besetting sin of confounding the public business with electioneering speeches. The vexed question of the Federal patronage, as dispensed by the President, led to this, and a general political melée has followed, very amusing, but in the highest degree profitless.

DIARY.

Monday, May 7.—In the Senate, the reconsideration of the amendment to the Post-office bill, withholding payment from appointees of the President made to fill vacancies without consent of the Senate, was discussed by Messrs. Poland, Sherman, Stewart, Saulsbury, and McDougall against the amendment, and by Messrs. Howe and Trumbull in its favor. The amendment was reconsidered—yeas, 21; nays, 18.

In the House, Mr. Julian offered a resolution looking towards prohibiting any denial of the elective franchise in the territories on the ground of color; also, declaring that no State shall be hereafter admitted to the Union with a constitution making such denial. The House refused to table the resolution—yeas, 29; nays, 76—and it was referred. Mr. Boyer offered a resolution that the Committee on Reconstruction be discharged. Laid on the table—yeas, 100; nays, 24. A joint resolution to exempt crude petroleum from duty was passed. The internal tax bill was discussed by Messrs. Morrill and Raymond.

May 8.—In the Senate, Mr. Fessenden reported the legislative, executive, and judicial appropriation bill. The House resolution congratulating the Emperor of Russia and the twenty million serfs on his escape from assassination was passed. Also, the House resolution exempting petroleum from tax. The President's power of removal was again discussed at great length, on the amendment to the post-office appropriation.

In the House, the constitutional amendment reported by the Reconstruction Committee was discussed by Messrs. Stevens, Finck, Kelley, Schenck, Thayer, and Garfield. The two latter opposed the third section, which disfranchises until 1870 the participants in the rebellion. The tax bill was discussed at length, and amended.

THE FREEDMEN.

AMONG the recent cases of outrage reported to the Bureau are the following: In Lexington District, S. C., a negro was taken from his house, severely paddled, and shot in his left cheek and hand. All his furniture was burned. In Mecklenburg County, Va., an old colored woman, seeking to recover her grandchild from a planter, was obliged to procure the assistance of the agent of the Bureau, when the child was promised on her calling again. She went accordingly, and experienced the most brutal treatment, being knocked down repeatedly, dragged by a rope for some distance, and finally flogged on her bare back. At or near Louisa Court House, Va., a white man killed a negro who had done some work for him, and who was importuning him for his pay. The murderer was tried by a civil court, and the jury speedily found him "not guilty."

—We are without other particulars than those contained in a telegraphic despatch, of the doings of a mob at Meridian, Mississippi, which on the 4th broke into and sacked a building occupied by the Freedmen's Bureau, and then burnt it. It is also reported that at Grenada, in the same State, on the 30th of April, the general agent of the Bureau was foully murdered.

—The inspector-general of the Bureau, having thoroughly investigated the affairs of the freedmen in Virginia, makes on the whole a very satisfactory report of them. The various colored schools are well attended, and prejudice is slowly fading out. The sanitary condition of the freed people has so far improved as that all Bureau hospitals have been abolished, medical attendance being part of the labor contracts of the employers. Although the State had at one time a superabundance of laborers, the demand now greatly exceeds the supply. Males average $12 a month, including food, quarters, and medical attendance.

Notes.

LITERARY.

EXCEPT by those who have made the subject a special study, little is known of the collection of Jewish writings which goes by the name of "The Kabbalah," and which claims for itself the greatest antiquity and authority, as having been "first taught by God himself to a select company of angels," by whom it was communicated to Adam "to furnish the protoplasts with the means of returning to their pristine nobility and felicity." It is said to be the "Secret Wisdom," or "Doctrine received by oral tradition," and to have been transmitted by Adam, through the Patriarch, to Rabbi Simon Ben Jochai, which last personage, being condemned to death by Titus, escaped to a cavern, where he remained twelve years, occupying himself, with the assistance of the prophet Elias, in perfecting "The Kabbalah," the secrets of which were hidden till then in the first four books of the Pentateuch. The early Kabbalists reject this account as fabulous, and ascribe "The Kabbalah" to Rabbi Isaac the Blind, of Posquiers, who lived towards the end of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth centuries, and who was called "The Father of the Kabbalah." The work itself, as we now have it, consists of three separate works: the "Jetzira," or "The Book of Creation;" the "Zohar," *i. e., light, splendor*, which was originally called the "Midrash," and the "Commentary of the Ten Sephiroth." The earliest of these, the "Jetzira," which pretends to be a monologue of the Patriarch Abraham, and to contain the reasons which led him to forsake the worship of the stars for the faith of the true God, is believed to have been a fabrication of the ninth century, or thereabouts, to supply a lost book of the same name mentioned in the Talmud, as the Book of Jasher is mentioned in the Hebrew Scriptures. The "Zohar," which professes to be a revelation of God to Rabbi Simon Ben Jochai, already mentioned, who lived about a century after Christ, and who, on his death-bed, communicated it to his disciples, is now considered by Steinschneider, Jellinek, and others, to be a fabrication of the thirteenth century. Its authorship, indeed, is pretty clearly proved against Moses de Leon, by whom the "Zohar" was first given to the world, and who died at Arevalo, in Spain, in 1305. Joseph de Avila endeavored to obtain the original manuscript after Moses de Leon's death from his widow, who declared that no such manuscript had existed, but that her husband, as he had admitted to her and her daughter, composed it out of his own head and wrote it with his own hand. She further confessed that she had often asked him why he had published his work under the name of another, and he told her that if he had published it as his own nobody would have bought it, while published as the production of Rabbi Simon Ben Jochai, it had paid him handsomely. The truth of this statement of Moses de Leon's widow is said to be confirmed by the fact of the "Zohar" containing passages from other works of de Leon's written in Spanish and extant still. The "Zohar" itself, which was written in Aramaic, and which circulated for a time in manuscript, was first published at Mantua, between 1538 and 1560. It may be described as being in the main a commentary on the Five Books of Moses. It is interspersed with dissertations which dilate upon the diverse doctrines of the Kabbalah in the oddest and most fantastic manner, affecting to find marvels of wisdom and mystery in the forms and ornaments of the Hebrew alphabet, in the divine names and the letters which compose them, and in the narratives and traditions of the Bible. The "Commentary of the Ten Sephiroth" was written by the Rabbi Azariel Ben Menachem, who was born at Valladolid about the commencement of the twelfth century, and who was a pupil of Isaac the Blind, "The Father of the Kabbalah." In the form of question and answer it explains the Kabbalistic doctrine of En Soph, which stands for the Deity, and of the Sephiroth, who are his emanations, begotten, not made, and both infinite and finite. From these Sephiroth, which are the archetypal man, were evolved the worlds which are their brightness and express image; and, later, all human souls, which are pre-existent, occupying a separate hall in the upper world of spirits, where they determine whether they will be good or bad while in their temporary abode in the flesh. The Kabbalistic doctrine concerning the soul is that, after developing itself on earth, it returns to the infinite source whence it emanated; and that when all souls shall have passed the period of their probation here, Satan will be changed to an angel of light, hell will be no more, and God will be all in all, the creator and the created one. The study of the Kabbalah produced several schools in Spain, the earliest of which, the school of Gerona, was followed by the school of Segovia, so called after its founder, Joseph of Segovia, who lived in the thirteenth century. Next came the quasi-philosophic school of Isaac Ben Abraham Ibn Latif, and the school of Abulafia, founded by Abraham Ben Samuel Abulafia. The cardinal doctrines of the Kabbalah were derived from the Neo-Platonic philosophy, a fact which accounts in some degree for the hold it obtained over the minds of Christians in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. Mirandola found in its cloudy utterance the chief doctrines of his church, and, at the request of Pope Sixtus IV., translated three commentaries upon it into Latin for the use of divinity students. He also brought it to the notice of Reuchlin, who wrote wo treatises in explanation of its mysteries and their interpretation—"De Verbo Mirifico" and "De Arte Cabalistica." A century later the study of the Kabbalah spread into Palestine and Poland, two schools arising in the former country, that of Cordovero, which occupied itself with the speculative Kabbalah, as it was called; and that of Loria, which dealt with the wonder-working Kabbalah. The last attracted the attention of the Jesuit Kircher, who published an elaborate work thereon for the use of Christians. About his time the Kabbalah achieved its greatest success and received its greatest defeat, both in the person of Sabbatai Levi, whose head was so turned by its mysteries that he proclaimed himself the Messiah, the Son of David, the Redeemer of Israel, and, being excommunicated for it at his birth-place, Smyrna, traveled to Salonica, Athens, Morea, and Jerusalem, teaching the Kabbalah, anointing prophets, and converting thousands. Arrested at last by the Sultan Mohammed IV., he was brought before him at Adrianople. "I am going to test thy messiahship," said the Sultan. "Three poisoned arrows shall be shot into thee; if they do not kill thee, I too will believe that thou art the Messiah." Rather than stand this test Levi recanted and embraced Islamism on the spot, to the ruin of his thousands of dupes. The influence of the Kabbalah declined among the Jews, and no wonder, since it now had the effect of converting many of their number to Christianity, chiefly men of the highest position in the synagogue, among others Paul Ricci, physician to Maximilian I., and Jacob Frank, a great Kabbalist, whose example was followed by thousands of his disciples. Such, in brief, is the history of this singular collection of pseudo-sacred writings which has lately been made the subject of an interesting volume published by the Longmans, "The Kabbalah: its Doctrines, Developments, and Literature, by Christian D. Ginsburg, LL.D."

—A number of Byron's letters, formerly in the possession of his friend Hodgson, to whom they were addressed, was lately sold in London. The first, which was dated Newstead Abbey, Nov. 3, 1808, brought twelve guineas. A second, dated some six years later, and interesting from its reference to Miss Milbanke, then about to become Lady Byron, realized £6 10s.; a third, £3 12s. In the last Byron desires Hodgson to inform Drury that he has a treasure for him—a whole set of original Burns's letters, never published or to be published, since they were full of fearful oaths and the most nauseous songs. "However," Byron adds, "they are curiosities, and show him quite in a new light. The mixture, or rather contrast, of tenderness, delicacy, obscurity, and coarseness in the same mind is wonderful." A volume of autograph letters of Mrs. Siddons brought at the same sale £31 10s.

—It is almost to be regretted that Shakespeare ever wrote the sonnets which have come down to us bearing his name, since they have occasioned such contradictory writing and profitless reading in the shape of comment and interpretation. The key of the mystery, if there be one, lies in the enigmatical initials W. H., which mean one person with one critic, and another person with another. The latest reading we have seen is that of a writer in "The Examiner," who contends that they stand for *William Himself!* His theory, for of course he has one, is, that the sonnets are an entire poem in two parts, the boy, or fair youth, of the first being a personification of poetry, or poetic genius, the woman of the last a personification of the drama, or dramatic genius. The first part of the poem expresses Shakespeare's religious love of poetry, the second his more familiar love of the woman, the whole being a psychological hymn, dedicated to the genius which inspired it. "The inconceivable skill," says this idealistic gentleman, "with which he has depicted his genius poetic, and contrasted it with his genius dramatic, holding himself between the two, bending in love which is almost idolatry before the one, and utterly against his conviction yielding in love to the other, is food for long astonishment." That Shakespeare is more of a poet than a dramatist—in other words, that the sonnets are superior to "Lear," say, or "Hamlet"—is astonishing, so astonishing, indeed, that no genuine Shakespearian will for a moment believe it. As regards the theory of the sonnets, that they are not autobiographic, it was first broached in Germany by Bernstorff.

—An instalment towards a complete ecclesiastical history is Prof. Döllinger's "First Age of Christianity and the Church," of which an English translation has just been published by Mr. H. N. Oxenham. It consists of two volumes, written in the soundest and most liberal spirit of German

Catholicism, the first treating of the ministry of Christ and his Apostles, and of the doctrine of the latter, while the second discusses the constitution of the Apostolic Church. It is a sequel to Prof. Döllinger's work on "The Gentile and the Jew," already translated by Mr. Oxenham, who dedicates his present translation to Dr. Newman.

—The latest issue of the "Golden Treasury" series is the world-famous "Robinson Crusoe," which has been so mutilated and modified since its first publication that its author would scarcely recognize it were he to revisit "this dim spot which men call earth." The "Golden Treasury" reprint, which includes the two parts, changes all this, the text being carefully printed from the original editions, even in the matter of spelling, which, however, is not archaic enough to be troublesome to the most modern of readers.

SCIENTIFIC.

Near and Far Sightedness.—Until recently "near-sightedness" and "long-sightedness" have been explained by assuming in the first case that, in consequence of the too great convexity of the cornea and crystalline lens, one or both, the focus is formed in front of the retina, while in the second the rays of light are concentrated behind the retina, because the convexity of the parts just mentioned is too small. The correction of these imperfections by the use of concave glasses in the first instance, and of convex ones in the second, seemed to be all that was needed to show that the explanation was true. It certainly had the merit of meeting the facts, and so has been almost universally accepted by physiologists, and has found its way into every text-book touching upon the optical structure of the eye. That these conditions, if they existed, would produce the effects indicated, no one will doubt; but it should not be lost sight of that the alleged conditions of the cornea and lens were never satisfactorily shown to be attendants of the two abnormal states of the eye of which we are speaking. Recent investigations have proved that both near and long sightedness may be, and in most cases are, the result of wholly other causes. A moment's reflection will make it apparent to any one that, the refracting media being quite normal, if, in consequence of the axis of the eye being too long, the retina is too far behind the lens, the rays will meet in front of this, and thus short-sightedness will of necessity follow. The average length of the axis of the eye is a little less than an inch, viz.: 24·25 millimetres, or about 0·95 inch. Donders has shown that in near-sighted persons it exceeds an inch, and may amount to 1·20 inch and even more, the other diameters being unchanged. In this case the ball of the eye becomes more or less oval or egg-shaped, and when turned strongly towards the nose will fill the orbit more than usual at the outer angle. Concave glasses will, of course, be required to disperse the light sufficiently to bring the rays to a focus on the retina. In proof that too great convexity of the cornea does not produce near-sightedness, may be urged the fact that this convexity is greatest in childhood, but, as Volkman observed, children are rarely near-sighted.

In regard to long-sightedness, if the alleged cause of it, viz., the flattening of the cornea and crystalline lens, existed, this would of necessity form the focus, other things being the same, behind the retina; but no proof was ever brought forward that this flattening actually did exist in the majority of cases. In adopting this explanation, its inconsistency with the fact that elderly persons still see far objects distinctly, seems to have been overlooked by physiologists. The persistence of this faculty was of itself sufficient evidence to make it probable that no *permanent* change took place in the form of the lens, since this would impair the eye for seeing objects at a distance, as well as those near at hand. Kramer and Helmholtz have shown that the accommodation of the eye to seeing near objects depends upon a *temporary* change in the form of the lens, this becoming more and more convex as the object approaches the nearest point of distinct vision. This is proved by watching the relative position of the three images of a candle as seen reflected, 1st, from the front of the cornea; 2d, from the foremost or convex surface of the capsule of the lens; and 3d, from the hindmost or concave surface of this capsule. The image from this last is inverted, and that from the front of the capsule is in the middle of the three. The attention of the person whose eye is observed being directed to a distant point, if it be suddenly changed to a near one, in the same straight line with the first, so that no motion of the globe of the eye will be necessary, the central image will change its size, becoming smaller, showing that the reflecting surface has become more convex, and at the same time will change its place to one side, showing that the front of the lens has moved forward. The first and third images undergo little or no change. It is the loss of this power of changing the form of the lens, a power necessary to the distinct vision of near objects, that chiefly gives rise to long-sightedness in persons growing old. The inability to accommodate, according to Donders, depends upon the lens becoming harder, and therefore less compressive, and so offering greater resistance to the ciliary muscle, the chief agent in producing the compression required.

When directed to distant objects the accommodating power is at rest, so that the sense of effort is wholly absent. Most persons are, however, conscious of a distinct effort, and those who are becoming long-sighted, painfully so, when the eye is directed to a near object. It is commonly believed that near-sighted persons as they grow old acquire the power of seeing objects at ordinary distances, because their too convex refracting media become flattened with advancing age. This may and does happen to a slight degree in a few, but not in the majority of cases. For the most part, near-sighted persons as they grow old find that the near point of distinct vision recedes, while the far point undergoes but little change. This is an important fact in opposition to the theory of flattening heretofore so generally accepted, and is fully explained by the loss of the power of accommodation.

EDUCATIONAL.

The Sheffield scientific school at New Haven is one of the institutions, like the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Cornell University, etc., which receive their endowment in part from the national grant of public lands, bestowed for the promotion of instruction in agriculture and the mechanic arts. This school, however, is not a new affair, but has been in operation for nearly twenty years. The gentleman whose name it bears, Mr. Joseph E. Sheffield, of New Haven, has, within a short time past, added to his previous donations by enlarging, at his own expense, the building which he provided, re-arranging the interior and adding two towers, to be used for astronomical observations. The whole cost of these improvements is over $40,000. His earlier gifts amounted to over $100,000. In one of the towers a good telescope is to be placed, which is now making for the school by Clark & Son, of Cambridge. This instrument will be used to facilitate the study of astronomy, theoretical and practical, among the scholars, rather than in those constant and accurate observations of the heavens which special and well-endowed observatories maintain.

—Massachusetts still maintains the foremost rank in popular education. Abundant confirmation of this statement may be found in the official reports for 1865, recently presented to the Legislature of that State, and made public in an octavo volume of nearly five hundred pages. On the title-page of the volume there is a sort of aristocratic self-consciousness of "position" which is a little amusing. It reads: "Twenty-ninth annual report of *the* Board of Education, together with the twenty-ninth annual report of *the* Secretary of *the* Board," without any indication of the State, province, or "commonwealth" to which *the* report or *the* Board pertains. Does not every one know the equipage of the king? This annual report is a most important contribution to the literature or science of public education. Indeed, the series of which it forms a part, including the contributions of Horace Mann, Barnas Sears, George S. Boutwell, and Joseph White, has been of great influence in diffusing throughout the Union, and even in foreign countries, sound opinions and trustworthy statements respecting the administration of common schools. The report of the Board, which is always brief, was drawn up this year, as we learn, by Hon. J. D. Philbrick, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Boston. It states the school fund of the State as amounting to nearly two millions of dollars. The amount of money expended on common schools during the year was seven dollars and twenty-three cents for each person of school age. The average wages of male teachers was nearly fifty-five dollars per month; of female teachers nearly twenty-two dollars per month. About ninety per cent. of the children of the State are enrolled as scholars in the public schools. Mr. White, the present secretary, in addition to the customary administrative statistics and recommendations, gives an interesting historical view of the progress of the Massachusetts school system from the earliest days until the present.

—The number of college graduates and of other cultivated and educated men who took part in the recent war on the side of the Union was made the theme of some interesting comments by Thos. Hughes, in a recent English magazine, which were reproduced in "Littell's Living Age." The estimate which he placed on the high tone of our army was discriminating, and as the tribute of a liberal Englishman it was a gratifying acknowledgment of the aid which the educated men of the country rendered in the conflict which maintained the Government. But some American should collect in a more thorough manner the facts illustrative of the real influence which was exerted by this class of our countrymen. A contribution toward such an investigation will be found in a pamphlet lately printed under the very

vague title "The Commemorative Celebration at Yale College, July 26, 1865." This is really an account of an academic festival in honor of the former students of the university at New Haven who served their country in the recent war. In addition to a memorial discourse by Dr. Horace Bushnell, a most interesting list is given of the students from Yale who enrolled themselves among the defenders of the republic. The summary presents the following figures: The number of the graduates of the academical department who entered the national service was 454; of the professional schools, 97; total, 551; and the number of former students, *not* graduated, who entered the service, was 175 in the academical department; 32 in the professional schools; total, 207. The grand total, including graduates and non-graduates, was 758, of whom 106 have fallen by disease or in battle. The Yale battalion was more than decimated. It was estimated that about one-fifth of the living graduates of military age took part in the war. One class which graduated ninety-eight men sent thirty-nine soldiers to the army. The publication of the Harvard memorial volume is looked for with great interest.

—A sort of fraud has been perpetrated in one of our weekly illustrated newspapers by the publication of a large print showing the College of Business and Finance in a neighboring city. The edifice is represented as four stories high, and some two hundred feet long, while not an intimation appears in the letter-press that this is only a *château en Espagne*. We presume it will be found that not a foot of ground has been bought, nor a brick laid, for this dashing architectural venture.

—The recent death of three men who have long been identified with university education, and the expected publication of their memoirs, is likely to throw light on the influences under which the scholars of the present generation in this country have been trained. Prof. Silliman, Dr. Nott, and Dr. Wayland were as unlike in their character as the three institutions with which their names are indelibly associated. But all of them had great influence with their pupils and with the public, and their biographies will be an important contribution to the history of American colleges.

THE ARMY OF THE POTOMAC.*

Mr. Swinton's book differs in several respects from any previous work published in this country on the military events of the late civil war. It is the first *critical* history extending beyond the limits of a single campaign; the first assuming to be based on evidence furnished by both of the contending parties; and the first, so far as we know, in which an author has ventured to express opinions diametrically opposed to those previously entertained by him. Viewed in these several aspects it is a welcome successor to that mushroom crop of "histories of the rebellion" whose appearance was almost coeval with the report of the first gun fired against Sumter, and of which the greater part, loosely constructed, inaccurate, and colored by partisan feeling, cannot possibly survive a decade; not to speak of the equally numerous family of special narratives, diaries, etc., by army correspondents, or by an occasional staff officer of a literary turn. With rare exceptions these works were little better than offerings on the shrine of national vanity. It is possible that an historian purposing to employ such an immense mass of material as the author parades in his preface could make a faithful use of it within the brief space of time which Mr. Swinton has deemed sufficient; but such expedition implies an almost superhuman industry, and the reader may with reason enquire whether it is compatible with accuracy of statement or just criticism. Napier's history of the Peninsular War, the operations covered by which it will scarcely be pretended were more important than those of the army of the Potomac, cost him sixteen years of undivided labor. Mr. Swinton has hurried his book through the press within considerably less than a year from the time when the Army of the Potomac passed out of existence. Had he used less haste he might have modified many of the opinions to which he now stands committed, and produced a permanent and valuable addition to our military literature. In its present form the work cannot be so considered.

In his capacity as a critic the author has nevertheless acquitted himself with decided ability, and his judgment will in the majority of cases probably be considered sound. That he will also arouse against himself a storm of adverse criticism admits of little doubt. While showing at times prejudice and unfairness, or assailing opinions too fixed to be overthrown by such reasoning as he employs, and sometimes, we are compelled to say, suppressing, if not perverting, the truth, he has, on the other hand, laid bare with utter fearlessness the mistakes, the ignorance, the imbecility which characterized the conduct of the war at various stages. Considered as warnings against error in planning or managing future campaigns, his criticisms may serve a useful purpose; but when he intimates that, under the circumstances, another line of conduct could have been pursued than that which on more than one occasion proved so disastrous, he does injustice to the men who then controlled our Government and armies, and shows a disregard of human feelings and motives remarkable in so keen a dissector of character. When, for example, President Lincoln is censured for his reluctance to leave the Capital uncovered and his solicitude to have unimportant points guarded, the mitigating circumstances which impelled him to think and act thus are unnoticed. He had no military experience himself, and he had received no proofs that the generals around him had much the advantage in that respect. The military commander in whom the hope of the country centred, after permitting Washington to be beleaguered on one side by a greatly inferior force for more than half a year, now proposed to transfer the bulk of the army to a distant base, leaving, as it seemed, the Capital open to attack by the same enterprising enemy. That capital rested on the very confines of a hostile country, and the responsibility devolving upon the Executive to defend it was enormous in view of the moral effect which its capture would have upon the country. It was in vain to tell the President or the people that a demonstration against Richmond by the line of the James or the Chickahominy would protect Washington, for neither the Executive nor the public mind was as yet sufficiently instructed in military science to appreciate the truth of that strategic problem. At that early stage of the war, and under the circumstances then existing, the proposition was almost without a parallel, and that it should have been strenuously opposed was inevitable. The President and his advisers are nevertheless blamed for this as severely as if the maxims of war were not less familiar to them than when, two years later, Grant pushed the enemy before him to the James, and finally confronted him before the lines of Petersburg, thus leaving the capital uncovered. Is no account to be taken of the fact that within that period many a bitter lesson of experience had been gained, and that the President could comprehend in 1864 what it is unreasonable to suppose he could in 1862?

Again, when the sudden movement of Jackson down the Valley of the Shenandoah, in the spring of 1862, aroused fears for the safety of the capital, it was in the nature of things impossible for the President not to have taken such measures of defence as his maturer judgment would have convinced him were useless. No man in his position and having his imperfect experience would have done otherwise; and Mr. Swinton's bitter criticisms upon the useless diversion of McDowell's corps toward the Shenandoah, when his pickets had almost opened communication with McClellan's right wing before Richmond, are about as just as the censure of a child for an act which as a man he would never have committed. That Mr. Lincoln's order in this instance had an unfortunate influence upon the campaign admits of no doubt, but it will require more forcible arguments than Mr. Swinton employs to convince the majority of his readers that the error of the President was an unpardonable one. The odium connected with it should at least be shared by McClellan, whom, with a tenderness as marked as it must be unaccountable to those who remember the author's previous comments on this campaign, he studiously shields from blame. That general must have suspected, when he landed on the Peninsula and left Washington comparatively uncovered, that precisely such a diversion as Jackson made would be attempted against the Capital; and had he taken the trouble, by a very simple process of reasoning, to enquire what a man in Mr. Lincoln's position would do under the circumstances, he would have been prepared for precisely what happened, and still been master of the situation. It was very plain to him, certainly, that the advance of McDowell toward Hanover Court House should not be interrupted by Jackson's raid, and having made up his mind on that point, he at once determined that the conclusion must be equally obvious to the President. Just such short-sightedness marked his whole career as commander of the Army of the Potomac, and from this radical defect in his character it resulted that his plans were never thoroughly digested, and in consequence often miscarried.

In no respect is the book before us more remarkable than in its criticisms upon McClellan's military acts. Those who read the letters in the *Times* of 1864, may well rub their eyes and ask whether this is the same Swinton whose caustic pen exposed the disingenuous statements and the numerous errors of omission and commission which characterized McClellan's report. Transformed from a severe critic of the general's conduct into, we might almost say, his apologist, he labors in 1866 to prove him right in many instances where in 1864 he conclusively showed him to have been wrong. That he has changed his opinion of McClellan is nothing to the purpose—if he has done so from conviction, it is rather to his credit than otherwise—but

* "Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac. By William Swinton." New York: C. B. Richardson. 1866.

having thrown down the gauntlet to those who would impugn his judgments, by demanding that they should first impugn the reasoning on which these judgments are founded, he has invited a comparison between the letters in the *Times* and the present work on those points embraced in each. And we have no hesitation in saying that the conclusions arrived at in the former are in no instance overthrown by the facts or the reasoning in the latter—in other words, Swinton has failed to confute Swinton. It must not be supposed, however, that McClellan escapes in every instance without censure. His vacillating conduct on the Chickahominy, where he is aptly described as "halting in the perilous half-way house between the offensive and the defensive," and his failure to take advantage of Lee's rash concentration on the left bank of the river, and march, after the battle of Gaines' Mill, with his whole army upon Richmond, are commented upon in fitting terms. On the other hand, the retreat to the James River is characterized as reflecting credit upon the commander as well as the army. The narrative of the Peninsula campaign of 1862 is briefly but clearly told, but it is rather singular that the author makes no allusion to two circumstances which have been accepted as history, and in connection with which severe criticisms have been pronounced against McClellan. We refer to the alleged panic among the rebels after the battle of Fair Oaks, of which, it is asserted, advantage might have been taken by an energetic commander; and to a similar panic which, on the authority of rebel officers, prevailed among their troops after the bloody repulse at Malvern.

The unfortunate campaign of Pope in Virginia is described with no lack of vigor, but with a degree of harshness also which cannot fail to provoke replies from the parties chiefly censured. Pope himself comes in for the largest share of blame. His follies and mistakes are thrust forward in hideous relief, while not a word is said in extenuation of his acts, or in censure of that general who, after unpardonable tardiness in coming to the succor of a brother officer, coolly proposed to let him "get out of his scrape." Admitting that Pope was bewildered and outwitted by his wily adversary, it is equally clear that he might have averted defeat had he received the assistance which he was entitled to expect. Who that remembers the timely arrival of Sumner at Fair Oaks, after a weary tramp through mud and rain, or the forced march of thirty-five miles which in twenty-four hours brought the Sixth Corps to Cemetery Ridge, will doubt that if McClellan and his generals had been anxious to relieve Pope they could have done so? The difficulties under which the latter labored, and the incompetency, not to use a harsher term, of McClellan, are so elaborately set forth in Mr. Swinton's letters to the *Times* that we are surprised to find scarcely an allusion to them in the present work. Space will not permit us to review in detail other portions of the book. The campaigns of 1862 in Virginia have been selected chiefly on account of their remoteness in point of time, on the supposition that the narrative would be more accurate and also more free from bias or prejudice. In these respects the work has disappointed us, and, in fact, the nearer the author approaches the close of the war, the more full and trustworthy become his descriptions. Antietam, Fredericksburg, and Chancellorsville seem each an improvement upon the other, and Gettysburg is described with a vigor surpassing any previous effort. As he is of the opinion that McClellan ought to have attacked Lee on the day succeeding the battle of Antietam, so, between the retreat of Lee from Gettysburg and his return into Virginia, it is also his opinion Meade should have attacked him. These have been heretofore moot points, but the reasoning of Mr. Swinton seems to us very sound. In describing the campaigns of 1864–5, he runs counter to some very fixed opinions about men and things, but is less swayed by prejudice. When, however, he says that Sheridan's devastations in the Valley of the Shenandoah were not less complete than those of Turenne in the Palatinate, he does injustice to the former general.

With the exception of Pope and Halleck, for whom he seems to have a cordial dislike, Mr. Swinton has spoken with tolerable fairness of the prominent generals of the Army of the Potomac, some of whom are characterized in exceedingly apt terms, a dozen words often sufficing to depict a man to the life. Grant and Meade are assigned to a considerably less exalted position than they occupy in the public estimation; while Hancock and Warren are praised without stint. The former certainly proved himself a gallant and capable officer; but that the victory of Gettysburg was due to his exertions and dispositions, as Mr. Swinton would seem to imply in his narrative, we are not prepared to believe. To the Army of the Potomac itself, the rank and file, often sorely tried by incompetent leaders; often subjected to loss of *morale* by change of leaders, but never discouraged, never refusing to respond to the commands of its leaders, the author renders full justice; and, in this regard, his work ought to meet the approbation of all classes of readers. Not so, however, the manner in which the oral statements or reports of rebel generals are made to substantiate the narrative. This sort of testimony is valuable when used in its proper place—without it, indeed, many occurrences happening within the special observation of the rebels could not be properly explained; but where we have the evidence of our own generals on matters cognizable by both parties, it seems odd, to say the least, that Mr. Swinton should choose to refer, in the majority of cases, to rebel authorities. If he does so from a desire to be scrupulously fair to our opponents, the motive is a laudable one; but the result is that, in avoiding Scylla, he is very apt to strike Charybdis. The unfavorable aspect in which several battles, hitherto esteemed Union victories, are placed before the reader may be accounted for by the author's familiarity with rebel reports, and his reverence for the opinions of Generals Longstreet and Johnston.

The "Campaigns of the Army of the Potomac" are too purely a military history to interest the general public. The language is to a considerable degree technical, and much space is devoted to details which only a military man can fully appreciate. Nor is the style by any means a model, being at times careless and even obscure, while here and there odd words crop out, for which the author is indebted to his own invention. "Supersession" is, we believe, allowable; but "disillusionized," "positioned," "oncoming," "ongoing," "unshaked," etc., are simply detestable. Believing, also, that a rebel is a rebel, some may not relish the euphuism which seeks to hide the character under the unrecognized term "Confederate," uniformly employed by Mr. Swinton. These, however, are comparatively slight faults, which can always be corrected. As a history of some of the most important operations of the war the book has great merit, though, as we have shown, it is not always unimpeachable where the author's feelings are enlisted for or against persons or acts. That it was written with a sincere desire to present a truthful record of the deeds of the Army of the Potomac almost every page bears evidence; and, although it may not become the one history of that army, it will prove a storehouse of opinions and facts to which future explorers must often refer.

The Adventures of Reuben Davidger; seventeen years and four months captive among the Dyaks of Borneo. By James Greenwood. (Harper & Bros., New York.)—This book will be read by the young with the same kind of interest as that excited by "Robinson Crusoe." We should regret more that the author had chosen so barbarous and bloody a scene for his story, except that we believe it to be the common experience that what we read in childhood we sift by a sort of natural selection—skim through the grosser parts from an innate repugnance to dwell upon them, or else from inability to understand them—and, according as the residue is entertaining or otherwise, remember a book ever after as good, bad, or indifferent. In this way, we doubt not, "Reuben Davidger" will be appreciated for its lively action and varied incidents, spite of the repulsive, even if strictly truthful, accessories. The judgment of our maturer years, however, is in favor of the opening chapter above all the rest. It is an exceedingly skilful piece of composition—after very good models.

Hospital Life in the Army of the Potomac. By William Howell Read. (Boston: W. V. Spencer.)—This is a glimpse of war, as it looks in the train of ambulances, among the shiploads of wounded men, in the crowded hospitals; of war the day after the battle, in its cruellest aspect. In its noblest aspect also, in which it reveals the impressive fortitude, the cheerful, patient courage that no man could witness without learning to be proud of his countrymen and his kind. No wonder Shakespeare sent his Lord Biron into a hospital. There he could surely be cured of flippancy and cynicism, and made to feel that human nature is very respectable. The book will interest a large class of readers; too large a class, unfortunately, for there are not very many Americans able now to read of men dying in hospitals without reading between the lines. Its style, if that is not too ambitious a word to apply to its language, never draws the reader's attention from its facts, and these are valuable as lessons and as part of a picture of the great struggle.

MR. MILL IN THE HOUSE OF COMMONS.

LONDON, April 21, 1866.

IT would have been not at all surprising if the greatest living writer on logic and political economy, passing at the sixtieth year of his life from the solitude of his study into that stormy assemblage which has been described as possessing "all the vices of a mob with none of its virtues," had found himself unfitted for a distinguished participation in its discussions. The case, however, has turned out exactly the opposite. Mr. Mill has now spoken four or five times. Though at first there was some wavering in the verdict, each succeeding effort has been an ascent upon its predecessor, until, within the past few days, he has achieved a great and unmistakable triumph, and has made for himself a high place in the annals of parliamentary eloquence.

As it was my rare good fortune to be present in the House during that last marvellous speech, I propose to give a brief account of the scene, as well as a summary of his parliamentary career up to the present time.

On the opening of the session in February, Mr. Mill was among the earliest to arrive at the House; and, from that day to this, he has shown a punctuality in coming, a patience in listening, and a persistency in staying

even through the longest and dullest debates, which indicate that membership of Parliament is not to be with him, as it is with so many, a mere titular decoration, a genteel episode in professional toil or fashionable distraction. From my outlook in the gallery, it has seemed to me that the three most indefatigable legislators in the space below are Mr. Speaker, Mr. Gladstone, and Mr. Mill. All other members are peripatetic and flitting, chatting in the lobbies, lounging in the coffee-rooms, fleeing for their lives to the opera and the club from the dreary pattering of senatorial bores. These three are the ever-present figures in the House, whosoever proses, whosoever goes: the Speaker, couched upon his sumptuous and canopied throne, with his lame foot reposing on a pillow before him; Mr. Gladstone, often the only tenant of the Treasury bench, catching in the net of his all-comprehensive memory everything that falls in debate, and indemnifying himself, in the course of an eight or nine hours' discussion, by the luxury of inventing a greater variety of sprawling postures than one would suppose the human form even of an acrobat or a financier was capable of assuming; Mr. Mill, at the upper end of one of the Independent Liberal benches immediately behind the place of John Bright, conspicuous for the innovation of keeping his hat under the bench instead of upon his head, and for his noble, pure, intellectual face, always turned attentively towards the member who may be speaking, and reflecting, as in some exquisite and sensitive mirror, whatever worthy thought or emotion may be generated by the debate.

The first important subject which came before Parliament this year happened to involve one in which Mr. Mill is the great authority, that of economics; and he but yielded to the general expectation in making his maiden speech without that probation of silence to which parliamentary catechumens usually submit. The cattle-plague was to be stamped out. Veterinary science had broken down. The pole-axe alone remained, the last argument of butchers. Every beast guilty of infection was to be instantly killed. But the great agricultural interest, never very eloquent and never very bashful, demanded that the Government should compensate the owners for all cattle thus sacrificed. "Not so," was substantially the reply of Mr. Mill; "let the farmers as a class organize among themselves a fund for the compensation of individual losers belonging to their class; since the farmers as a class, by the increase in the price of beef in proportion to the diminution of supply, are, according to inevitable economic laws, to be fully compensated for the aggregate loss. But if Government shall pay for every beast killed, the farmers will be paid twice over, and the general body of the community will have to pay twice over, first by the extra taxation, and second by the extra price of beef." When Mr. Mill rose, there was a movement of respectful attention throughout the whole House. The great economist whose writings had been quoted there for years was at last present to speak for himself. His physical organization is of that fine and delicate sort which, with reference to the indwelling spirit, may be said to be almost transparent; and on this his first appearance his bearing was so diffident and so sincere, so tremulous yet so intensely earnest, with so much of the reality of a great intellectual authority, yet so free from the slightest assumption of it, that the genuine English courtesy of the House was conciliated into a deferential and really applausive silence. Almost the only fault in his speech was one easily remedied: his voice, probably from nervous agitation, was pitched in too feeble a key. The essential and the gratifying thing indicated by that first speech was his ability to think acutely and profoundly on his legs and in the midst of a multitude, and the power of clothing his thought tersely and fluently in the choicest words. Two nights after, Mr. Ayrton—member for George Thompson's old constituency, the Tower Hamlets—a glib lawyer who considers himself foreordained to speak on all possible subjects and who is never guilty of any excess of self-depreciation, indulged in a fling at Mr. Mill's positions. Instantly Mr. Mill rose in reply, and now with a voice distinctly audible in every part of the House pointed out the irrelevancy of Mr. Ayrton's arguments and reiterated his own with still greater force of illustration. As soon as Mr. Mill was seated, Mr. Lowe, whom John Bright the other day described as the "intellectual gladiator" of the House, advanced to the charge against the new member. Mr. Lowe was a foeman worthy of his steel; and again this scholarly recluse, with his intellectual eye as clear and penetrating in the crowded assemblage as it was wont to be in the voiceless company of his books, rose and met the onset of Mr. Lowe, covering the vital point of his own argument and thrusting his sword exactly through the middle of his antagonist's. When Mr. Mill took his seat every intelligent man felt that a new and an unsurpassed power had joined the House of Commons. His second and third speeches showed what the first could not, that the great dialectic abilities of Mr. Mill are capable of being brought to bear in Parliament in hand-to-hand contests, in running debate, in logical repartee.

Passing over Mr. Mill's great argument on the reform bill, which I did not hear—an argument the depth and massiveness of which are daily growing in the appreciation of the country—I come to the memorable speech I have already referred to, delivered last Tuesday evening.

The subject of discussion was again a bucolic one, the reduction of the duty on malt; and the resolution to that effect had been moved by Sir Fitzroy Kelly, the predestined Lord Chancellor of the next Tory ministry. The debate had dragged its slow length along over leagues of statistics and platitudes. Not a ray of genuine thought, not a flash of enlivening sentiment, had been emitted, when Mr. Mill rose to second an amendment, the point of which was that any redundancy of revenue should be applied not to a remission of the malt tax, but to a payment of the national debt. Not more than seventy members were left in the House. Mr. Bright, Mr. Disraeli, Lord Stanley, had long since fled. Mr. Gladstone was quite alone—

> "A pillar of state: deep on his front engraven
> Deliberation sat and public care;
> With Atlantean shoulders fit to bear
> The weight of mightiest monarchies."

On the Tory side, the only eminent man left to Sir Fitzroy was Bulwer Lytton, whose long, meager, uncouth form had writhed and twisted impatiently upon his seat, and who, upon the appearance of Mr. Mill, bent far forward with his chin in his left hand and the elbow resting on his knee, while his eyes glared intently from beneath the shade of his broad-brimmed hat. Two or three country members noisily stalked out of the room; some on the Liberal side moved still nearer to Mr. Mill, and all who remained sat in attitudes of respectful attention. I need not recapitulate the speech which he then made. His voice, though tremulous and by no means loud, was perfectly distinct, and every syllable from his lips was audible in every part of the House. His manner was the perfection of dignified, scholarly, and sincere speaking; almost pathetic in its earnest tones; not facile with the glibness of practised oratory, yet fluent with the deliberation of one who is master alike of deep thought and of fitting words. It is strange the magic there is in the slightest touch of genius upon an assemblage, however weary, however dull. The first real statesmanly thought born to us that night seemed to open the heavens above our heads, and to let in light and the atmosphere of life. All felt the witchery of the spell; and the climax of admiration and of excitement was reached when, at the close of his compact and unanswerable demonstration, he commenced that peroration which must become a classic in our language, and which old members of Parliament have pronounced the most poetical and eloquent passage heard there for many years:

"I beg very strongly indeed to press upon the House the duty of taking these things into serious consideration, in the name of that dutiful concern for posterity which has been very strong in every nation that ever did anything great, and which has never left the minds of any such nation until, as in the case of the Romans under the Empire, it was already falling into decrepitude and ceasing to be a nation. . . . Whatever has been done for mankind by the idea of posterity—whatever has been done for mankind by philanthropic concern for posterity—by a conscientious sense of duty for posterity—even by the less pure but still noble ambition of being remembered and honored by them—all this we owe to posterity, and all this it is our duty, to the best of our limited ability, to repay. All the great deeds of the founders of nations, and of those second founders of nations, the great reformers—all that has been done for us by the authors of those laws and institutions to which free countries are indebted for their freedom, and well-governed countries for their good government—all the heroic lives which have been led and the deaths which have been died in defence of liberty and law against despotism and tyranny, from Marathon and Salamis down to Leipeic and Waterloo—all those traditions of wisdom and of virtue which are enshrined in the history and literature of the past—all the schools and universities by which the culture of a former time has been brought down to us, and all that culture itself—all that we owe to the great masters of human thought, to the great masters of human emotion—all this is ours, because those who preceded us have taken thought for posterity."

Great as must be the delight of every one who only reads these immortal sentences and the remainder of the passage from which they are torn, that delight cannot compare with our rapt astonishment who actually heard them; with our startled and breathless joy as in the moment of their conception they came dropping so timidly, with so sweet and gentle a cadence, with such an unassuming beauty, with a passionate earnestness so veiled and chained by intellectual refinement, from the quivering lips of the speaker. There was in his manner nothing of the triumphant complacency of mere rhetoric, nothing of the muscularity and physical jubilance of mere oratory. It was altogether and infinitely above it. It was pure, ethereal, unearthly.

The immediate effect of that speech was indescribable; while upon the public, who have been reading it and discussing it ever since, its effect seems likely to be profound and lasting.

M. C. T.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should addressed to the Editor.*

THE BOMBARDMENT OF VALPARAISO.

[FIRST NOTICE.]

It is a matter of doubt whether any exigency of war can justify the deliberate destruction of private property. Military and naval commanders usually apologize to the world even for necessary or accidental interference with the interests of private citizens or neutrals. Certainly, then, no excuse can be offered for destroying an opulent commercial city, incapable of materially influencing the operations of war, either by impeding or endangering the progress of an army or threatening any injury to a naval force. Valparaiso was bombarded by the Spanish squadron on the 31st of March. We have studied in vain to find in the manifestoes and official documents issued by Admiral Pinzon, his successor, Pareja, and Commodore Nunez, any good reason for this measure. The manifesto which Nunez sent to the diplomatic corps on the 27th of March is singularly unintelligible. We are assured that it has been correctly translated, and the facility with which Spanish is rendered into English makes it certain that either Commodore Nunez has no ideas to express or is wofully ignorant of the manner of expression, for, had the original been clear, the translation would, at least, have been comprehensible.

But in his verbiage two very queer confessions are made. First, the failure of the attempt to destroy the allied fleet in their place of refuge at Chiloe; second, the fear of some injury to his own squadron as the reason for avoiding another effort to dislodge that fleet. These admissions are strangely out of place in a communication issued for the purpose of announcing an intention to burn the property and endanger the lives of the citizens of a hostile power. Considering the nature of this acknowledgment, in conjunction with the refusal of the Spaniard to accept the challenge of President Perez to engage the allied squadron in the open sea, it is fair to conclude that he is afraid to meet the armed forces of the Republic, and will, hereafter, devote his energies to ruining non-combatants and battering with shot and shell the residences of peaceable citizens. Admiral Pareja was more logical than this man, yet he was insane enough to commit self-destruction.

To weaken an opponent is a legitimate object in war. There are two ways by which this can be accomplished, either by exhausting his capacities for offensive operations or removing his means of self-defense. The acts which may be sanctioned in these attempts occasionally vary, according to the cause of the war and the purpose for which it is waged. The Spaniard claims that the Government of Spain has been insulted by that of Chili, and demands satisfaction. By his own concession it is a point of honor which is in question. Therefore he should direct his efforts only against the party itself, or its authorized representative, from whom he demands reparation. He violates every rule of that honor of which he boasts by avoiding a conflict with the national defensive force of Chili, and inflicting wanton destruction upon the people and friends of that republic. He, furthermore, displays cowardice by choosing a point of attack where he is perfectly secure from harm and capable of injuring only those who, he knows well, are unable either to attack him or defend themselves.

Valparaiso is a commercial town. It is so favorably situated for communicating with interior provinces that, even with a bad harbor and very deep anchorage, its commerce is larger than that of any other port on the West coast. Its interests are solely, purely mercantile. It has no government docks or yards wherein vessels, ordnance, or ammunition might be prepared for service. Within its limits are no armories for the manufacture of the utensils of war. There are no accommodations for large bodies of troops, organizing for offensive operations. Its capital is largely owned by foreign merchants, and is a source of revenue to their respective nations. In no particular would Spain weaken the capacity of Chili for offensive operations by the entire destruction of Valparaiso. The allied fleet is the only force with which the Republic can assume the aggressive. Can Valparaiso add to the defensive power of Chili? Three forts occupy positions commanding the harbor, but they are, and have been, unarmed. They are not garrisoned, with the exception of a few companies of soldiers stationed in them to preserve the domestic quiet of the city and neighboring territory. Neither is the city the entrance to an inland country, rich in supplies of provisions and abounding in wealthy villages. On the contrary, for fifty miles towards the interior, there is scarcely sustenance for more than the cactus and lizard. The Spaniard would, then, find it no obstacle, if he wished either to gain supplies for his squadron or deprive his enemy of a source of provisions.

But he has manifested no intention of landing an army or getting a foothold at Valparaiso. Is it his purpose to dampen the ardor of his antagonist? He pursues the very policy most likely to inflame the popular mind to resistance. Does he wish to check the commerce of the country? From the ashes which he has created the mercantile interests will arise with renewed vigor and increased activity. Such a demand will be made for foreign capital, merchandise, and labor, that, from all countries, a tide of commerce will flow thither unprecedented. While legitimate objects of attack, upon which he can expend his ammunition, exist, there is no justification for bombarding the undefended seaport towns.

We believe that, in spite of the badness of the reasoning process by which Commodore Rogers sought to justify his proposed interference, his desire to interfere, which of course does the highest credit to him, has won both for him and General Kilpatrick the sincere regard of the inhabitants, while the British admiral is just now loaded with the execrations of his own countrymen in Valparaiso. He seems to have been at one time as sure of his right to interfere as Commodore Rogers, but to have had less pluck, and would consequently not commit himself.

We hope that this great outrage will have the good effect of awakening the sympathies of all nations for these republics, and rouse the Governments of the United States and England to a determined remonstrance against the policy of Spain. All we ask is that, if humanity, or justice, or policy, call for our interference, that our course be deliberately shaped in Washington by the President and his Cabinet, instead of being traced out for us by naval and military officers on the spot. The acts of a great power are precedents, and precedents should only be created by statesmen and lawyers.

HEALTH IN GREAT CITIES.

A PAMPHLET on the alleged deterioration of race, brought about by the growth of large cities, has lately appeared in England from the pen of a Dr. Morgan; and, whatever may be thought of his inferences, his facts are interesting and instructive. It appears that in England, at least, while the proportion of marriages to population is in the towns the triple of what it is in the country, country marriages are two and a half times more prolific. Then, again, the death-rate in cities is one-third larger than in the country districts, so that, what with scanty births and numerous deaths, every town in England would speedily be depopulated if a constant stream of population did not flow into it from the country. What makes this fact all the more startling is, that rather more than half the population of England and Wales now live in the great towns, so that to keep them filled up is a drain on the country districts which is felt every year more severely. Dr. Morgan finds in all this proof that the inhabitants of cities are deteriorating physically, and in doing so, of course, lower the type of coming generations. But the fact seems to be that whatever defects may be created by city life, they are not transmitted to such an extent as to exercise a serious influence on posterity—the reason being that feeble city children generally die off, and those who reach maturity are therefore apt to be picked men and women. It is well known that city-bred men are in all countries found to undergo that severest of all tests of physical vigor, military service, even better than country people—a superiority which is by some observers ascribed to the gain in nervous force wrought by city life; and we doubt very much whether the average country maiden could stand the wear and tear of "a season" in any of the great capitals of the world with nearly as much success as those bred in town drawing-rooms. The capacity of a country girl to undergo severe muscular labor, such as walking, riding, or

rowing, milking or sweeping, is not necessarily an indication of greater vitality. These occupations are in themselves health-giving, even when followed by fatigue. Vitality, which is, after all, the very basis of health, is best tested by pursuits in themselves unhealthy and which involve a drain on the nervous power, such as loss of sleep, exposure to excitement, or anxiety, or mental worry.

We are sorry we have no means at hand of ascertaining the comparative growth of city and country population in this country. There is no question, of course, that the latter greatly outstrips the former as yet; but it is equally certain our cities are growing with a rapidity which, in view of the feebleness of our efforts to govern them, and the general ignorance of, or indifference to, the means of keeping them clean and healthy, may be called positively alarming. In other countries there are one or two growing rapidly; we have a dozen or two which promise in a dozen years or so to surpass in size and populousness all others of ancient or modern times. Their growth is stimulated in a variety of ways. One is the easiness of access; another is the prodigious increase of commerce and manufactures, the latter having of late years been forced heavily by the high tariff. We consequently can show several "centres of population" which, being largely created by drift from all quarters of the globe, are not much above those of Europe in intelligence, education, self-respect, or habits of self-control. We are trying to govern them too by the machinery which was invented and used by the old American population of fifty years ago, those quiet, thrifty, reading farmers, who laid the foundations of American society, who were for two centuries its boast and glory, and are still its salvation, but who are in some parts of the country being rapidly supplanted by swarms of foreign operatives. The legal influences we are able to exert, therefore, on behalf of health and cleanliness are far below those with which European legislators are armed.

That the effect of life in these busy hives upon health and physique will be much what it is in Europe, there can be little question. The same causes are at work in both places; and it seems to be settled that foremost amongst these is bad air—one of the inevitable results of crowding. That the day will come when crowding a great number of men and women together on a small space of ground will not make the air very bad after all, we think very likely; but that day is clearly a long way off. The art of policing great cities in free countries is still in its infancy. Despots alone do it successfully; but our people will hardly ever be disposed to purchase cleanliness by the surrender of their freedom. Such powers as the Board of Health in this city is armed with would hardly be tolerated as a permanency.

In the meantime, there is nothing so much needed as the use of all the influences at our command to diminish the flow of the country population into the towns; or, if this be too difficult, as we fear it is, to induce those whose business lies in them to live out of them. The plain fact of the matter is, that country life is to most Americans at this moment intolerable, and no wonder. In the first place, the means of reaching the country are disgraceful not simply to the railroad companies but to our civilization. We cannot recall to mind at this moment a single line of railroad which the directors seek to make agreeable or convenient to those who have to use it every day. Most people who live in the neighborhood of a great city make their purchases in it, particularly ladies. This is not a luxury; it is a necessity. A place at the station, therefore, to which parcels might be sent to await the arrival of the owner, would be a great convenience to suburban residents. On most suburban lines, however, no parcel will be received unless the passenger is there to receive it. This is a small matter, but it indicates a good deal. We have so often discussed the condition of the cars that we shall not here return to it. The trains are generally arranged to start or not to start at ingeniously inconvenient hours. The theory on which the time-tables of most suburban lines is apparently drawn up is, that nobody living in the country ever wants to spend an evening in the city, and nobody living in the city wants to spend one in the country; and yet there is perhaps nothing that makes country life so distasteful to all classes, working-men included, as the fact that it cuts them off from those sources of amusement or entertainment, social or other, such as only cities can supply. It must be admitted, in fact, that the social attractions offered by the country are well-nigh worthless. People who live in the country, and who have the good sense to try and make the best of it, generally try to persuade themselves and others that they have all the society they want; but in their secret hearts they know they heroically and innocently lie. Under the most favorable circumstances, they rarely see much of their neighbors. The distances are too great, and when they are not, the roads are, during three-fourths of the year, either too muddy or too dusty to make walking agreeable. Harnessing vehicles for the payment of nocturnal visits is not agreeable, if one has to do it one's self; and it is still less agreeable to have to ask a coachman to do it, as coachmen go in these days; so that the great majority stay at home, hoping that people will "drop in in the evening"—a pleasing anticipation in which the mass of men and women who are fond of society continue to indulge in the earlier part of their lives, but which they get over before they reach what novelists call "the grand climacteric." People rarely do "drop in in the evening" anywhere. One meets with circles now and then in which the custom prevails, but they are mostly family circles, or circles long established and bound together by old and valued associations. Amongst the heterogeneous populations of most country "neighborhoods" families stay at home and wait for others, and the general prevalence of this practice of course involves general disappointment.

Then, again, persons brought together by accident in the country are not often congenial. There is no good reason why they should be. Tastes, pursuits, and antecedents may and do differ, and when they do differ conversation is apt to be a bore. And it must be confessed that, except in the case of persons of great powers, great cultivation, or great originality, meeting the same persons very often soon ceases to be amusing or entertaining. Each one very soon gets acquainted with all his neighbor's jokes, his best stories, his favorite personal experiences, and soon learns enough even of the character of his mind to be able to predict with tolerable certainty what he will say on any ordinary subject that comes up. The result is that one very rarely finds country circles rely very long on conversation. They fall back on games or "Shakespearian readings," which are generally very well for a while; but people tire of games, and there is a limit to one's enjoyment of hearing Shakespeare badly read.

The true remedy for all this is to make removal to the country as little of a separation from the city as possible, to enable people to enjoy the pure air and good scenery of the one without losing altogether the pleasures of the other, and this can only be done by thorough railroad reform. There is, in fact, it may be safely said, nothing on which the health of the cities of the United States will hereafter so much depend as this.

THE BLACKS OF HAYTI, AS SEEN BY AN ENGLISH TRAVELLER.

Mr. Henry Yates Thompson, whose name is known in this country as that of the author of the proposition to establish an American lectureship at the University of Cambridge, in England, has recently visited Jamaica and Hayti, on his way to this country for a second time. In a letter to the London *Daily News* he has given the results of his observations on the negroes in Hayti. They are valuable as the opinions of a man of candor, intelligence, and good sense, who has gained a standard of comparison and judgment by considerable travel in various countries.

The general ignorance, even among intelligent and cultivated men, in regard to the actual condition of Hayti, and the importance of trustworthy information concerning "this novel democracy of black and mulatto freedmen, part French and part negro in origin and language, which is to-day but in the sixty-third year of a most chequered existence, and which has barely even yet contrived to get complete recognition in the fastidious society of nations," induces us to lay before our readers the more striking parts of Mr. Thompson's letter:

"No thoughtful man," he says, "regards this country in any spirit of flippancy or jest. It is to be looked on rather as the test experiment of the manhood and capacity of the African freedmen, as containing the knot of a question which is as broad as humanity itself, and which, after a century's discussion by tongue, and pen, and sword, throughout Europe and America, has lately shaken, and still shakes to its deep foundations, one of the strongest governments in the world. . . . . For I defy any man to see even a little of the leading Haytians without being driven to the opinion that the capacity of freedmen of African or semi-African descent for social and intellectual elevation can only be measured by their opportunities. I have made the acquaintance in this insignificant town [Jacmel] of a merchant who, as far as color goes, is entirely, or almost entirely, of African origin, who in

manners and conversation might ornament any drawing-room in Liverpool or London. This man talks French and English not sensibly and grammatically only, but with the accent and ease of a perfect gentleman. He has travelled, and observed, and read much during a life at least as long as that of his country; and, prepared as I was, and as I suppose all Englishmen are, to acknowledge the capacity of the African races for improvement, I own that it has been a surprise to me to find not from this instance only, but from many instances both here and at Port-au-Prince, that they have already advanced so far. Both among the merchants of the towns, and the peasant freeholders who form the great majority of the country districts, and are evidently the backbone of the nation, there is remarked in the Haytians, in comparison with the other creoles of the West Indies, a graver and more dignified personal bearing, more refined features, and more agreeable manners. And is not this what we naturally expect to find? The Haytians have been longer free than the others. They have been free nearly twice as long as the Jamaica negroes, for example, and, what is still more important, they freed themselves. Since emancipation they have not been overshadowed by the presence of a caste of whites their superiors in civilization and their former owners and masters."

Further on, in the same connection, Mr. Thompson speaks of "the undoubted and immense superiority of the Haytians to the Jamaicans," and of a conversation in which this superiority was asserted. An English missionary present, who had been making an extended visit to the island, and who, since his own district among the mountains of Jamaica contained over 20,000 negroes, had a good opportunity for comparing the two populations, apparently could only observe on the other side that, under the laws of Jamaica, there was absolutely no distinction of color. An old Haytian, in reply, suggested that if Gordon had been a white man, his trial and execution would probably have been a little less summary; and that in fact, however equal the laws may be, the freedmen of Jamaica are brought in disastrous competition with the class from whom they are distinguished by their color, and who in one way or another represent their former masters, so that they can never have entirely fair play to rise. That the same thing had not happened in Hayti was due to that article of the constitution which reads: "No white man, whatever may be his nationality, is permitted to land on the Haytian territory with the title of master or proprietor, nor is he able to acquire there either real estate or the rights of a Haytian." It is this well-known prohibition, let us remark, in passing, which enabled ex-Gov. Perry, in his recent correspondence with Mr. Greeley, to contrast Hayti as a black man's government with the United States as a white man's. The fallacy hardly needs to be pointed out. Hayti does not deny the equal brotherhood of man, but her bitter experience of the white race, and her well-founded apprehension of the designs of a neighboring slaveholding republic, warned her to protect herself against possible invasion and re-enslavement, and to exchange the tri-color for the bi-color. "The prejudice," says Mr. Thompson, "pervades the whole people, and crops up in many forms. There is a favorite Haytian proverb often quoted in this connection. It tells us, in the dog-French of the common people, that *œufs pas mele n'en calinda roches*—eggs must not mingle in the dance with stones." But, according to President Geffrard, this prejudice is on the wane. The obnoxious clause is practically evaded in many ways, and is likely to become obsolete before it is abrogated. Their isolation has not rendered the Haytians arrogant or offensively boastful of their own country. "All with whom I conversed," says our witness, "took a diffident and modest tone;" and for what concerns the actual treatment of the whites, spite of their political disabilities, he quotes appreciatively from Mr. Redpath's "Guide to Hayti" that "in social life, and in the callings for which they are legally qualified, they are treated with all the courtesy and regard to which their character entitles them. Exemplary conduct on their part always enables them to overcome the social disadvantages attaching to their unfortunate color."

THE LEGISLATIVE SATURDAY.

THERE was an ancient custom in New England, introduced from England or Scotland, of devoting a portion of the schoolboy's Saturdays to committing and repeating the "Shorter Catechism." Why it should ever have been called "shorter" is a mystery to us. Growing out of this custom, no doubt, the lower House of Congress is in the habit of devoting its Saturdays to a similar performance. It is not exactly catechetical, though to some extent a rehearsal of obscure doctrines, badly committed to memory. As it is growing into a settled innovation, let us briefly describe this curious legislative performance.

A citizen of this republic, sojourning at Washington, saunters up the Avenue on a Saturday. He has been fixing his eye on the white dome of the Capitol, with the black speck on the top of it, until he reaches the gate and is informed, on enquiry, that it is Saturday, and the Senate is not in session. The "Senate" may have gone on the Potomac to Mount Vernon, or in the cars to New York or elsewhere; or fragments of it, not exiled from the White House at the other end of the Avenue, may have gone thither with friends from their own State, and be waiting, patiently or otherwise, in the presidential ante-rooms.

But our novice is at the gates of the Capitol, and he has found out that the House is in session, as is indicated by the flag still floating at its end of the building. He gropes his way through hall and corridor, escapes the griffins that lie in wait with oranges and photographs, and contrives to stumble into the gallery of the House. The hall is rather sombre, daylight struggling in drearily from the top; but even the light of a dull day makes the gilding glare painfully. He observes the two little flags over the Speaker's head, and has taken his seat before perceiving that a man is on his legs, behind one of those little gingerbread desks, haranguing the House. He cannot hear a word he says, partly because the man does not talk loud enough, but chiefly because no one is paying any attention to him. But few members are in their seats, and these are busy writing, an exercise that they vary with another that somewhat amazes our friend. He tries vainly, and would like to catch a word or two of a speech that seems to elicit such terrible applause. The members are constantly clapping their hands with great but not prolonged energy, at which little hobgoblin pages spring about, running as if to relieve each surcharged member of his enthusiasm; and our friend gradually discovers that the hand-clapping is not applause, but a mode of summoning the pages.

He gazes in bewilderment on the Babel before him. The *man* is reading his speech, and does so from a printed copy, and as if he were paid by the line for it. The pages skip about. The members clap their hands. People come in and look at the show with stoical apathy, and then go out again. The man finishes his reading and sits down. Another man gets up and commences the same performance. The members go out, until not over a dozen of them are left. The man is reading his speech. He does not do it very glibly; he does not do it as if he expects to gain anything by it. Some humane friend comes to his rescue with a motion; by parliamentary fiction the speech is considered delivered, and printed with the proceedings, and as many copies as the orator likes to pay for may be stuffed into the glory of a buff envelope and franked to a wondering constituency in his "district."

It may be a necessity in the economy of the great parliamentary whale that it come up to the surface and blow off, and then go down again. If it could be entirely restricted to the Saturdays it would be better; one day in six is, after all, not a great deal to devote to parliamentary nonsense. Making a speech is considered the destiny of our politicians. The member who should not succeed in going through the operation just described at least once in each session, and franking home many thousand dirty-looking little pamphlets as evidence, would be considered an utter failure—a fraud upon the public. It makes no difference that he has nothing to say. It makes still less that no one wants to listen to him. At the close of his "catechism" some leader of the House may be kind enough to shake him by the hand and congratulate him on his "speech," but even the most verdant member is not unsophisticated enough to believe that it had any effect on anybody. It is a very broad farce and a very shallow one. Each Saturday gets rid of half a dozen of these orators.

There are few occasions that justify a great parliamentary speech, as, by a wise dispensation of Providence, there are few politicians able to make one. Parliamentary power does not lie in great speeches, but in an intellect clear to grasp in a moment the strong points of a case, and in a ready command of the few pungent words that will fix them in the minds of listeners. Some parliamentary leaders have as much power to-day as they had yesterday, and will have for ever. These are the true kings, and their sceptres are not polished on Saturdays. They do not make speeches and recite them to empty benches. They may, indeed, have a weakness occasionally to rush into print; fortunately they have something more.

Fine Arts.

THE FORTY-FIRST EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

[FIRST NOTICE.]

THE Hanging Committee have done their work well, this year; so far, at least, as the outside world can judge of it. This is but imperfectly. One important part of their work the world knows nothing of. What's hung it partly may compute, but knows not what's rejected. That primary part of the committee's business, rejection, the world can only judge of by contrasting this exhibition with previous exhibitions. Thus it is plain that while this year's collection s the worse for the absence from it of the works of

this painter, it is better for the absence of the works of *that;* at the same time it cannot be supposed that the pictures whose absence is so welcome were not sent; they must have been sent, and rejected; and the smallness of the exhibition helps that conviction. A walk about the galleries and the mental comparison of the five hundred and twelve pictures in them with the six hundred and sixteen of last spring, although not showing any decided superiority of one exhibition over the other, yet lead to the belief that the veto power has been used and used wisely.

But whether this credit is rightly or wrongly given to the committee, the arrangement of the pictures admitted seems mainly just and wise. There are few instances of good work hung out of sight—few of bad work hung on the line.

The favorite place, the middle of the south wall of the South Gallery, is occupied by Mr. Huntington's portrait of Abraham Lincoln. This is, indeed, not the best picture in the exhibition, nor even one of the best; but we cannot find fault with the placing there of a portrait, not without merit and painted by the president of the Academy for the Union League Club, of our foremost man who is gone. Other portraits crowd into this large gallery. Mr. Elliott's portrait, No. 393, of a school-boy, is very pleasant, full of character, and contains, what is rare, a well-drawn hand. This is probably the best portrait in the exhibition, unless the two oil pictures by Mr. William M. Hunt, of Boston and Newport, are better. These are both in this South Gallery. No. 342 is a very vigorous portrait, life-size and about three-quarter length, of a lady holding a child, a picture showing considerable power of drawing and great skill in laying color. No. 405 is smaller, half length and also life-size, a lady's head shown against a background of light grey and gold, wall-paper, namely, and framed with singular appropriateness. We know of no work of Mr. Hunt's so good as his portraits, and these are among the best of his portraits. The two charcoal portraits, Nos. 34 and 64, ought not to be exhibited. Useful studies they may be, but only as private memoranda of the artists, and the disposition on the part of some people to admire such things is very harmful.

In the best place of the North Gallery is appropriately hung an important picture by Mr. J. F. Weir. It is only to be regretted that there cannot be one of the benches placed before it; a heater in the middle of the room prevents that. The picture requires a long look, and will reward it better than most pictures; the spectator ought to be allowed to sit before it a while, comfortable and undisturbed. This picture is No. 171, is called "The Gun Foundry," and belongs to Mr. R. P. Parrott; so that there is no doubt as to the scene represented. The canvas is large, and the scene takes in nearly the whole interior of a founding shed at the West Point or Cold Spring foundry, the well-known "W. P. F." A gun to bear that imprint is being cast; the great pot full of molten metal is swung to the right place by a huge crane, with four men at the windlass and one at the guide-chain; half-a-dozen more attend and tip the pot or bucket from which the carbonate of iron is running into the mould, thick, like molasses, hot and bright. The dusky shed, usually lighted only by the dim twilight that creeps through dirty windows high overhead, is filled now with the glare of the metal. Another mould is being prepared; the pipes or hose to carry cold water, Rodman fashion, to the centre of the casting, are adjusted, and a man is working at the channel through which the metal is to run—a different operation this is to be. It is well that this industrial epic has at last been painted. It is a wonder that no New York painter has represented the gloom and glow of similar scenes at the great iron-works here; it is well that a West Point painter has done this. He has done it well. There is a very unusual coherence and distinct meaning to his picture. The work is really getting done; the men are really busy, and sensibly busy; the chains hang in real catenary curves and the windlass rope is strained tight; the tools are explicable and useful-looking; a freshly cast gun on the ground is something like a freshly cast gun; the "flasks" which contain the gun-moulds are of a comprehensible shape and construction; the picture is real, and that is less often true of American pictures than could be wished. It is curious how much better drawn and conceived are the workmen in attitudes of violent action than the visitors—two ladies, three gentlemen, and a dog, who are lifeless enough. As regards the workmen, there is this cause only for regret, that they are a little too much like some models we have all seen in third-rate German pictures. It is not probable that Mr. Parrott's workmen look so like the hirsute monsters in Moritz Retszch's illustrations, especially those to Schiller's "Gang noch dem Eisenhammer." Those, childish as the fiends in the pictures to Faust, are feeble attempts of an unimaginative spirit to conceive rugged strength. We do not compare Mr. Weir's good picture with Retszch's worthless outlines, but we have the same sort of objection to the workmen in both—they all seem to be exaggerated studies of a single type, and that an unusual one in our workshops. The color of the picture is not wholly right. On the other hand there is great skill in the management of the two conflicting lights, and it may well be that better and livelier color would have been a not unmixed advantage.

There are two pictures by Mr. Eastman Johnson: No. 247, "Sunday Morning," and No. 251, "Fiddling his Way." They are both studies of New England interiors and New England people. They are full of expression. The former seems to us the better; and, although there are more beautiful pictures than this among those Mr. Johnson has painted, there are none which show more plainly his rare power. There are errors in drawing, now and then—not that the painter need make them, for he can draw if he tries—but it is curious to see how a really imperfectly-drawn figure can be filled full of feeling, if only the draughtsman can feel and is unaffected. How admirable is the young man, tilted back in his chair right under the high window-sill, the little girl near him, the old man who is reading the Bible aloud, and the children who are whispering. And, going to the other picture, we find their equals in the melancholy and expressive face of the negro, the delightful little boy, with hands behind him, who is as close to the music as he can get, and in the young woman, that typical young New England woman, worthy to have an Eastman Johnson paint her. The catalogue mentions another picture by Mr. Johnson, of which we may speak hereafter.

Mr. Winslow Homer has two pictures, and the military one, No. 490, "Prisoners from the Front," seems to be as popular as it deserves to be. We think Mr. Homer one of our first draughtsmen, in some respects unequalled, but this picture is not wholly in his best manner in execution. In the greater matters of meaning and expression it is hardly to be bettered. Those are real men—the officer with the star on his shoulder, the two soldiers with shouldered muskets, and the three prisoners. The Southern officer and the Northern officer are well contrasted, representing very accurately the widely differing classes to which they belong. Mr. Homer's other picture, "The Bush Harrow," is, to our thinking, even more valuable. The old farm-horse and the boy on the harrow are the heroes of this picture, and are perfect in their way, as good as the soldiers, and the picture is very beautiful, very interesting, fascinating in its strange deep color and bright sky.

Mr. C. C. Coleman's picture, No. 79, "Battery Reno, Morris Island, S. C.," has disappointed sincere admirers of his. It is not powerful or beautiful, nor in any respect excellent, except that we can be sure of the accuracy of the details. This assurance is valuable, and makes the picture interesting, although it is not artistically of great value. It is not necessary to compare Mr. Coleman with any one but himself, for his own better work of former years is the best standard by which to judge this.

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Each number of THE GALAXY will contain at least one full-page illustration, on tinted paper, which will be printed at the best press in the United States. Besides this, other illustrations, by clever artists, will be inserted in the text. It will be the effort of the publishers to make this feature of THE GALAXY worthy of the approbation of all tasteful and critical people. The opening illustration, by Mr. DARLEY, has been pronounced to be one of the finest pieces of engraving and printing ever done in this country.

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GENERAL AGENTS.

THE HERALD OF HEALTH

FOR MAY CONTAINS:

REPORT OF A DISCOURSE TO THE YOUNG MEN OF AMERICA. By E. H. CHAPIN.

A CONTRIBUTION FROM DR. DIO LEWIS ON NORMAL SCHOOLS FOR PHYSICAL CULTURE.

A PAPER ON THE NOSE AND ITS HEALTH.

SHALL WE EAT PORK?

TOWN AND COUNTRY.

CASE OF SMALL-POX. An interesting sketch of the illness and recovery of an Allopathic Professor by Hygienic treatment.

PHYSIQUE OF THE DIFFERENT STATES, also showing the Physical Degeneration of the Women of America.

CATTLE PLAGUE. Is it a question of Diet, or what is it?

$1 50 A YEAR; 15 CENTS A NUMBER.

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MILLER, WOOD & CO.,

15 Laight Street, New York.

FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday Evening,
May 10, 1866.

A GENERAL revival is taking place in business, especially in produce. An active demand has sprung up for breadstuffs, pork, lard, etc., and prices are uniformly advancing. Flour is $1 a barrel higher than it was a week ago; wheat, 20 cents higher; pork has risen nearly $6 in the past month. The advance is mainly due to purchases for Western account. Western farmers and dealers find that the South will take all the stock they have on hand, and are buying here instead of shipping produce eastward. General merchandise is also improving. There is a good demand for coffees, hides, sugars, etc., and prices tend upward. The country is generally bare of goods, and now that people are realizing that Mr. McCulloch's threatened contraction is indefinitely postponed, they are beginning to replace their stocks.

Gold has risen as high as 129¼. This afternoon it was 129⅛. Gold is no longer scarce. The short interest has been generally closed, on the belief that, if there is to be no contraction, the premium on gold is not excessive. Exchange has risen to 109½ to 109¾, at which rates specie can be shipped as a remittance. Between $1,500,000 and $2,000,000 of coin will probably be shipped on Saturday. The bill market has been swept of the commercial bills which were so abundant a few days since, and good commercial names sell within a fraction of bankers' signatures. At present prices, cotton cannot be shipped except at a loss, and unless the price falls here, or advances materially at Liverpool, the export must be light until the new crops come in. Opinions continue to vary widely with regard to the probable yield of the crop of 1866. Some authorities anticipate a crop of 2,000,000 bales; others, not more than 750,000. We incline to the belief that the former estimate is nearest to the truth.

Money continues very easy. Call loans are 4 to 5 per cent. Mercantile paper is 6½ to 7 for the best names, but the feeling is gaining ground that good names will presently be current at lower rates. No further progress has yet been made with the finance bill. It is understood that the Senate Committee on Finance will report it without amendment. The Secretary has advertised that he will pay off $20,000,000 of debt certificates, at 100 and interest, if presented within the month. He is not likely to get many certificates, as they command a premium in the open market, and the money which they represent cannot be used at a better rate than 5 per cent. Mr. Washburn has moved for a committee to investigate the causes of the failure of the Merchants' Bank, at Washington, by which the Government loses $700,000. Many sound men fear that other national banks have been speculating wildly with the funds of Government, and that, unless the deposits are removed, further losses will ensue.

The stock market is extremely dull, but firm. New York Central is depressed by reports of a heavy falling off in earnings. April is reported to show a decline of over $100,000 as compared with last year; but, in reality, the falling off will probably prove much heavier. The Western roads, on the peninsula between the lakes, show a gain, as usual on the opening of navigation. The North and South lines are doing very well, in consequence of the revival of trade with the South. An active speculation has been started in Western Union Telegraph stock, which has sold as high as 64. Mariposa preferred and Quicksilver are also higher, on purchases by cliques. Fort Wayne has been as high as 100½, but at about par the supply seems in excess of the demand. Pittsburgh is higher, on purchases by the old clique. The Prairie du Chien party have bought a round lot of Milwaukee and St. Paul stock, and have put it on the lists of the Boards, and made some quotations. They are not to be relied on, and the public will do well to obtain information regarding the property and its prospects before investing money in it. Governments all continue firm and active.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 3.	May 7.	May 10.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	108¼	109	109⅛	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds, old	101⅞ ex.c	102	102	....	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	101⅞ ex.c	102	102	....	....
10-40 Bonds	95¼	95⅞	95⅞	....	....
7.30 Notes, second series	101⅞	101⅛	102⅛	....	....
New York Central	92¼	92⅜	92½	....	....
Erie Railway	73½	73⅝	73¾	⅛	....
Hudson River	110½	110½	109¾	....	¾
Reading Railroad	106¾	107½	107⅛	....	⅜
Michigan Southern	78	78	78⅜	⅜	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	81¼	82	82¾	¾	....
Chicago and North-western	28¼	29½	29⅛	....	⅜
" " " Preferred	58½	61	60¼	....	¾
Chicago and Rock Island	123¾	125	95½ ex. d	½	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	98⅞	100	99¼	....	¾
Canton	59½	58½	58½	....	....
Cumberland	44¾	44¾	45	¼	....
Mariposa	12¾	13	12¾	....	¼
American Gold	127½	128⅜	129⅛	¾	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109¼	109¼	109⅛	⅛	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

HOME

INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND

INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.
W. C. NICOLL, Superintendent Marine Department.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - $1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - - 275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.
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THE

MORRIS FIRE AND INLAND INSURANCE COMPANY,

COLUMBIAN BUILDING, 1 NASSAU STREET.

JUNE 1, 1865.

AUTHORIZED CAPITAL, $5,000,000.

CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

POLICIES OF INSURANCE AGAINST LOSS OR DAMAGE BY FIRE
Issued on the most Favorable Terms.

EDWARD A. STANSBURY, President.
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1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71		
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52		
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87		
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40		
Paid Annuities	10,242 55		
Paid Taxes	38,076 52		
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94		
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63	
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82		
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30		
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25		
Real Estate	782,307 34		
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85	
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00		
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73		
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03	
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

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HALE REMINGTON, General Agent for the New England States, FALL RIVER, MASS.

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NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over - - - - - - - - -	$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over - - - - - -	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - -	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - - -	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - - - -	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

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Edw. Reynolds, M.D., M. I. Perry, M.D.,
Jacob Bigelow, M.D., J. Homans, M.D.

BOSTON, February 29, 1848.

Reference—New York, Willard Parker, M.D.
" Brooklyn, C. L. Mitchell, M.D.

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MESSRS. CARHART & NEEDHAM, established in 1846, are the oldest manufacturers of the improved Reed instruments in the United States, Mr. Carhart being the inventor and patentee of all the essential improvements which have been made in these instruments up to the present date.

They have been established over twenty years, during which period they have manufactured a vast number of instruments of all classes; and wherever they have been exhibited in competition with the instruments of other makers, they have invariably taken the highest premium.

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At the Fair of the American Institute held in New York in 1865 CARHART & NEEDHAM received the SPECIAL GOLD MEDAL over all the other instruments placed there in competition. The judges were Dr. Wm. Berge, C. B. Seymour (critic of the New York *Times*), Thomas Appleton, celebrated organ builder of Boston, George Jardine, also a well-known organ builder, and Dr. E. Ringer, an expert in the business.

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"To the honor and credit of the United States of America a native American citizen is the first in the world who has discovered and demonstrated that not only can these vibrating tongues or reeds descend lower in the base, but of the very finest quality of tone, rich, round, and full, of quick articulation and free from *windiness*, right down to the 32 feet tone of C C C C. No doubt the fame of these gentlemen and their discovery will very soon and deservedly be circulated among the makers of Reed Organs in the world."

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"AWARDS TO MUSICAL INSTRUMENTS.—A gold medal was awarded at the late Fair of the American Institute to CARHART & NEEDHAM for the best reed instrument on exhibition—a very just testimonial."

"They are an exceedingly good substitute for an organ, and I can speak of them in the highest terms."—GEO. W. MORGAN.

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"They are entitled to be ranked as the *first* and *best* among instruments of their class."—WM. A. KING.

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manufacture and are prepared to export Reed Organs of all classes for Parlors, Lodge-rooms, and Churches.

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(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

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STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their

PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT,

which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that ALL their patrons may reap its benefits.

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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, MAY 14, 1866. NO. 48

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Topics of the Day.

THE charges which are brought against the Freedmen's Bureau by the President's investigating agents, Generals Steedman and Fullerton, found their way into print, in advance of official publication, in the letters of a New York *Herald* correspondent. The gist of them is that certain Bureau officers in North Carolina have not only used freedmen with cruelty, and imposed on them exorbitant fines for trifling offences, but have also been speculating in cotton raising, turpentine gathering, and in lumber, and have taken undue advantage of their official position in hiring laborers. To these letters General Howard replies, putting in a general but emphatic denial of the charges of cruelty, and declaring that his officers have done well, indeed have obeyed orders, in giving practical proof to the doubting and faithless that plantations can be cultivated by free labor—a truth not long since generally scouted in the Southern States. Misrepresentation of the Bureau, he says, is to be expected. General Howard, it may be added, is quite well acquainted with the opinions of General Fullerton, who was once employed by him as a subordinate. It can hardly be true that Southern men dislike the Bureau mainly because its officers hire plantations and work them. The favorite Southern scheme of a Bureau last summer was, that the Bureau officers in each district should be Southern gentlemen engaged in planting, with practical knowledge of the negro, not with merely visionary theories.

WE are every day supplied with fresh materials for judging of the state of things likely to prevail at the South after the troops are withdrawn. Within a week Mr. Bardwell, the agent for the American Missionary Association in Mississippi, was enticed into a law office in Grenada in that State, and savagely beaten. On going before the mayor to complain, he found his principal assailant had already been there, and had complained against himself, and been fined ten dollars and discharged. Lieutenant Blanding, the agent of the Bureau, assisted Mr. Bardwell with his advice, and was soon after murdered in the street. The value of laws which are administered by such worthies as the mayor of Grenada is apparent to everybody. We agree with Northern conservatives in thinking that these tigers will eventually lose their tigerishness, and become sober Christian men, decent citizens of a civilized country; but we object in the strongest manner to having any class of persons, either white or black, exposed to their claws and their gambols during the transition process. It makes little difference to men like Mr. Bardwell personally whether the ruffians of Grenada will be better or worse ten years hence than they are now. What he wants, and what all persons who go to the South on their lawful occasions are entitled to, is protection for life, limb, property, and liberty now, and as long as the State laws withhold it we maintain that it is for the purpose of affording this protection that the Union exists. It was to secure this that the colonies revolted and the rebellion was put down, and not to provide a post-office merely and a debating hall in Washington.

MR. HENRY A. SMYTHE has at last, after much trouble and some tribulation, been confirmed in that, by politicians, most desired of all government posts, the New York Collectorship. The accounts of his political opinions vary—the point in doubt being the extent to which he approves of the "President's policy;" but on the most important point of all there is general agreement. He is beyond question an honest man, and has had no training in the working of party machinery, and will therefore, *if let alone*, make the New York Custom House a credit to the country, which it can hardly be said to be at present.

"HEAD CENTRE" STEPHENS has arrived in New York in search of that army of 200,000 men which he informed his friends in Paris he was about to lead back to Ireland. He has deposed Colonel O'Mahony from the post of honor and profit which he held in Union Square, and the great question of what became of the money which this last-named chief received is now undergoing examination. Eleven thousand dollars are said to be all that remains in the treasury; the remainder having been expended mostly in "secret service," the nature of which, of course, it would be improper to divulge. The most singular incident attending Stephens's advent is the tranquillity which reigns amongst the New York Aldermen and Common Councilmen.

ON the 16th of April, President Johnson had a long talk with a correspondent of the London *Times*, and made a full exposition of his present opinions. A part of what he said the correspondent felt at liberty to repeat. "These men," was the term by which "he always designated the radical party" during the interview. These men could hardly be blamed for pursuing their object—the exclusion of the South—with so much eagerness; they knew that when the South came back their day was done. Their talk of philanthropy was a pretence; they wished to work on the feelings of the North. These men had been busy for months incrusting the public mind with falsehood, but the truth would prevail, and the President instanced the case of Peoria and other places where meetings had been held to endorse his policy. These men knew nothing practically of the condition of the South. The very man who drew up the civil rights bill had remained in the Senate, while he had gone to Tennessee and seen everything. They passed the bill, however, and soon the sight would be seen of a judge under arrest for obeying the law of his State. The course of these men in reference to the negro could only lead to a war of races, and then, of course, the black race would perish. Congress represented the States, but the men who voted for them individually *all* voted for him. The Freedmen's Bureau had established another form of slavery, only it was abolitionists who managed it, and got the benefit of it. A Southern man could not get negroes taken down South for him, but a Northern man in the South could. These men wanted power, while he had gone the round of all the offices, and had nothing more to wish

for. The Presidency, now, was thought a great position, but he was often in the White House twelve hours without its ever occurring to him that he was President. The correspondent thought Mr. Johnson an honest man who had no personal ends to serve. The sum and substance of Mr. Johnson's statements was, in fact, that he is himself one of the most honest, pure-minded men living, and that those who differ with him are hypocrites and traitors.

Mr. H. J. Raymond, as the legislative agent of a body of citizens, has been addressed in a sharp letter by one of the latter—Mr. Sinclair Tousey, in which an inventory of his Congressional services is taken, showing him to have been guilty of thirty-five sins of omission, together with others of commission. Mr. Tousey concludes by an intimation that Mr. Raymond's further employment in his present duties will not be required by those who elected him.

The Massachusetts Senate has just defeated a bill which had passed the lower House, providing that the bounty of every State volunteer should be made equal to the highest bounty paid. No doubt many men voted for the bill because they thought the claim of the soldiers equitable. Others, it seems likely, voted for it because, not to put too fine a point on it, they were afraid that the soldiers as a class would be the political enemies of all members who did not support the measure. It is not in Massachusetts alone that there are men who seem to forget that our soldiers were American citizens before the war, and now, since the war, are American citizens again. They do not go by regiments to the support of any policy, and when they do it will be for some better reason than merely because they are regiments; it will be, we believe, because the policy commends itself to them as reasonable and just.

The English reform bill passed a second reading, as we intimated, and not passed the House as the telegraph reported, by five majority, which is equivalent to defeat. Lord Russell, it is believed, will resign. The question now is, whether the Tories will be able to form a cabinet. They are already trying to seduce some of the present ministers into a coalition against the great enemy of all—John Bright. Lord Granville may be won over, a result for which the *Times* is probably working. Lord Stanley would, should this arrangement be successful, be the leader in the House of Commons, and there is a rumor of Disraeli going to the Lords. Mr. Lowe is entitled to the credit or discredit of having killed the reform bill by his speeches, which roused the passions of his audience into fatal activity. He characterized democracy as a system under which the poor govern the rich, and, if they please, live on them, and the cry of property in danger being once raised, Mr. Gladstone's supporters ran into the opposition like frightened sheep.

The aspect of affairs on the European continent is very warlike. Austria, Italy, Prussia, Bavaria, Saxony, are all visibly preparing their forces for a great European war. Of course, all pretend to be acting on the defensive. Italy became frightened by Austria's armaments against Prussia, and cannot help concentrating troops west of the Mincio and south of the Po. Austria is therefore afraid of an invasion of Venetia, and, in spite of her agreement to disarm, compelled to augment her army in that province. This Prussia regards as a continued menace, and she, too, pushes forward, instead of suspending, her military preparations. In this way, in spite of the loudly proclaimed repugnance of the people to plunge into a fratricidal struggle, Germany seems to be drifting into a bloody war. The Italian people, on the other hand, is eager for the conflict. On the 30th of last month, the Chamber of Deputies unanimously voted a bill authorizing the Government to incur the requisite expenditures for the defence of the State, and to provide by extraordinary means for the necessities of the treasury. The war enthusiasm pervades alike all the provinces of the Peninsula. The Italian armaments are said to be carried on a large scale. The Italian fleet is reported to have left Genoa, destination unknown. The Austrian army in Venetia is estimated at about 150,000 men, which is more than enough for defence as long as France remains neutral. The intentions of the latter power are, of course, as yet undivulged.

CONGRESS.

Washington, May 12, 1866.

The great feature of this week has been the passage by the House of the constitutional amendment embodying the first portion of the congressional plan of reconstruction. The heavy majority by which this measure was carried through—receiving 18 more votes than the requisite two-thirds—evinces the fact that the Union party has been toned up rather than down by the steady opposition of the President. The amendment even secured two votes which were cast against the civil rights bill, while it lost no vote which that measure received.

By an unexpected pressure of the previous question—in which fifteen of the leading Democrats joined forces with Thaddeus Stevens and the radical Republicans to force the undivided issue upon the House—a large minority of the Union members were prevented from voting against the third section, or the clause disfranchising all the late rebels until 1870. Much dissatisfaction is the result, and the question of rejecting this portion of the amendment is to be tried in the Senate. From fifty to sixty Republicans are known to be opposed to it, though from different and sometimes opposite reasons.

The Senate is still far behind the House in the active business of the session. More than a week has been consumed in mere electioneering speeches, but this, it is hoped, has at length come to an end, by the final vote yesterday, leaving the President's power of removal where it was. There is some prospect that an independent measure, curbing the use of this proscriptive power independently of the Senate, will pass disconnected from the appropriation bills.

DIARY.

May 9.—In the Senate, a House resolution appointing a commission to select a site for the New York post-office, was passed. Also, a bill to incorporate the National Theological Institute. The bill to prevent the introduction of cholera into the ports of the United States was discussed by Messrs. Chandler, Edmunds, and Sumner in its favor, and Mr. Morrill against it. The rest of the day was consumed in political speech-making.

In the House, the constitutional amendment of the committee of fifteen was defended by Messrs. McKee, Spalding, Eliot, Miller, and Boutwell, and opposed by Messrs. Shanklin and Eldridge. Mr. Raymond spoke in favor of the amendment, excepting the disfranchisement clause. The tax bill was debated and amended.

May 10.—In the Senate, House bill to authorize the coinage of five cent pieces, and the withdrawal of all fractional currency below the value of ten cents, was passed. Also, House bill imposing a duty of 20 per cent. on live animals imported from foreign countries. The bill to prevent introduction of cholera was opposed by Messrs. Grimes and Harris, and defended by Mr. Edmunds. Messrs. Nye and Doolittle made political speeches.

In the House, the constitutional amendment was opposed by Messrs. Randall, of Pennsylvania, Strouse, and Rogers, and defended by Messrs. Banks, Eckley, Longyear, Beaman, Farnsworth, Dawes, Bingham, and Stevens. It was then passed—yeas, 128; nays, 37. Adjourned to Monday, May 14.

May 11.—In the Senate, the bill to prevent introduction of cholera was opposed by Mr. Johnson, and defended by Mr. Sumner. Messrs. Howard and Cowan made political speeches. The vote was taken on the reconsidered amendment to the post-office bill, withholding salary from the successors of officers removed by the President without consent of the Senate, and the amendment was lost—yeas, 16; nays, 23. Adjourned to May 14.

THE FREEDMEN.

There continue to be large numbers of freed people at Fortress Monroe and Hampton, but the demand for hands is reducing them. A large number of orphans are about to be transferred from the vicinity of the fort to Mr. De Mareil's farm-school near Washington.

The report that Bureau officers in North Carolina were engaged in private enterprises was probably founded on the fact that many ex-officers of the army have settled in the State and are working plantations, and that some of these officers have been appointed agents of the Bureau without pay, just as, in some localities, loyal resident planters have been appointed agents.

Gen. Fisk reports 48 schools for freedmen, in which there has been an average attendance of 8,180 scholars and 131 teachers. He states that some of the largest planters have established schools on their plantations. During the month of March, only 194 freed people received rations in Kentucky, and 225 in Tennessee, and these were old and sick and orphan children. Gen. Fisk telegraphs from Memphis that the school-houses destroyed by the riot will be rebuilt within ten days, and the schools resumed.

—A free woman of color has recovered $4,386 damages for violation of trusts, in the Freedmen's Court at Nashville.

Notes.

LITERARY.

THE late Count Gurowski left behind him an immense mass of manuscripts, consisting of correspondence with the notabilities of this country and Europe, besides a great many unpublished memoranda of his own. It is reported that this material will be arranged and edited for the benefit of a surviving daughter.

—Before the discoveries of Grant, Speke, and Baker can produce any very practical results, it is necessary that more shall be known than is at present of the languages of the Nile countries, a fact of which the Catholic missionaries are well aware, as they are of most things which are calculated to advance the interests of their Church. They have done much in past times to make us acquainted with the languages of Central Africa, to which can now be added the Dinka language, which is spoken in the districts of the Upper Nile, from 9° to 12° on the eastern bank of the rivers, and from 5° to 10° on the western, embracing a region of from three to four hundred miles in extent. Of this language Herr Mitterrutzner, a Catholic missionary, has just published a grammar, to which he has appended a Dinka, German, and Italian dictionary.

—The report which obtained currency some time since, that Gustave Doré was making illustrations for Tennyson's "Idyls of the King," which he cannot read, by the way, in the language in which it is written, turns out to be true, we are sorry to say, for if there is any one thing which Doré cannot do, we fear it is to illustrate Tennyson properly. Browning he might, or that portion of Browning which is represented by such poems as "Childe Roland to the Dark Tower Came," having much in common with his dark, weird, and irregular genius. What must be, must be, however, and Moxon & Co., Tennyson's publishers, are negotiating with Doré for his drawings, which are thirty in number. They are to be engraved in London, we cannot see by whom, unless it be by the Dalziel Brothers, and will probably be ready for the next holiday season.

—While the attention of his countrymen was directed towards him on account of his Edinburgh speech, and while their plaudits were ringing in his ears, Thomas Carlyle suddenly found his home turned into a house of mourning by the death of his wife. Taking her customary drive in Hyde Park on the afternoon of Saturday, April 21, her favorite dog was run over while running by the side of the brougham. Much alarmed, though the dog was not seriously injured, she lifted him into the carriage with her, and the coachman drove on; not receiving any direction from her, as he expected, he stopped the carriage, and, looking in, discovered her in a fit, as he thought, so he drove to St. George's Hospital, which was near by, but she was dead when he arrived there.

—Messrs. Strahan & Co.'s list of new works in preparation is the largest that we have lately recorded. It is as follows: "The Boyle Lectures for 1866," by Prof. E. H. Plumptre; "The Prophet Jonah: his Life and Mission Illustrated and Applied," by the Rev. Hugh Martin, M.A.; "The Philosophy of the Conditioned: Sir William Hamilton and John Stuart Mill," by the Rev. Henry Longueville Mansel, B.D., professor of philosophy, Oxford; "Thoughts and Opinions," by Matthew Browne; "Biographical Studies," by Bessie Rayner Parkes; "The Higher Education of Women," by Emily Davies; "The Letters of Eugénie de Guérin;" "Dealings with the Fairies," by George Macdonald; "The Washerwoman's Foundling," by William Gilbert; "The Will-o'-the-Wisps are in Town," by Hans Christian Andersen; an illustrated edition of Jean Ingelow's "Studies for Stories;" "The Romance of Charity;" "Peeps at Foreign Countries;" "Errands of Mercy;" "Truth in Tales;" "The Discoveries of the Astronomer revealing 'God's Glory in the Heavens';" "Lives and Deeds worth Knowing About;" "Chapters in Science for Boys;" "Edwin's Fairing;" "Æsop's Fables, with one hundred illustrations by eminent artists;" a new, revised edition of "The Regular Swiss Round," by Harry Jones; and a series of popular "Treasure Books," as—"The Treasure Book of Devotional Reading;" "The Treasure Book of Praise and Thanksgiving;" "The Treasure Book of Consolation for the Afflicted;" "The Treasure Book of Scripture Facts;" "The Treasure Book of Good Men's Prayers;" and "The Treasure Book of Counsel for Family Guidance." Many, probably the most, of these books will be manufactured here.

—The memory of William Henry Ireland, the Shakespeare forger, was lately revived for a moment in London at the sale of a library of Shakespeare literature, in which was a copy of Ireland's own collections relative to his forgeries, and a manuscript of his "Confessions" in his own handwriting. The value of the latter, which could never have been much at any time, was not enhanced by the fact that several similar copies of it are known to exist in England. We have somewhere read that Ireland supported himself in the last years of his life by making manuscript copies of his forgeries, each one of which was, of course, the genuine original Simon Pure. We believe one of these copies was sold here when the library of Burton the actor came to the hammer; and we know of another which, in addition to Ireland's own balderdash, contains a number of poems in the autograph of his mother.

—A valuable collection of scarce books, mostly rare volumes of early English poetry, will soon be sold in London, in the shape of the entire stock of Joseph Lilly, with whom works of this class are a specialty, and whose admirable catalogues are well known to collectors in this country. The collection in question is probably the richest one in England, abounding, as it does, in books which are rare in the strict sense of the word. Its acquisition was the result of many years; of a bibliographical knowledge such as is not usually possessed by dealers in old books; and of a very large outlay of money. If Lilly set his heart on a book at a sale, it was almost useless to bid against him, for he would have it at any price. He purchased, for instance, a large portion of the library of the late George Daniel, among other things Daniel's unique collection of black-letter ballads, for which he paid over seven hundred pounds. His own sale will witness prices not often paid in England, and some of the highest of them, we are certain, will be from American buyers, who are rapidly drawing hither the scarcest books in the language.

—Messrs. Bell & Daldy, the successors of the late William Pickering, have in preparation a new edition of the "Aldine Poets," which are every year becoming scarcer. The series, which is rather noted for beauty than accuracy, has been revised throughout, new biographies of several of the poets having been written, and the text generally corrected by the original editions. There are to be two editions, both printed from type, a limited one on small paper, and one on large paper, of two hundred and fifty copies, one hundred of which are destined for this country. They will be sold only by subscription, Messrs. Robert H. Johnson & Co., of this city, acting as the American agents of Messrs. Bell & Daldy.

—That the copyright law is respected in England, in its most minute particulars, is certain, as has just been shown by a case in chancery. The publisher of the *Illustrated London News*, as its American purchasers know, is in the habit of issuing double, triple, and even quadruple numbers of that journal for Christmas—one feature of which, and probably the greatest, is a large chromo-lithographic print from a painting by some popular artist. These illustrations are often beautiful, the one of last Christmas, a touching realization of "The Children in the Wood," from a painting by C. Lucy, the copyright of which was purchased by the proprietor of the London *News*, being especially so. It was popular enough in England to justify a pirated copy of it, which was manufactured in Germany, and which sold largely in London. The proprietors of the London *News* discovered the fact a month or two since, and obtained an injunction against the house who circulated the pirated print, who were ordered to deliver all the unsold copies to be cancelled, to pay over the profits on those already sold, and to pay all the costs of the suit. The decision, which was certainly a righteous one, will be a good precedent against all future infringement of the law in regard to prints taken from paintings.

—Among recent deaths in England may be mentioned that of John Scandrett Harford, who was said to have been the hero of Hannah More's religious novel, "Cœlebs in Search of a Wife," and who was known as a writer by a "Life of Michael Angelo" and a "Life of Dr. Thomas Burgess, Bishop of Salisbury." He died at his residence, Blaize Castle, at the ripe age of eighty-one.

—The expenditures of the British Museum during the past year amounted to over half a million of dollars, viz., £101,808 14s. 4d., and the sum required for the present year is estimated at a larger figure. The number of persons, exclusive of readers, who visited its general collections during the twelve months was 369,967, and the number of readers 100,271—a daily average of 349, each reader consulting twelve books daily. Valuable acquisitions have been made to the department of Oriental, British, and mediæval antiquities and ethnography, and the Greek and Roman departments have been enriched by a number of antiquities from the Pourtalis sale. Prof. Owen reports 16,700 additions to zoölogy, 10,079 to geology, and 3,628 to mineralogy.

SCIENTIFIC.

Exhaustion of the English Coal-fields.—The question as to the endurance of the supply of coal in Great Britain, which has been much discussed in the periodical literature of that country during the last three or four years, seems at last to have been fairly brought home to the English mind, when Mr. J. Stuart Mill declared in the House of Commons, "in a manner which riveted attention," that the exhaustion of the English coal-fields is a question not of centuries, but of generations. Mr. Mill cites the conclusion of Stanley Jevons, "that if the present rate of consumption of coal continues, three generations at the most, or very possibly a considerably shorter period, will leave no workable coal nearer to the surface than 4,000 feet in depth; and that the expense of raising it from that depth will entirely put it out of the power of he country to compete in manufactures with the richer coal-fields of other countries." Mr. Mill goes on to say: "I think, then, that if there be any one in this House, or out of it, who knows anything which will invalidate these conclusions of Mr. Jevons, it will be right of him to come forward and make it known. I have myself read various attempts to answer Mr. Jevons; but I must say that every one, admitting the truth of everything said, has only made out that our supplies will continue a few years longer than Mr. Jevons has assigned."

This question is one of the greatest possible interest to Americans, in view of the enormous extent of our undeveloped deposits of coal, from which, profiting by the experience of England, and guarding against the shameful extravagance with which her mineral wealth has been squandered through unintelligent use, we may continue to draw the sources of power for ages. It was, by the way, the keen eye of an American savant that first foresaw the coming of the English dearth. If we remember aright, it was Prof. Henry D. Rogers, of Pennsylvania, now of Glasgow, who some years since pointed out the speedy exhaustion of the British coal-fields.

There is consolation in the belief that, however much the exhaustion of its coal mines may affect the prosperity of any single country, the event will not be likely to impede materially the progress of civilization or to lessen the comforts of mankind. After the English mines have been dug out to such an extent that it would cost more to go deeper than it will to bring coal, or products resulting from the use of coal, from other countries, many English manufactures must, of course, be given up. But it is certain that long before all the coal in the world has been burned, other means of obtaining heat or power will have been developed, upon which mankind can fall back and prosper even if there is no more of the fossil carbon to be had. We should have still the scorching sun of the tropics, and every one who has once tried to escape from this merciless master will gladly see it subdued by the hand of man to be his servant, or, better, his slave; of its abundant power for good, if rightly managed, there can be no question. There is in the region of the trade-winds—in the wind itself—an amount of power always at command of which few men have any just conception; and the amount of water-power still to be had from rivers and tides is far greater than can be found in all the deposits of coal. Under the stimulus of necessity all these sources of power would be utilized by man, and to a degree now unthought of. As another source of power waiting, as it were, to be employed by mankind, there is the internal heat of the earth. Not that there is reason to share the sanguine anticipations of Buffon, who, as the story goes, had a scheme for warming the Jardin des Plantes, and even of producing there a tropical climate suitable for the disportment of monkeys, by means of hot water to be obtained by boring deep artesian wells. Yet is it not clear that the self-same power which will eventually check the working of the coal mines can itself be put to good use? The obstacle to mining which, more than anything else, will be difficult to overcome as the coal-pits are deepened, is precisely this internal heat of the earth. There are even now certain mines of metallic ores in England in the lower galleries of which the heat is so intense that work can be carried on only by naked miners, working by relays which release one another every few minutes. Here must be surely heat enough and power enough to be had for the taking.

In the course of the changes and oscillations of the civilization which is yet to be, it is in no sense unlikely, after all the coal of all inhabited countries shall have been burned up and have gone over into coral, that the New Zealander will find it to his advantage to make himself comfortable by means of heat obtained from holes in the earth which are now in process of excavation at the hands of barbarous Britons. But, not to look quite so far into the future, what a delightful summer watering-place England will soon be, when all her coal-smoke, business bustle, and pauper populations shall have disappeared, when only well-to-do people shall be found in her clean cities, and the country-places of great American merchants and manufacturers shall cover her now desolate mining and manufacturing districts with smooth lawns and stately parks!

Shiftings of Trade.—At the last annual meeting of the Birmingham Chamber of Commerce, the vice-president, Mr. Wright, made several curious and interesting statements concerning the trade of that town. It appears that during the last fifty years Birmingham has lost the custom of Italy, Spain, Belgium, and Switzerland, having been superseded in the trade with these countries by Belgium and France. France has now an amount of trade three times greater than was carried on by all England half a century ago. The first steam engines were built near Birmingham, in the factory of Boulton & Watt; but Birmingham is no longer the principal seat of this manufacture. Towards the close of the last century steel ornaments were very largely manufactured, and Mr. Wright asserts that he has in his possession pattern cards of steel ornaments from the old firm of Boulton & Watt which do not suffer by a comparison with the best work of the present day. Now the manufacture of these articles is almost entirely monopolized by the French, nearly twenty thousand persons being employed in it at Paris alone. The sword trade, also, has passed away from Birmingham to the continent of Europe. On the other hand, many new branches of industry have been introduced, and some old ones have increased in importance to a wonderful extent. The manufacture of yellow metal for sheathing vessels, of tubing for locomotive boilers, and of railway carriages, are examples.

Upon the necessity of cultivating in manufactories the art of designing and the science of chemistry, Mr. Wright makes some strenuous remarks. He insists that, in view of the kind of competition to which the Birmingham manufacturers are nowadays subjected by their Continental rivals, it has become as imperative upon all those whose works partake of the artistic element to found a studio within their establishments as it is to employ a foreman or cashier. As instances in point, the trades of the brassfounder, glass-blower, and maker of chandeliers are particularly specified. To meet this want, much has been done by founding a school of design, though it appears that out of 900 students at this institution only 170 were engaged in artistic trades. But in the matter of chemistry it would seem that Birmingham is still lamentably behind the age. Mr. Wright stated his belief "that in all Birmingham, which used annually a million pounds sterling of gold and silver, and half a million pounds in value of copper, and had nearly 400,000 inhabitants, there were not ten persons in the metal trades who studied chemistry with a view of making themselves better manufacturers." He asserted that "he had, during the last few weeks, seen metals, oxides, and bronzes, produced by the French and Germans, that had never been approached in Birmingham, and colored metals in imitation of gold which he had never been able to touch, although he had been in the trade for fifty years." He went on to relate the case of "a manufacturer [who] told his son, who was studying chemistry, that if he was not content with the trade as it was, he should have no part of it." That the condition of things here depicted will be found in the immediate future to be altogether incompatible with a successful resistance to that Continental aggression in matters of trade to which Birmingham is so much exposed, will be at once apparent to every one in any way familiar with the methods and habits of the large manufacturers of France and Germany. His townsmen have good reason to be thankful to Mr. Wright and to accept his timely warning.

The Scientific Investigation of Disease.—That very great benefit to mankind could not fail to be derived from any systematic, organized, and far-reaching effort to fathom the laws of disease, will be manifest to every one. Some months since a writer in The Nation, commenting upon the doings of the Smithsonian Institution, alluded to the importance of concerted action in this matter, and suggested that a central office for collecting, recording, classifying, and digesting all facts relating to the laws of disease should be somewhere established. It was urged that the very important results obtained by the Smithsonian Institution in the field of meteorology might be taken as an earnest of what could be accomplished if an organization similar to that of the Smithsonian, and methods of research analogous to those adopted by that institution, were applied to the study of epidemic diseases.

There is great force in these suggestions. No country is more interested than our own in such investigations. Vast tracts of our territory are cursed with fever and ague; yellow fever visits many of our ports almost every year; cholera and small-pox periodically alarm our crowded populations. Every year a large amount of valuable evidence is accumulated concerning the history of diseases, their origin and development, the manner in which they are carried, or in which they move from one place to another, the modes in which they are communicated, restricted, prevented, or cured. But this mass of information is presented in a diffused and, as it were, diluted form. As matters now stand, no one observer can see anything like the

whole of this evidence; each person obtaining, at the best, but a partial, one-sided view of the subject. There is needed some common centre into which each separate witness can throw, as into the focus of a glass, any ray of light which may have fallen unto him.

As the sources of force, by virtue of which the desired office or bureau should be established and maintained, we of course look, after the republican manner, mainly either to the united pecuniary contributions of physicians, or to moneys obtained at the instigation of physicians, or men of science, from the wealthy and philanthropic. But in Europe they do, or seek to do, these things in a different way. The subject has recently come up for discussion in England, as we have noticed since reading the article in THE NATION already referred to, and it is curious to see the expectation of help from the Government which animates those who have taken part in the discussion, as well as the manner in which this help is demanded, almost as if it were of the nature of a right. The *Medical Times and Gazette*, one of the leading journals in its department, says: "Let us then, by all means, have royal commissioners to help us in our investigations into disease; we shall gladly accept and avail ourselves of their aid. But is this all the assistance that medicine has a right to expect from a wealthy and enlightened Government? We think not!" "A Fellow of the Royal Society and of the Royal College of Physicians," in his pamphlet "On the Scientific Investigation of Disease in Animals and Man," suggests that Government ought to make grants of money annually for the scientific investigation of disease. He admits that of a great many grants made few would be productive of useful results, but holds that if, out of twenty men set to work, only one produced anything of value, this one success would abundantly justify the system, and he contrasts the case with that of experiments upon guns and ships, where vast sums of money are expended upon mere failures. The writer laments that "there is not yet a hospital in London in which there are efficient means for conducting scientific enquiries into the nature of disease." The remark may well be taken as a reproach in view of the enormous endowments of some of the metropolitan hospitals. However much we may disagree with this writer in the choice of methods, it must be admitted that any agitation of the subject is likely to be productive of good.

ECCE HOMO.*

THE title of this little book led us to expect a presentation to the public of the historical Jesus. It is the avowed purpose of the author to make such a presentation. He has undertaken, as he says in his preface, "to trace his biography from point to point, and accept those conclusions about him not which church doctors, or even apostles, have sealed with their authority, but which the facts themselves, critically weighed, appear to warrant."

Now, if there is anything the author has not done, it is precisely this. His book is in no sense a biography—a sketch of the life of Jesus. The facts of the gospel narratives do not seem to have been critically weighed; the gospel narratives do not seem to have been critically studied. There is no indication that the writer, though evidently a very accomplished and able man, is in the least acquainted with the critical literature of the New Testament, or has noticed even the broadest distinctions between the four Evangelists. Not only does he fail to sift, classify, digest, and arrange the facts he scarcely notices the facts. No incidents, or even events, in the life of Jesus are detailed. There is no historical sequence, no movement, no crisis, no career, no issue, no culmination, no catastrophe. There is no scenery, and there are no personages. The Christ himself is presented as a personage, and a most extraordinary one; such a one as no church doctors or apostles ever conceived. His image is drawn with great firmness and power, and stands out in colossal proportions, as that of a social reformer and statesman strangely endowed, wonderfully gifted, and marvellously inspired; a man historically linked with his age, the product of his age, in fact, and yet possessed of a genius that made him a man for all ages. But this image of the Christ is projected from the author's individual mind, and is simply illustrated by the way by the evangelical records. And the records get twisted a good deal in the process. For instance, he illustrates the importance which Jesus attached to the initiatory rite of baptism—an importance, we may say, that is assumed in defiance of the record—by the passage with Nicodemus. The "ruler among the Jews," he tells us, was ready to comply with Christ's demand of personal homage and submission, but wished to be excused from making a public avowal of it. He thought he could push the movement among the influential classes, and become a useful friend in the metropolis. If Christ would excuse him from publicly undergoing the rite of baptism, he believed he could cautiously dispose the Pharisaic sect to a coalition with Christ, on the ground of their common national and theocratic feeling; while, on the other hand, by submitting to baptism he would lose his influence with the authorities, and with it "all his power of becoming a nursing father to the infant church." These overtures the Christ summarily rejected, "by an abrupt declaration that there was no way into the theocracy but through baptism!" Again, speaking of the effect of personal influence in creating virtuous impulses, he cites the story of the woman taken in adultery. Jesus, he says, stooped down and wrote on the ground because he was so overcome by a sense of shame that he could not but hide his face. When at last he raised his head for an instant, it was his flushed, maidenly cheek, not his scathing sarcasm, that sent the accusers away. The volume abounds in similar arbitrary constructions.

We have said that the writer uses the gospel records merely for the purpose of illustrating the conception of Christ which he has fashioned by his own thought. He takes greater liberties than this. He sets aside the record altogether, even where its statements are the most conspicuous and unqualified. For their most overwhelming incidents he seems to substitute incidents of his own. We think we are justified in saying this by a single sentence, which must have been overlooked by those who have given such immoderate praise to this book not only on the score of its ability, but on the score of its historical conservatism. On page 119 we read: "This monarchy (of Jesus) was essentially despotic, and might, in spite of the goodness of the sovereign, have had some mischievous consequences if he had remained too long among his subjects, and if his dictation had descended too much into particulars. But he shunned the details of administration, and assumed only the higher functions of an heroic monarch, those of organization and legislation. And when these were sufficiently discharged, when his whole mind and will had expressed itself in precept and signed itself for ever in transcendent deeds, *he withdrew to a secret post of observation*, from whence he visited his people *for the future* only in refreshing inspirations and great acts of providential justice." We are at a loss to understand the meaning of this paragraph, if it be not that Jesus, instead of dying and leaving the world as the gospels say, revived after a seeming death and disappeared to pass the rest of his days as a secluded spectator of the work which his followers took up and continued. This is one of the solutions suggested by the rationalists to escape from the resurrection and ascension, and though it is one of the most arbitrary, the author seems to adopt it.

In a word, this book is not a biography, but a treatise, or rather an essay, on the work of the Christ. As such it is remarkable for its originality and its power. Christ, he says, formed one plan and executed it. This plan was to establish a universal monarchy; "to restore the theocracy as it had been in the time of David, with a visible monarch at its head, and that monarch himself." It was not his aim to reproduce the past—he was too wise for that; his notion of monarchy was different from David's; his ideal of a king was nobler than his countrymen entertained; but the royalty was substantial, and the authority absolute. "He declined to command armies, or preside in law courts; but higher works, such as imply equal control over the wills of men, the very works for which the nation chiefly hymned their Jehovah, he undertook in his name to do. He undertook to be the Father of an everlasting state, and the Legislator of a world-wide society." He assumed to be a person of transcendent greatness; he laid men under a personal obligation of loyalty; and on the ground of this loyalty he proceeded to form them into a society, and to promulgate an elaborate legislation, authoritatively delivered. In doing this he assumed the part of a Moses, and, "as he had no civil judges to enforce his legislation, he represented his unfaithful servants as being liable to prosecution before the tribunals of the invisible world." The details of this legislation are described in the twenty-four chapters which make up the second and larger part of this volume. We cannot touch on them now, but we can say honestly that his remarks on the Christian Republic, on the Christian as a Law to himself, on the Enthusiasm of Humanity or Positive Morality, and the Law of Philanthropy, Edification, Mercy, Resentment, and Forgiveness, show profound reflection and suggest grave thought. We meet with unwarrantable assumptions, as they seem to us, with forced interpretations, overstrained deductions, curious misconceptions; but we find also wise discrimination, penetrating sagacity, singular boldness, and a noble spirit. He is no mere moralist, no worshipper of the letter, even of the New Testament letter. He fully appreciates the difference between the age of Jesus and our own.

We are advanced by eighteen hundred years, he says, beyond the apostolic generation. "All the narrowing influences of that generation have ceased to operate." "The New Testament is not the Christian law: the precepts of apostles, the special commands of Christ, are not the Christian law. To make them such is to throw the Church back into that legal

* "Ecce Homo: A Survey of the Life and Work of Jesus Christ." Boston: Roberts Brothers. 12mo.

system from which Christ would have set it free. The Christian law is the spirit of Christ, that enthusiasm for humanity which he declared to be the source from which all right action flows. What it dictates and that alone is law for the Christian." Do the cautious say it is not safe to follow a mere enthusiasm? "If Christ is to be believed, it is not safe to follow anything else." Do some say that what is utterly absent from the New Testament cannot possibly be an important part of Christianity? "That is a great mistake, arising from a wide-spread paralysis of true Christian feeling in the modern Church."

The "Ecce Homo" has been ascribed to very high authorship. The name of Mr. William E. Gladstone has been mentioned in connection with it, on what authority we cannot tell. In point of intellectual ability it is worthy of any authorship. However defective and even perverse it may be in some particulars, it deserves to rank with the most remarkable books of this generation. It should be added that this volume contains only a portion of the author's studies on his general theme. Another volume on "Christ as the Creator of Modern Theology and Religion" is in preparation.

THE USURY LAWS.*

HALF Mr. Murray's volume is devoted to a sketch of the history of usury, or rather of the ideas regarding it, in vogue from the earliest ages to our own day. This forms, however, only an introduction to the latter half, which is devoted to an examination of the usury laws actually in force in the various States of the Union, and of the principles which govern the decision of cases in which these laws come into conflict. The chapter on the policy of the usury laws and their effect on commerce is composed mainly of a summing up of Bentham's famous essay, whose opinions our author shares.

The work may be useful even to lawyers, and by that great mass of readers whose information on economical questions comes mainly from the newspapers will be found both entertaining and instructive. Mr. Murray only claims for the book the merit of a good compilation, and he disarms criticism by an apology in his preface for the only feature of it with which fault can fairly be found, and that is the style, which is generally stiff and in some places clumsy.

We doubt whether his arguments against the usury laws will produce much impression on the class to whose influence these laws now in most States owe their existence—the farmers. This class in nearly every State holds the legislation in its hands, and for a variety of reasons cannot easily be brought to place money in the category to which modern economists assign it—a commodity, like any other. They are not in the habit of dealing in it as bankers and brokers and merchants are, and it has to them one characteristic which separates it in their eyes from all other articles of commerce, in being the only one which it is impossible to go without. Then again, most farmers are, in a certain sense, needy. They seldom possess much money. The rapidity with which the country has been settled, and the wide, and in many ways mischievous, diffusion over its surface which the agricultural population has undergone, leave vast numbers of them in possession of great crops, but without a market for them. The result is a very frequent recurrence of seasons of depression, when loans of money are an absolute necessity, and to propose to them to let money dealers at such crises have full swing amongst them would at present be useless. The "stay laws" so frequently resorted to in the West and South to retard the recovery of debts when due, but on which Mr. Murray has not touched, are in reality usury laws in their worst shape, being simply attempts to make the necessities or convenience of one of the parties to a bargain regulate the terms of the bargain.

THE GALAXY.

THE second number of the new magazine is a considerable improvement on the first, though we trust it is not yet by any means what it is to be. "The Claverings," of course, pursue the jog-trot tenor of their way. Rose Terry contributes an odd little Spanish song, "In the Hammock." The "March of the Cholera" is padding, containing nothing, except the preliminary reflections upon the pestilence, at all new. Professor Blot furnishes his second article on the "Art of Dining," but it hardly comes up to our expectations. On questions of cookery pure and simple his authority is not to be disputed, although he calls cookery a science, which he would not do if his ideas as to what science means were as clear as they might be; but on some points touching the digestion we shall venture to differ with him, by observing that it is not possible to lay down any rule as to the digestibility of things, constitutions differ so widely. Some people find nothing lighter or more grateful than cucumbers; to others they are little short of fatal. Therefore, the beverage which the professor recommends after soup and during the greater part of the dinner, composed of three parts water and one part wine, will probably not suit everybody. Whatever may be "known" as to the action of alcohol on the stomach, there are unquestionably large numbers of persons who find undiluted light wine the best dinner drink of all. "Archie Lovell" makes some progress. General Cluseret contributes a very interesting, but somewhat stilted, account of Victor Hugo's home at Guernsey. "Miss Clare" is another tale, but we must leave the lovers of fiction to find out what it is all about. The heavy article of the number is Miss Cobbe's "Fallacies of Memory," which is devoted to showing the utter untrustworthiness of all our records and of all our recollections of the past. The conclusion would be painful if it were not already tolerably familiar, and if the mass of mankind were not just as well pleased with fiction as with fact. "The Galaxy" must now "keep pegging away," as Mr. Lincoln said, and we shall only know six months hence what impression it has made.

Leighton Court. A Country-House Story. Henry Kingsley. (Ticknor & Fields, Boston.)—The scene of this brief story is an English country-house, and the actors are certain of the Devonshire nobility and gentry. Their business is a little flirtation, a good deal of love, with a view of matrimony, and the joining together of two respectable incomes; a little love that, followed far enough, may lead to the divorce court and damages; and, of course, some fox-hunting in a difficult country. In the background may be seen, by glimpses, both Houses of Parliament and the Indian mutiny. There is not an incident that has not long been worn threadbare, and all the characters are recognized as old acquaintances, unless we except Sir Harry, a madman, who dies of *angina pectoris*, after having been of the greatest service in tangling and disentangling the plot. The book was written in a hurry, and the author has made a novel not so ambitiously bad as the last one he wrote. He is slangy still, and too knowing, and he never was a thinker, and his effects do not spring from his causes any more than in old times, and his wit is only levity, and his humor an imitation that makes us uncertain whether to wish or not to wish for the originals of such copies; and it is true that one gets up from this, as from other Kingsley books, feeling that it is his blood and not his brain which the novelist has been addressing, or, at any rate, which has responded. But still the reader has much to be thankful for. We are spared all the cant of moral nobility, all the counterfeit fine sentiments that made us laugh a disgusted laugh over those Hillyars and Burtons. And the author's haste was not so great that he did not once in a while stay for a moment to exercise his old power. Not seldom he gives us a landscape, badly drawn, perhaps, but so that we feel the very air and see the sky and the green hills, the river, the ploughed land, and the full ditch.

The Field and Garden Vegetables of America. By Fearing Burr, Jr. (J. E. Tilton & Co., Boston.)—This volume is to the gardener what a manual of botany is to the botanist. It professes no more than to be "a manual or guide to assist in the identification and selection of varieties, rather than a treatise on cultivation." It contains short descriptions of over a thousand varieties of useful vegetables, with some notice of the proper soil and cultivation of the more important. The descriptions are in plain language, terse, and as satisfactory as the case will admit of. The preparation of such a work presents peculiar difficulties. Varieties are often separated by very slight differences, or are inconstant in their characters, or depend on local conditions, or are determined by such characters as can only be learned by actual observation, and cannot be well described in language; so that any attempt at description must be unsatisfactory. In this work the attempt has been unusually successful, and many of the more important varieties are illustrated by engravings from characteristic drawings by Sprague, who is, perhaps, the most successful as well as most eminent botanical draughtsman in this country. We could wish that these illustrations were more numerous, while some of the descriptions of varieties little cultivated or used might have been omitted without injuring the book. The plants are classified according to their uses, and while the botanical names are given, they are subordinate to the common English ones. The book is beautifully printed, is furnished with a good index, and is a valuable addition to our horticultural literature.

The Masquerade, and other Poems. By John Godfrey Saxe. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields.)—It is in one of Miss Edgeworth's novels, we believe, that a boy is warned of the great danger of setting up for a wit. In his devotion to small jokes, his mentor informs him, he will most likely fritter away his mind and at last discover that in "learning to trifle well" he has lost solidity of thought and depth of sentiment; like the grasshopper, while he does nothing but chirp, winter will overtake him, and be unprovided for. There are some jesting books which only illustrate this truism and tell melancholy truths of the jester; in which we get some notes of the summer merriment and more of the faint chirping of winter; in which the nipped sentimentality of the minor poet is seen side by side with the forced shallow wit that fostered its growth and did so much to prevent the growth of better things. In this book there is the facility of versification which is given by long practice, and there are some jokes that are very fair, and more that are rather pointless; one of the best is the author's way of winding up funny

* "The History of Usury from the Earliest Period to the Present Time, together with a Brief Statement of General Principles concerning the Conflict of the Laws in different States and Countries, and an Examination into the policy of Laws on Usury, and their Effect on Commerce." By J. B. C. Murray. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.

poems with morals, such as "Rely on yourself;" "Give a wide berth to a meddlesome man," etc. Perhaps the best piece in the book is "A mourner à la mode," and the poorest "Othello the Moor."

The Poetical Works of Thomas Hood. (G. P. Putnam; Hurd & Houghton, New York.)—This is a people's edition of the works of a very different genius from the foregoing. He never had the talent of coining his powers into a balance at his banker's, and the lot fell upon him of making jokes from day to day in order to get the day's dinner. It may have been because such a life was of necessity and not of choice that it produced in his case no worse effect upon his mind and soul. At any rate, after all his hard-working triviality and frivolity in the way of business, he was still good enough and great enough to utter such pleas for human misery as the "Bridge of Sighs" and the "Song of the Shirt," and to make a poem so delicate and so purely poetical as the "Fair Inez." This glory of being not only a poet but also a soldier in the great cause of humanity, he shares with another great wit who not long since was living. But it was in Heine's nature to break his heart because victory declared against him, and in Hood's rather because there was need of war. After his rare poetic power, his tender-heartedness and sweetness of temper are his chief charms, and the people do not forget these in reading even Hood's puns. There are two volumes in one in this edition, which makes the book seem rather thick in the hand, but in paper and print it is well adapted for its designated use.

The Works of the Rt. Hon. Edmund Burke. Revised edition. Vol. VI. (Little, Brown & Co., Boston.)—Of all the contents of the present volume of this excellent edition, the sketch of a negro code is the most curious for present study. It was originally devised by Burke in 1780, and was written out in its present shape for the Hon. Henry Dundas in 1792. It was one of the many futile attempts to cushion the imminent fall of a most atrocious traffic, and, later, of the system which fed it. Neither the abolitionists nor the West India planters were placated by them, and there was no recourse but to contend till one or other of the parties succumbed.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, April 27, 1866.

THE absurdities of the present style of dress among the least ugly half of creation were palpably brought out at last Sunday's races, the last of "the season." One fine lady wore an underskirt of bright pink silk, lavishly trimmed with *ruches* of black taffetas, the upper skirt, of black silk, entirely without folds, being as lavishly trimmed with pink. The head-dress which surmounted this rather striking pyramid (for it seems absurd to apply the word "bonnet" to anything so infinitesimal) consisted of a single vine-leaf of pink silk, laid flat on the top of the head, the said vine-leaf being edged with glass pendants, imitating dew-drops, and kept in its place by a pair of pink strings. Another rather striking toilette was of mauve silk, trimmed with cherry-colored velvet, the head-dress consisting of a few twigs twisted together and covered with the leaves, flowers, and fruit of the cherry-tree, and tied on, of course, with the orthodox pair of strings, the only feature now remaining of the "bonnet" of other days. The *coiffure* of another lady consisted of a "flat" of lilies of the valley, put on the summit of the head, and thence depending in long wreaths over the shoulders and half way down the back.

The last week has been crowded with soirées, concerts, and balls; one of the most brilliant being the magnificent entertainment given by the rich and pomp-loving old Duke de Larochefoucauld, who has just completed the repairing and beautifying of his grand old historic mansion, in the Rue de Varannes, and on this occasion exhibited to the *élite* of the Faubourg St. Germain the grandeur of his famous suite of drawing-rooms in the style of Louis XIV. The invitations had been issued for midnight, to allow the guests to dispose of the earlier part of the evening elsewhere, and the ladies were invited to wear powder. As the style of dress now in vogue is very similar to that worn at the French court in the days of the "Grand Monarque," the addition of powder completed the illusion, and gave to the salons in question almost the air of a *fête* of two hundred years ago. The grounds, brilliantly illuminated, offered the most charming perspectives through the wide, open windows; the terrace outside was bordered with a profusion of flowers. At four in the morning a splendid supper was served in the conservatory, whose walls were hidden by a hedge of magnificent camellias in full bloom. Green peas, asparagus, strawberries, cherries, and grapes figured in profusion on the tables, amidst the indescribable creations of artistic French cookery and the finest nectar of the well-stocked ducal cellar. Dancing was resumed after supper, and was kept up with unflagging spirit until eight o'clock.

The musical world is awaiting with much interest the appearance of Mercadante's new opera, "Virginia," about to be produced at Naples, whence it will be imported into this supreme "centre" of art judgment. Patti is going to London with a galaxy of other stars. Rossini has given two *soirées musicales* that have sent his guests into raptures; the first was ostensibly of Italian music, the second of French; at both various exquisite new compositions of his own were sung amidst the enthusiastic plaudits of all present, which plaudits the public is, unfortunately, not able to echo, the immortal *maestro* obstinately persisting in his thirty years' refusal to allow any new creations of his to be published.

Monsieur N. G. Bach, great grandson of the celebrated composer Sebastian Bach, one of the professors of the Paris Conservatoire, and for forty years past one of the most esteemed pianists of the capital, is just bringing out, under the auspices of Legouix, the well-known music publisher of the Boulevard Poissonnière, a song and a saraband which, according to his account of the matter, have come into his possession in the following singular manner:

According to this gentleman's statement, his son, M. Leon Bach, having discovered an old spinette, admirably carved, bought it and presented it to his father on the 4th of last May. After making a long examination of this interesting piece of antiquity, the father discovered on a board in the interior of the instrument an inscription stating that it was made at Rome, in April, 1564. He passed part of the day in contemplation of his precious spinette; he thought of it as he went to bed, and, having fallen asleep, he had the following dream: He thought that a man stood beside his bed, with a long beard, shoes rounded at the toes, and with large bows of ribbon at the instep; large, full breeches, a doublet with sashed sleeves, stiff collar, and a hat with pointed crown and broad brim. This person bowed to the musician, and said, "The spinette you possess belonged to me. It frequently served me to entertain my master, King Henry III. When he was young he composed an air with words which he was fond of singing, and which I frequently played to him. This air and these words he had composed in memory of a young lady that he once met in a hunt and of whom he became deeply enamored. She was taken away, and it is said that she was poisoned, and that the king was deeply distressed at her disappearance. Whenever he was sad he hummed this song, and then, to divert his mind, I played on my spinette a saraband of my composition, which he much loved. Thus I came to confound together these two pieces, for I was continually playing them one after the other." The speaker then appeared to approach the spinette, played a few notes by way of prelude, and sang the air with so much pathos and expression that M. Bach awoke in tears. He lit a candle, and looked at his watch; it was just two o'clock. He soon fell asleep again; but what was his astonishment, on awakening in the morning, to find on his bed a page of music-paper covered with notes, microscopically small and very fine writing. Being very near-sighted, he had great difficulty in deciphering them, even with the aid of his eye-glass.

He then tried the air on the spinette. The song, the words, and the saraband were exactly as he had heard them in his dream. M. Bach is no somnambulist and has never written a verse in his life. The song consists of three stanzas and a refrain, sweet, plaintive, and, in turn of expression as in orthography, exactly in accordance with the style in vogue in the reign of Henri III. The melody is simple, *naïve*, penetrating; and the style in which the music is written is as ancient as that of the spelling. The notes are of a different form from those of the present day, and the air is written in a different key from the bass, though intended for a man's voice. The three verses tell how the singer, "during the chase," seeing his lady love for the first time, thought he had seen an angel, and became the happiest of kings; how he would give "all his kingdom" to see her again for one instant; how, "sad and cloistered," his "pauvre belle" was far from him in her last days; and how, while "she no longer feels her cruel sorrow," he, "alas! suffers always." It is known that Henri III. had a great passion for Marie of Clèves, Marquise d'Isles, who died in a convent in the flower of her age, on the 15th October, 1574. Was she the "pauvre belle, triste et cloistrée," mentioned in these verses? It is also known that an Italian musician named Baltazarini went to France at that epoch, and became a favorite with the king. Did the spinette belong to Baltazarini? and was this the mysterious visitor who brought the song and the saraband to M. Bach?

It seems that Mlle Titiens, on her passage to Berlin and Hamburg, was induced to play four nights at Cologne. Though the prices were trebled the opera was crowded to suffocation, and numbers were unable to obtain admission. Many of those who were thus disappointed presented themselves at her hotel with a petition signed by over 7,000 persons, beautifully engrossed on parchment, together with a magnificent silver-gilt crown bearing the arms of Créfeld, Düsseldorf, Hanover, Minden, Essen, etc., begging her to visit each town for one evening only on her own terms. This, being engaged in London, she has been obliged to decline. At Cologne and Hamburg the great songstress has one-half of the total receipts, amounting frequently to 5,000 francs per night.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE MORAL OF THE MEMPHIS RIOTS.

THERE was one feature of the late riot at Memphis which is worthy of attention from its bearings upon the political status of the negroes. It appears by the more recent and trustworthy accounts of the affair that it began in an unsuccessful attempt made by the police to put a stop to the disorderly conduct of some negro soldiers. The row which followed was taken up by the citizens at large, and when renewed in the afternoon, after a short pause, it took the form of a general massacre of such of the colored population as showed themselves in the streets. This part of the tragedy appears to have been inconceivably brutal, but its brutality was, after all, not the most remarkable thing about it. Its most novel and most striking incident was, that the *police* headed the butchery, and roved round the town either in company with the white mob or singly, and occupied themselves in shooting down every colored person, of whatever sex, of whom they got a glimpse. In the half-organized attack made on the fort, also, the police were the principal assailants.

We are not going to furbish this occurrence up into an argument for the wholesale disfranchisement of the South, or for any greater severities against her white population than we are now inflicting upon them. Anybody who expects Southern whites and blacks to settle down into their true and just relations to each other without breaking one another's heads a good deal, knows little either of history or human nature. There will prevail at the South for a long time to come a good deal of envy, hatred, and malice towards the colored population, and they will show themselves in riots and outrages more or less flagrant. What was peculiar about the Memphis riot was that the officers of the law, the very persons on whom the colored population will have to rely for protection as soon as the troops are withdrawn, took a leading part in it, and we have very little doubt that, were any similar outburst of popular prejudice to take place to-morrow in any other town in the South, the local police, if they interfered at all, would interfere in the same way. "They would stand by their race," as Mr. James T. Brady once said, in a speech before the war, when Northern Democrats were trembling lest the Southern blacks should break loose, come North, and eat them all up. The negro would, when pursued by a mob, avoid "the guardians of the public peace" as vigilantly as he would any of the pack at his heels. We grant that under the State law and under the Federal law he would have his remedy against all his assailants. He could sue them either civilly or criminally, or both, for assault and battery, or assault and false imprisonment, or for a felonious assault. If his house was burnt or his furniture damaged by a popular rising, he could sue the county for damages. He might get a verdict, and he might not. We will suppose that he would; but which of us would live in any community where this was our main reliance for protection against mob violence? Which of us would keep our families in a town in which not only we were objects of popular odium, but in which, if an attempt were made to mob us, we might expect to see the policeman who patrolled our street taking the first pop at us with his revolver, or the sheriff of the county heading a party charged with the duty of ramming in our front door?

When the Freedmen's Bureau bill and the civil rights bill were first talked of, one of the strongest arguments used against them by their opponents was that they were unnecessary, that "the laws of political economy" would eventually secure protection for the negroes from their white neighbors themselves without any interference on the part of the Federal Government. No matter how much their old masters might dislike them, the necessity of employing them, of relying on them for prosperity and comfort, would sooner or later make the relations of the two races, if not cordial, at least amicable. The negro had only to wait a little and all would be right by-and-by. We always thought there was something in this argument, but we nevertheless always considered it a most ridiculous argument when addressed to the blacks themselves. It was substantially this: "Your white neighbors are at present greatly incensed against you. They consider you the cause of all their troubles, and look upon themselves as having been robbed of your services. Therefore, for some time to come, they will probably maltreat you a good deal. They will most likely rob and murder you frequently; and more frequently they will flog you and deny you justice in the courts. Your house will, probably, be burnt now and then, and you will be driven from one part of the country to the other by mobs. But you must not mind this. They will get over their feelings toward you after a while, and get used to seeing you free, and then they will most likely let you alone, or at least not annoy you so much. The laws of political economy are all working for you, and you know whenever you want to travel abroad you can have a United States passport. In the meantime pay your taxes regularly, and put your trust in Providence. The Federal Government can do nothing else for you." The negro might very naturally reply that he cared nothing for the laws of political economy; that what he wanted was the protection of the Government to which he paid his taxes and owed his allegiance; that very likely the whites would get used to him after a while and let him alone, and, whenever that time came, of course he would not need any protection. But that it is precisely at those periods of a man's life when his neighbors do n't like him, and want to attack him, that governments and police are needed, and that for any government to announce that it could do nothing at these crises was to destroy its sole claim on his fidelity.

This gap has been stopped by the civil rights bill. It forces the State either to protect its own colored population or let the Federal authorities do it. But the riot at Memphis reveals another gap which no legislative enactment can stop that does not in some way make the officers of the law responsible to those for whose protection they are appointed. We may rely upon it that the municipal authorities at Memphis would take good care that their police did not head anti-negro mobs, if negro opinion were of the slightest importance at election time. And officers of the law, whether State or Federal, will never, in our opinion, in any part of the South feel as they ought to feel, that the colored population are under the law, as long as that population has nothing to do with their appointment. We are here putting forward no new doctrine. There is not a State in the Union which does not recognize it in its constitution. In none of them is a right of action considered sufficient for a man's security; in none of them is any white citizen asked to rely on the conscientiousness of the governor, or of the mayor, or of the sheriff for protection against fraud or violence. Each man is in all of them armed with the right to help to turn the governor, or sheriff, or mayor, out of office if he does not do his duty. It may be said that resident aliens and women do not possess this right, and yet enjoy reasonable security. But if the population hated aliens as in China or Japan, or as the negroes are hated at the South, they would not enjoy reasonable security without the protection of their own governments, and it is happily still the custom for white men to consider to some extent, at least, the griefs and wrongs of white women as their own.

In a country in which officers are not chosen by the popular vote the idea of responsibility to the public is, of course, weak. Each official thinks of what his superior will say rather than of what the community will say, and the exclusion of any particular class from the franchise there of course makes little, if any, difference, in official eyes, between its claims to protection and those of voters. But our officials are all accustomed by long usage to consider themselves the servants of the voting population, and to look to it for reward and punishment, and the exclusion of a man from its ranks, therefore, inevitably weakens the official respect for his rights.

What has happened at Memphis is but a fair sample of scenes which we may often expect to witness at the South as soon as the Federal troops cease to do police duty. In our opinion nobody will suffer so little from these outrages as the negroes themselves. The killing of a few men or the sacking of a few houses is, after all, comparatively a small matter; but the spectacle of the officers of the law either looking quietly on at such outrages, or aiding and abetting in them, is a great matter. It was the utter loss of all respect for individual rights which

pro-slavery mobs were allowed to work at the South before the rebellion which made the rebellion possible, and there is no part of the Union which is not concerned now in having every man everywhere armed with every means of protecting himself with which legislation can supply him.

OUR SYSTEM OF LEGISLATION.

The Legislature of this State, at its last session, hastily passed an act imposing a tax of one-half to one per cent. upon the gross amount of all brokers and auctioneers' sales of foreign merchandise. Nobody among the classes affected by this enactment heard or suspected of the pendency of any such measure until it had passed into a law, and the Legislature had adjourned. There is not the least reason to doubt that the Legislature passed the bill, and the governor signed it, without at all comprehending its effect. There is a very general and very absurd prejudice against brokers, which is fostered by the discreditable attacks of the press upon "middlemen" and "speculators," and when a draft of this bill was sent up to Albany, as it undoubtedly was by some outsider, the honorable member to whom it was entrusted congratulated himself, we dare say, upon the happy thought of making these obnoxious classes pay handsomely towards the expenses of the State. Such a trifle as three-quarters of one per cent. would surely not be felt by these men, rolling in wealth, as brokers are universally supposed to be. Probably the only doubt that troubled the minds of the majority was, whether they were justified in making the tax so small.

Yet the fact is, that no broker receives more than one per cent. on his sales, while the heaviest business is done for one-half, and a very large business at one-quarter of one per cent. This law, therefore, is equivalent to an income tax of from fifty to three hundred per cent. on the *gross receipts* of brokers in foreign merchandise. This is not taxation—it is confiscation.

Only one thing was left for the Legislature to do, in order that it might reach the climax of absurdity, and that thing was done, if we may rely upon the version of the law which we have seen. The bill did not state, it is said, the object to which the tax is to be applied, and is, therefore, unconstitutional. The Legislature has thus obtained for itself all the discredit of passing an odious measure without really succeeding in raising a penny of income for the State.

We leave to other journals the office of denouncing the members of the Legislature for their individual action, and of insinuating that their motives were corrupt. We do not ourselves place the least faith in such charges. There is no reason to believe that a single member of the Legislature fully comprehended the nature and consequences of the bill. If the minority had done so, they would surely have notified some of the New York brokers of its character. It is almost impossible to conceive of any corrupt motive for the passage of such a measure, applying, as it does, to all dealers of a certain class. The idea, broached in a certain paper which kept two correspondents at Albany last winter, neither of whom had brains enough to expose this bill before its passage, that Boston or Philadelphia merchants devised it as a means for ruining the trade of this city, is too ridiculous to need comment. Men of business do not go into such long-headed schemes of villainy in the vague hope of picking up a few grains of prosperity out of their neighbors' ruin.

The obvious fact is, that this gigantic blunder, involving a tax of millions of dollars, is the fruit of ignorance and haste. The moral to be drawn from it is, that our system of legislation needs reform, so as to secure to it those elements of accuracy, forethought, and deliberation which it now lacks altogether. And the first requisite to such a reform appears to us to be the establishment of a permanent council of legislation, as suggested by John Stuart Mill and others.

This council should, of course, have no legislative powers. It should not have the right of originating or rejecting laws. But every project of a law should be referred to it to be put into proper shape. It should report every measure back to the legislature, reduced to simple and grammatical language, conformed to a uniform standard of legislative style. It should suggest to the legislature the superfluity of clauses which reiterate old law, and the objectionableness of clauses which contravene natural justice; but should nevertheless report them back for the final action of the legislature. It should prepare and publish daily, through the session, an abstract of the measures introduced. The legislature should not be allowed to pass any measure without first submitting it to this council, although it should have power to require a report by a certain day.

This council being permanent, the legislature might, and doubtless often would, refer to it bills of great length, to be reported upon at a subsequent session. Such large undertakings as the Political, Civil, and Penal Code, for example, will always be too much for a single session of the legislature, so long as the members feel bound to examine every line with their own eyes, and to judge of each with their own minds. But after such bills had been thoroughly examined and revised by a council, such as we have described, no sensible legislator would hesitate, having made up his mind upon the general principles involved, to vote in reliance upon the judgment of the council in respect to matters of detail.

The council might, perhaps, be allowed to go further, and to point out, through the governor or by direct report, such statutes as had become obsolete or incongruous with the existing state of affairs, for repeal by the legislature. Such suggestions are of a different nature from projects of new affirmative action, which we should not think it expedient for the council as such to propose, lest the jealousy of the legislature should be excited, and the usefulness of the council be marred in its primary work as a revising body.

There seems to be little doubt that a constitutional convention will be held in this State in 1867. We broach this subject thus early for the purpose of giving time for discussion, and of impressing our convictions upon the public mind at a time when its sense of wrong may awaken in it some interest in those abstract questions which are so unpalatable to business men in general, though of tremendous importance in their practical results.

BETROTHED ANEW.

The sunlight fills the trembling air
And balmy days their guerdons bring;
The Earth again is young and fair,
And amorous with musky Spring.

The golden nurslings of the May
In splendor strew the spangled green,
And hues of tender beauty play,
Entangled where the willows lean.

Mark how the rippled currents flow:
What lustres on the meadows lie!
And hark, the songsters come and go,
And trill between the earth and sky.

Who told us that the years had fled
Or borne afar our blissful youth?
Such joys are all about us spread;
We know the whisper was not truth.

The birds, that break from grass and grove,
Sing every carol that they sung
When first our veins were rich with love,
And May her mantle round us flung.

O fresh-lit dawn! immortal life!
O Earth's betrothal, sweet and true,
With whose delights our souls are rife
And aye their vernal vows renew!

Then, darling, walk with me this morn:
Let your brown tresses drink its sheen;
These violets, within them worn,
Of floral fays shall make you queen.

What though there comes a time of pain
When autumn winds forebode decay;
The days of love are born again,
That fabled time is far away!

And never seemed the land so fair
As now, nor birds such notes to sing,
Since first within your shining hair
I wove the blossoms of the Spring.

Edmund C. Stedman.

TOWN AND COUNTRY ABROAD AND AT HOME.

THAT the Liberal party in France is strongest in the great centres of population was manifested the other day by the electoral vote of the first district of the Lower Rhine, which returned M. de Bussierre to the Corps Législatif over M. Laboulaye. In the city of Strasburg the defeated candidate received a clear majority of two-thirds of the suffrages, while in the rural localities he was unable to make even a respectable opposition. Thus, in the canton of Geispolsheim, he polled but 441 out of 4,493 votes, and nowhere else but in the suburbs more than one vote in five. The journals which had espoused the losing side accounted without difficulty for their disappointment. In the country, they said, political education was less advanced; material interests were dominant; secondary considerations, like the origin of M. Laboulaye, who did not spring from Alsace, had greater weight; and, more than all, the landed proprietors and the administration could more easily control the action of the inhabitants. And what is true in this respect of the Bas-Rhin is true also of the other departments of France, although the elections from Lille to the Pyrenees exhibit a significant increase of anti-Cæsarism. And as in France, so in Europe, not excluding England, where reform is native to the large manufacturing towns, whether its object be a repeal of the corn laws or an extension of the franchise. On the Continent it is the cities which inaugurate revolution. If Berlin were Prussia, the state would not endure for a day a prime minister who overrides the constitution and a king who sanctions his lawlessness. In Italy, Florence and Turin, not Barletta, reflect public sentiment concerning the Roman question.

We ought not to be surprised that Europeans, in criticising the affairs of this country, should transfer to us the situation in which they find themselves. However widely they may err in their geographical notions, they have a general comprehension of the rank of our chief cities, and not unnaturally, perhaps inevitably, regard them as the oracles of the nation. We who live very close to that august body, the Board of Aldermen of New York, have rather a contemptuous appreciation of its character and utterances; yet when it was telegraphed abroad that the Board had approved the President's veto of the Freedmen's Bureau bill, we cannot doubt that a good many minds were deluded as to the popular leaning in the controversy to which that veto gave rise. And, still more recently, when news came that the Senate had passed again and finally the civil rights bill, in spite of the Executive, it was added as a sort of offset, that "a great popular meeting held in Washington resolved to sustain the policy of the President." In these two instances the commercial and political capitals of the United States obtained a deference to which they were by no means entitled.

Nevertheless, here as on the Continent, the real national life is in the cities. The highest activity of the people is displayed in them, and away from them is to be out of the world. They foster the best modes of education, the only learned societies, the greatest variety of amusements; the colleges pay tribute to them; their press strikes the key-note of all public discussions, and more than all else moulds public opinion. They carry to perfection the mutual contact of mind with mind, and stimulate competition to the utmost. Their opportunities attract the talents of every quarter; their necessities spur invention to its loftiest achievements, and drain the resources of a wide and ever-widening area. The growth of the largest of them proves that our civilization is not exempt from the Old World tendency to crowd together in metropolises—a tendency which we have scarcely begun to recognize, and which gives rise to such problems as model houses, underground railways, new sewerages, new piers, new parks, etc., etc. To be sure, the country has not yet sent up a cry like that which agricultural France makes heard in Paris, saying that the cities are sucking the rich pulp of the farming districts, which every year grow more barren and unattractive. It points to the superior speculative inducements of the cities, whose extravagant "improvements," involving municipal loans and lotteries, impoverish the country by withdrawing its capital. Labor follows in the wake of capital. In the ten years ending 1861, three million peasants were transformed into citizens; in fifteen years the movement affected 27 per cent. of the population and enhanced prices 39 per cent. Conscription for the annual contingent of 100,000 men to supply the army converted a large number of laborers into idlers, and created in them a distaste for rural life. On the other hand, the natural increase has not sufficed for these displacements, which are not much aggravated by emigration to foreign parts—the ten or fifteen thousand emigrants per annum being largely balanced by the accession of strangers. With the exception of a standing army, it is evident that the relation of the country to the cities does not differ greatly here from that existing in France, and that the resemblance may, hereafter, be much more complete than it is now. During the war, in fact, we endured both a patriotic and an enforced draft on the ranks of our cultivators, so that no unfavorable condition of the parallel is wanting. But we had then, and have constantly, such a tide of immigration that our vacancies, ordinary and extraordinary, are filled and more; and, as was especially conspicuous during the past five years, our agricultural machinery is equal to the most trying depletion of hands from our fields and prairies.

How, then, is it that the liberal forces of the United States find not, of course, their leaders, but their main support, in the country? that revolutions are brought about in spite of the cities, by steadfast appeals to the public conscience that dwells outside of them? that the cities alone call in doubt the practicability of a republican form of government, and require to be ruled and restrained from without, now by a metropolitan police, now by park commissioners, now by a board of health? How did it happen that before the war the cities were almost unanimously on the side of the most evil power on the continent? We say before the war, for the statement would be untrue since that terrible dispensation. Yet, though the majority has either been diminished or become the minority, the relative distribution of the once dominant party probably remains about the same; so that a recent French tourist in America, writing of the state of feeling consequent upon the veto of the Bureau bill, wisely distrusted the noisy manifestations of the cities, and remarked: "It was not yet known what the country people thought, attached, as they had long been [*de longue date*] to the republican polity, and generally faithful to the radicals."

The conservatism of our cities, as contrasted with the liberalism of those of despotic Europe, is to be accounted for, at bottom, by the difference in the prevailing forms of government on the one part and on the other. The paradox is one not likely to please the enemies of democracy any more than its friends; but while Prévost-Paradol complains that the vote of Strasburg is swamped in the vote of the rural cantons, and calls for a change in the mode of representation, it is the standing peril of New York State that her chief port may swamp her country towns at the polls. In other words, universal suffrage, tempered by absolutism, makes the country formidable; unmixed universal suffrage the cities. The explanation is not difficult. So long as our great national abuse clothed itself decently in republican forms, deferring to the decisions of the ballot-box, ever appealing to the letter of the Constitution, assuming the air of a victim whose rights were outraged at the moment when it was planning fresh assaults upon the liberties of the nation; so long as it was content with this rôle, it counted its adherents in proportion to the offices at its command. In the absence of palpable tyranny, it was natural that men should incline to the party which was uppermost, and which promised them political preferment; and it happened that the cities contained the most ambitious office-seekers and the best material for demagogues. Not that one found greater bigotry, or even greater ignorance, in the city than in the country—in degree. Away from the lines of travel, in places which the mail reaches infrequently, in districts too sparsely settled for good or regular schooling, exists all over the North a nearly hopeless class of illiterate, unreasoning, unconvertible "sovereigns," whose vote must ever be for retrogression or (what is the same thing) the *status quo*. But it was the peculiar lot of the cities, especially on the seaboard, to be the sieves of foreign immigration. In them the paupers, the infirm, and those whose aims and intelligence were as feeble as their means, lodged by the mere force of gravity, and could get no farther. The thrifty—one might say, considering the astounding aggregate of small savings brought to our shores by these people, the well-to-do—and those whose knowledge of a craft or of agriculture rendered them independent as to a choice of residence, moved on, sooner or later, to reinforce the industry and virtue of the country—to redeem Missouri or Texas to freedom. The dregs that remained, from time to time were sifted into the stream of our politics, till its native color was utterly lost; and the monarchist, looking with delight at the turbid overflow, exclaimed: "Behold the failure of democracy!"

Trade, too, has played here as selfish a part as it is wont everywhere. Besides the temptation to support the party of slavery for the salaries it could dispense, the system itself was considered inseparable from our commercial prosperity—a grave economical delusion, but none the less popular till the crash came. This secured the vote of Wall Street for principles which wool-growing, agricultural Vermont repudiated once and always. Cotton-spinning Lowell and General Butler have undergone conversion together. Before the rebellion both saw eye to eye, and in their sight slavery had rights and the spirit of the age had none. To that spirit, we believe, the cities need no longer be united in antagonism. Free hereafter to neutralize by every educational appliance the foreign admixture they are long doomed to experience, they may make themselves illustrious as the laboratories of mankind—the best and speediest elevators of the most degraded of our race.

SOLOMON ANDREWS'S FLYING SHIP.

WHOEVER walks down Houston street nowadays is compelled to notice on the corner of Greene Street a rough board fence of remarkable height, and so closely made as to be proof against the eyes of the most curious. If nothing else calls his attention to it, the group of vagabond boys will be enough, as they hang about the entrance and stare at a singular engraving; or perhaps, no policeman being present, furtively fling a stone, or a sharp-edged oyster shell, over the top of the wall. Within the mysterious enclosure is the flying vessel—the ship which can sail a hundred and fifty miles an hour, which easily sails dead against the wind, which discards steam and coal and engines, and for a motive-power relies on the attraction of gravitation, which is to supersede railway trains and steamboats as a means of travelling by sea and land, which can cross the ocean in less than three days; which, if you build it of metal, and that can be done without the smallest trouble, will become available not only for the conveyance of passengers, but also for the transportation of the heaviest and bulkiest merchandise. It is the aerial ship, the aereon "General Schenck," which is to do all this, which is to more than realize Dr. Darwin's predictions, which is to prove that Tennyson's airy navies grappling in the central blue are not only a possibility, but a probability, and may, at any time when governments shall choose, become a fact. Already, in New York, a company is in existence, with president and directors, and subscribed capital, and an office in Walker Street, which intends at once to fix upon routes of aerial navigation between our great cities, and construct aerial vessels for conveying passengers and freight, and which, as we have seen, has already built one ship that is now floating at anchor in Houston Street. Her, within ten days, shall we not all see as she comes sailing down town at no great distance above our heads, tacking and filling, ascending and descending, going with the wind and against it, visiting any part of the city as the helmsman may direct, and, at the end of the voyage, coming into harbor on the exact spot from which she set out?

The payment of a dollar admits you to a close inspection of this wonder. Going in from the level of the street, one finds before him the site of some building that has been utterly destroyed by fire. The rubbish has been mostly cleared away, and he descends by a flight of many steps to what was once the cellar floor. The neighbors of the burnt building still remain; so the visitor, when he gets to the bottom of the steps, is at the bottom of a great square pit, the sides of which are either lofty brick walls, or, if the walls are low at any place, the wooden fence is seen surmounting them. There is sand under foot and a strong smell of gas around, and high above, balanced in the air, the ship itself, a great buff-colored cloud, with a network of cords around it, strains at the ropes that hold it down, and casts a shadow over the sand.

She is a balloon, not round like a ball but elongated, and at each end running to a sharp point. As the ship is now lying, these beaks, her prow and stern, point toward the horizon, and it is not intended that they shall ever point up and down toward the zenith and the nadir. From end to end her length is eighty-six feet, and her diameter from side to side at the point of greatest width is forty-two feet. In shape she would look much like an Indian's bark canoe, supposing the top of the canoe to be closed as the bottom is, if it were not for a leather strap which, passing from the bow, goes underneath the vessel to the stern and then is carried along the top to the bow again. As the balloon swells against this band, there is created a longitudinal depression extending the whole length of the vessel, and like the cavity made when two cylinders are laid side by side, and this depression can be created at the captain's will. Its capacity is 66,000 cubic feet, and the material of which it is made is very heavy pongee silk. As you look up, a portrait of General Scott, in colors once gaudy but now faded, stares down from the forward part of the balloon, and on the after part there is a General McClellan, for the inventor of the flying ship, in building it, has used the material of two old army balloons, and has adapted it to its present use with characteristic ingenuity. The lower half, say, of each balloon was left whole, the upper part from zenith to equator was cut as an orange peel is cut, then, by fitting these saw-toothed ends into each other, a balloon was obtained new in shape and cheap in cost. Underneath the balloon is a narrow, wicker-work car, twelve feet long, secured by many ropes.

"Characteristic ingenuity" we said, and these are words that may well enough be applied to the man who invented the famous Hobbs lock; who invented the lock which is used in the United States mail service; who, at the request of his oyster-selling townsmen, that they might be relieved from the yoke of the Connecticut keg-makers, invented machinery by which a Jerseyman may make his own oyster-kegs, and at the rate of a hundred a day; who has invented very many other things beside, so that even the pipe which he held in his mouth while he talked with us about the air-ship was constructed on a principle entirely new.

It is upon the shape of the vessel, he explained to us, that everything depends. Fill a round balloon with gas and it ascends, don't it? Goes up vertically. Throw out ballast, it rises higher; let gas escape, it sinks; but it has no forward motion. You 've seen it *drift*, you mean; go hither and thither with the currents. It has no motion of its own except the vertical; no momentum, no motion relatively to the medium in which it floats. But now if you fill with gas a long, broad-backed, sharp-pointed balloon, a balloon so shaped that vertical motion will be very hard for it, will be greatly resisted, what will happen then? How will such a balloon go up? It will ascend, in the direction of the line of least resistance. That stands to reason; its the only way it can go. It will go up just as you 've seen a half-sheet of paper fall; you 've seen it a thousand times; it falls in a slanting direction; it does not drop perpendicularly to the ground, but follows the line of least resistance for a body of that shape. This air-ship is so shaped that when it 's started at an angle of so many degrees with the plane of the horizon to rise into the air, and the ballast is so placed as to keep her bow at the proper angle, she must necessarily rise not vertically but in a slanting direction. She keeps on rising, going forward, you see, by virtue of the slant, and goes up perhaps two miles. In going that high, she has gained so many miles horizontally—perhaps more, perhaps less, according to the wind. The wind will be sometimes with the ship, sometimes against it, and in the average there is neither gain nor loss by it. Having reached a height of two miles, say, the balloon's bow is pointed downward. That is very easily done by sliding a certain portion of ballast to a certain distance from the centre of the car, so as to give the axis of the balloon the proper inclination. Then gas is allowed to escape, and the descent begins. It will be just like the ascent, the line of least resistance will be followed, and in going down so many miles—two, for instance—so many miles of forward movement will be made. Having approached near enough to the ground, another ascent will be made, and then another descent, and so on, till by a succession of tacks, as the sailors say—only in aerial navigation the tacks will be up and down instead of being from side to side—the end of the journey will be reached.

Let the wind blow as hard as it likes; imagine, if you please, that it blows hard enough to carry a globular balloon backward, or sideways, or anyway, at the rate of fifty miles an hour, in the case of a ship balloon nothing would be easier than to guide it by the rudder, and give it an ascending motion which would carry it forward in an hour sixty miles of horizontal distance, and thus you beat the wind ten miles.

We were assured that almost any conceivable speed of upward or downward motion could be imparted to the ship, and that the utmost effect of a storm of wind would be to retard her motion and not to prevent it wholly. A tornado could hardly do that; and in general the action of wind would be so little troublesome or dangerous that it might be disregarded. It would only be necessary in boisterous voyages to expend more ballast and more gas in tacking more frequently and keeping up a greater rate of speed.

Steering? There would be no trouble about that. A drifting balloon could not be steered, but once get momentum and steering follows as a matter of course. What did Professor Henry say in his report to Stanton about the flying ship that was offered to the Government in 1864? He said: "Dr. Andrews has also fully illustrated the fact to the commission that his aerial vessel while passing through the air can be steered. This fact, however, might have been inferred as a corollary from the fact of the transmission, since the direction of a body relative to the medium through which it is moving must evidently be changed if the resistance on one side is made greater or less than that on the other."

There would be no difficulty, either, in making the passengers comfortable. It would be but a very little while before the passenger by aereon would have a sleeping berth or a state-room more luxurious, a better opportunity for getting his meals, and be in all respects better cared for, than the passenger by rail or by steamboat. No mode of travelling would be able to compare with aerial navigation in point of speed, and by and by it must be incomparably cheaper than any other method of transportation. There would be no roads to build, no tracks to lay, no lands to buy, nothing to pay for but the balloon itself and the gas to fill it. In the presence of this ardent benefactor of the race, we none of us suggested what nevertheless of course occurred to us, that in cases of accident the Aerial Navigation Company will have no bills to pay—no hush money for trifling injuries to arms and legs. All accidents will be fatal. It is true that passengers by aereon may have human relatives and ties to bind them to earth. But even in that case what surviving friends can hope success in suing these gigantic corporations? The speaker went on: the cost of the necessary gas was much greater at present than it would be hereafter. Undoubtedly a balloon could be made of copper (copper can be made nearly as thin

as gold leaf), and then the greater part of the original charge of gas would last for an indefinite period, as there would be no leakage whatever, and no gas would be lost except the quantity that might be allowed to escape in the descents. Of course it would not be possible to keep going any longer than gas and ballast hold out; but no more could a locomotive keep going any longer than fuel and water hold out. The ship would be able to stop regularly and lay in a supply of gas and sand. The cheapness of the motive power would be an immense advantage. Nothing could be cheaper than gravitation! When the model was on exhibition in Washington an army officer walked into the room and enquired, What's the motor, sir? Gravitation, sir. He turned round and walked out without saying one word. But simple and plain as the invention seemed, no invention that had ever been made would appear greater in the results of its practical application than this of the flying ship. It would revolutionize all travel and all transportation; its effects would be felt in every field of activity; indeed it was the greatest invention of the century, if not the greatest that had ever been made in the whole history of the race.

This account of the new conveyance is pretty nearly the same that the inventor will doubtless give gladly to any visitor of small knowledge in aerostation. For our own part, being in that category, we may confess that we almost half believed, and we fully hoped, that the coming trial-trip may be successful, and that this marvel may speedily go into that class of scientific miracles which daily repetition makes commonplace. The list is a long one of those romantic wonders to which, after science has killed them, science gives again a sort of galvanized life; and what finer revival of the prince's carpet could be asked than that a piece of pongee silk should carry us to Europe through the upper air?

THE POPULAR INDULGENCE OF MORAL CENSORSHIP.

Let a man set up for a judge of dress and equipage, of dinners and domestic architecture; let him put himself forward at all conspicuously as an *arbiter elegantium* and an authority in upper-tendom, and see what a swarm of hornets he will raise about his ears! Him the daily papers, him the weekly ditto, him the illustrated monthlies, will abuse. Let him take a higher flight and attempt to communicate to the public his foreign experience in matters of art, or guide it in the appreciation of our home performances; his unpopularity will be more limited, but none the less intense. Or suppose that his tastes are literary instead of artistic, and that he exerts himself to aid in the formation of a higher standard of literary criticism; his attempts to expose ignorance and correct bad taste will be attributed to envy, self-conceit—any motive but a good one. The political student may be inclined to attribute all this to the social workings of democracy. The people, it may be said, being all equal in theory, and to a great extent equal in practice, cannot brook dictation or the appearance of dictation on any subject from one of themselves. Indeed, it has been often charged against democracy by its enemies, and sometimes admitted by its friends, that on this very account it is unfavorable to the thorough pursuit and development of any high specialty.

But if we turn our eyes to another quarter we behold an equally marked indulgence for the self-constituted lecturer. Any person that can put together passably grammatical sentences in a tolerably flowing style, may set up for a moral reformer, or at least a moral essayist. It seems to be at once the easiest and the most popular form of declamation and platitude. It seems to be quite within the province and ability of any respectable American man or woman to advise his or her fellows on the greater and the lesser ethics. Monkeys in a menagerie have been observed at feeding-time to steal one another's provender, instead of being content each with his own, causing thereby no small waste of nutriment; and, in like manner, those of our population who take an interest in ethical questions appear bent on correcting their neighbors, possibly with a corresponding waste of morals.

Now, the first thing that strikes us here is a startling inconsistency. If there is anything that requires special preparation and study, if there is anything for which we won't say an average man or woman, but a man or woman considerably above the average, taken at random, is not fit, it is lecturing on ethics. Any person, of fair natural presence and a disposition not essentially vulgar, may qualify himself for a small Pelham or amateur master of the ceremonies by a few years' residence abroad, limiting his "abroad" to a very few places. Art criticism is capable of being made something very magnificent, but the ordinary run of it does not demand any very intense course of study. If the critic has as much aptitude for art as would have sufficed to make him a respectable third or fourth-rate artist, and as much leisure as will enable him to read the standard manuals and turn himself loose for a season in some good foreign gallery, he may acquit himself tolerably in his vocation. Literary criticism demands something more. To make a reviewer worth the name, one should have a good liberal education and be somewhat of a scholar. Yet the warmest friends of literary criticism (and we profess to be among them) could not fairly ask more for it than that it should be put on a level with ethical. For, of a truth, ethical criticism, to possess any value, demands a very thorough and elaborate preparation on the critic's part. He need not be a theologian—perhaps, on some accounts, he is better for not being one—but he should have some (and more than a little) *historical* knowledge of theology. His direct subject he should have studied historically, geographically, and metaphysically. Among other little trifles of which he should be master is political economy; for there are some real and many apparent conflicts between the principles of the two sciences, and it is a nice matter to reconcile them or decide which must yield to the other. Finally, he should have a fair share of social knowledge and practical experience among various sorts of people, else will he be as likely to blunder as an engineer or mechanician who has only studied pure mathematics. A professor of *casuistry*—as some of the old European universities still call moral philosophy—ought to be one of the first men in the country; and the amateur dabbler in the business ought first to make sure that he possesses *some* extra qualifications for the task. Take, for instance, the extent and limits of the connection between public and private morality. Say how far there is danger to individual morals from the political corruption of this State; or the success of certain scandalous journals, a fact so difficult to account for by natural causes that we know perfectly sane and well-educated men who seriously attribute it to direct diabolical agency. These are problems calculated to tax to their utmost the learning and intellect of the student and philosopher; and it is but fair to add that our volunteer casuists generally fight shy of them. But take the pet theme of extravagance, especially female extravagance; how much rubbish is printed about it every day!

We suspect that a good deal of our lay preaching is due to emulation of the professional performances in the same field. If a minister may lecture his congregation on their duties at least once a Sunday, why may not some of the congregation try their hand on week-days? Because there are many salient differences in the two cases. First, the majority of sermons are not printed. Then the day is properly devoted to the theme. However commonplace it may seem to tell the people week after week that *virtus est bona res*, yet while there are so many ready to insinuate, if not openly to assert, that *vitium est melior res*, it is well that poor Virtue should have a day to herself. Above all, the mere position of the preacher as pastor of his flock involves the assumption that he is qualified to give them advice on ethical matters. Though his original specialty be that of theologian, yet in all well-regulated communities he has a co-ordinate (for we will not allow it to be a subordinate) specialty, that of moralist. Therefore, while a goodly part of our pulpit discourses in most denominations will always be doctrinal, it is but right that about an equal number should be moral. It is part of the preacher's business that they should be.

Do we, then, conclude that none but preachers and professors should open their mouths and their pens on moral subjects? By no means; these questions should be largely treated of in our press, but sceptically rather than didactically—in other words, by discussion rather than by homily. Any newspaper article on a moral theme, if it is not published merely as "padding," or for the less innocent purpose of making a sensation, may do good, inasmuch as it provokes argument from correspondents and contemporaries, and causes the subject to be presented in various lights. Our objection is to those essayists and lecturers who, on the strength of a little superficial smartness and plausibility of style, affect to speak *ex cathedra* on all matters coming under the broad head of morals, from the minor courtesies of life up to transcendental ethics.

Fine Arts.

THE FORTY-FIRST EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

[SECOND NOTICE.]

Mr. G. C. Lambdin has a picture in the North Gallery, No. 196, which is very pleasant to see. It is not only the best picture by him that we have seen, it is free from faults which have disfigured others, and is good in some ways in which his work has often been deficient. It is very simple in subject: a little girl who has skated all the way home from school, and has fallen asleep in an arm-chair; she is all dressed in her red and black out-of-door dress, her skates hang on the arm of the chair, and her strapped books and one of her red gloves have fallen at her feet. And this little picture

very unpretending, undoubtedly a portrait, expressing no sentiment but the simplest, having sufficient technical merit to pass with credit the competitive examination of this exhibition, is a picture of a certain importance. It is a success in that it is in all respects what it was intended to be. This is much less completely true of the two other pictures by Mr. Lambdin, No. 388, "Compensation," and No. 415, "At the Front." These pictures, and especially the former, are of a sort which are nothing if not expressional. But Mr. Lambdin has chosen quiet attitude and absolutely no gesture that can speak, and he has as yet shown no power to paint an expressive face, a face full of emotion. The sentiment of "Compensation" is healthy and true enough; the same young officer who, two years ago, in a companion picture was having his sword consecrated with kisses, is at home, recovering from wounds; he sits in his invalid's chair by the open window, and looks lovingly at the young lady who kissed the sword and is now standing by the window side. It is a great deal better work than the former one. But to save such a picture from the limbo of the commonplace, there is needed either great power of conception of the scene and the characters, or else such singular technical excellence as makes Meissonier, for instance, an artist of deserved fame. The scene Mr. Lambdin has wished to paint is one wholly worth representing; but the question about the scene as represented will be whether the story is forcibly, truly, exhaustively told, as well as whether it is worth telling at all. There are myriads of modern love poems very poor, although the people who wrote them had truly loved, and were in earnest when the songs were written. There is one Browning found to write fifty, all good; one Béranger to write hundreds, all good. You may be a much better man than Béranger, and love much more purely and lastingly, and not be able to write quite so well about love. Nor is it any disgrace not to have the golden gift, nor any trouble if one is not trying too hard to get it, nor deluding himself into the belief that he has got it. All of which has this application: that Mr. Lambdin, with all his evident rightness of feeling and gentleness of nature, has hitherto wholly failed to paint truly poetical pictures, until he tried a very simple order of poetry in his story about the tired little girl, and succeeded. It is his success in this that seems to promise that he will succeed in other and higher themes. But his execution must be greatly improved, and the smeary look of his pictures once for all changed. Nothing important is gained by his present system of laying color, and much is lost. In this, indeed, as in other respects, the first-named picture is better than others. The little girl's head is painted with a certain decision not often seen in Mr. Lambdin's work; but the carved chair and the screen, which Willems would have delighted to paint accurately and minutely, Mr. Lambdin does not seem to like well enough to let us see them plainly.

Mr. W. J. Hennessy's picture, "Drifting," No. 375, affords much material for thought, and will leave his critics speculating and wondering over questions which will not be answered until next fall's or next spring's pictures come to answer them. What has he had in view in his recent work? What good thing is he seeking? We think it is doing him only justice to assume that he has some very definite end in view. This picture is unusually large for him, is a beautiful composition, very delicate in its lines, very refined in much of the drawing; it is painted almost entirely in shadowless color, all concern with the monster chiaro-scuro being abandoned; yes, Mr. Hennessy is in pursuit of something. Whether that something is attainment of real strength of color and design—perhaps in out of the way developments—or whether it is only imitation of certain tendencies of some modern European artists we might name, time only will show. Meantime "Drifting" is a very pleasant canvas to study, though hardly a finished picture, we think. No. 305, "In Memoriam," is of much less value. The larger picture was enough to have sent this year; a sufficient indication of the good things which it tells us are to come.

Mr. S. J. Guy is one of our very few figure painters of any merit, and at every exhibition we look for his pictures with hope—hope that they will give signs of steady progress and of real excellence at last. This is not always gratified. It seems, indeed, that the painters who are ahead of him now are progressing faster than he. But, as he sends only one little picture this year, and never more than two or three, all very small, it may well be that he does work of which the world knows nothing; of which, if something should be better than what he exhibits, it would not be surprising. No. 243, "The Alphabet," is not one of those pictures which are best worth study.

We do not remember pictures by Mr. M. Lander before, but his water-color drawing, "Interruption," No. 102, shows a certain rapid skill and a very unusual dexterity in the use of water-color. The subject is nothing, but it is probable that Mr. Lander can draw, and perhaps there will be more of his work to be seen hereafter.

There are, despite of the hanging committee, some representatives of that class of figure pictures which a beholder may laugh at or mourn over, as he thinks them the more amusing or discouraging. Mr. Stearns, for instance is an academician, an officer of the Academy, as the catalogue sets forth. His picture called "The Studio," No. 261, indicates no advance beyond the stage of pupilage. There is worse work than this; there are several degrees or stages below it; but this remains wholly without value. It is accurately to be described as beginners' work. His life-size portrait with peach-tree, last year, bad as it was, was better than this. The picture is hung on the line, having fairly beaten the hanging committee, whose victory on the line this year is not complete.

Mr. Fritz Meyer has six works on exhibition; two of these are partially of figure subjects; both are worthy of severer reprobation than critical writing ought to lend itself to. The proper award for such work is simply rejection and forgetfulness, and the latter would be assured by the painter's rapidly growing disgust with his work.

Mr. G. W. Flag has touched bottom in his picture "The Suspicious Note," No. 108. Neither this nor those last before mentioned are proper subjects for criticism, but are beyond its bounds, needing, as we have said, rejection and oblivion only.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

Nation Office, Monday Evening,
May 14, 1866.

The news from Europe to May 3 is the most alarming that we have received for some time. In two days the French funds had fallen 5 per cent., and the panic on the London Stock Exchange was the most severe that had been known since 1857. The Bank of England had advanced the rate to 7 per cent. Cotton had fallen to 14d., and in all the markets there was an eager wish to sell at any prices. Five-twenties were down to 68 to 68½; Erie to 49½ to 50; Illinois Central to 78 to 78½. It is taken for granted that so widespread an alarm must have been caused by private but well authenticated news of the probable intervention of France and Italy in the German dispute, and of the imminence of a general European war.

This country will participate less than heretofore in foreign monetary disturbances to be caused by a European war, for the reason that we are trading on a currency which is not the currency of Europe. A monetary panic in England need not involve a monetary panic here. At the same time we shall not altogether escape the effects of the European troubles. It must be expected that considerable parcels of 5-20 bonds, Erie, and other American securities will come here for sale; that the foreign enquiry for our cotton, breadstuffs, and produce will be checked; and that, in consequence, heavy shipments of gold will be made to the other side. In anticipation of these changes sterling bills have to-day advanced to 109⅝, and gold to 130⅝. Gold would rise still higher but for the apprehension of sales by Government. Mr. McCulloch is in a position to throw fifteen millions on the market in the event of a speculative movement for the rise. A further decline in cotton would seem probable, as even at present prices it cannot be shipped except at a heavy loss. Breadstuffs are not moving at all. Indeed, so disproportionately high is the price here that we have been receiving from France some flour which has paid a very fair profit to the importers.

Money continues very easy. Call loans are 4 to 5 per cent; first-class short paper, 5 to 6. No one seems to anticipate any advance in the rate of interest at present, unless the department should withdraw the deposits from the national banks. The investigation into the Merchants' National Bank, at Washington, reveals scandalous looseness in the administration of the public finances. It would seem that the heaviest deposits of public money were made after the insolvency of the bank was acknowledged.

The stock market continues very dull, but firm. New clique movements have been inaugurated in Pittsburgh, Michigan Southern, and Illinois Central. The last mentioned stock can now be imported at a profit of ten per cent., but, as the road is doing well, there is better reason for the advance than in the case of the former stocks. The Erie earnings for April show a falling off of $385,000 as compared with last year; should the decline in traffic continue, the summer dividend will be out of the question. There is a profit of 5 per cent. on the importation of Erie, and it will probably come here in considerable amounts. This morning, on the foreign news, it fell to 72⅜; it has since recovered 1 per cent. of the decline. Central is dull and steady. Rock Island, which is now selling dividend off, has been as high as 96½ and as low as 94⅜. The stock and debt of the concern will now stand at about $17,000,000, as against $9,000,000 before the purchase of the Mississippi and Missouri road. Whether the earnings will increase in proportion remains to be seen. Among speculators the prevailing theory is that the ease of money is sure, sooner or later, to generate a speculation which will be quite independent of intrinsic values. In Governments, 7.30s are strong and higher.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 7.	May 10.	May 14.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	109	109⅛	109	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds, old	102	102	101⅞	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	102	102	....	...
10-40 Bonds	95⅞	95⅞	96	⅛	....
7.30 Notes, second series	101⅛	102⅛	102⅛	⅜	....
New York Central	92⅛	92⅛	92¼	....	¼
Erie Railway	73⅛	73¾	73⅝	....	⅛
Hudson River	110⅛	109¾	109⅝	....	¼
Reading Railroad	107⅛	107⅛	107⅛	⅜	....
Michigan Southern	78	78¾	80	1⅝	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	82	82¾	84⅛	1⅛	....
Chicago and North-western	29⅛	29⅛	28¾	....	⅜
" " " Preferred	61	60¼	59	....	1¼
Chicago and Rock Island	125	95¾ ex. d	94¼	....	1¼
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	100	99¼	99	....	¼
Canton	58⅛	58⅛	61	2⅛	....
Cumberland	44¾	45	45¼	¼	....
Mariposa	13	12¾	12¾	....	....
American Gold	128¾	129⅛	130¼	1⅛	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109¼	109⅛	109⅝	⅛	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, THURSDAY EVENING, MAY 17, 1866. NO. 49

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Topics of the Day.

WE see no particular fault to find with the President's third veto message, except that he rather gratuitously puts forth by implication the fallacy that the States whose loyalty compelled them to be the Union can now have no right to exercise the powers inherent in the completed Union. It cannot properly be objected to the message, that it is an exercise of the veto power in a case where no fundamental principle is concerned. Aside from the fact that fundamental principles of right are threatened when party expediency is suffered to work injustice to the nation at large, the President would certainly have been derelict if he had allowed for no perceptible good reason the admission of Colorado to all the heavy burdens and all the great privileges of a State, while her population is so insignificant in number and so very doubtfully desirous of discarding the territorial government. The message, with the exception of the last clause, is candid and dignified in tone, and there is hardly a doubt that it will be sustained in Congress.

JEFFERSON DAVIS has been indicted for acts of treason committed in Richmond in June, 1864, and, though the Chief-Justice seems to have hardly got over his hesitation, the trial will in all probability soon take place. As far as Davis himself is concerned, it will probably prove a farce. He is said to have received the news of his indictment with joy, which was probably caused one-third by the prospect of a change in his situation and two-thirds by confidence that he would be acquitted. We have no idea that Mr. Johnson expects or desires him to be punished. That holy horror of treason and traitors which shed a lurid light on the first fortnight of the President's administration died out long ago, and its place has been taken by a mild desire to have the possibility of committing any such crime as treason tested before a court, and to get rid of Davis somehow. There is probably just as little doubt in the public mind now as there was two years ago that Davis did commit treason, but the number of those who care whether he is punished for it or not has probably diminished one-half.

IT will be very strange if we do not eventually get at the truth in the matter of the Memphis riot, concerning which some one who has kept account reckons that seven independent commissions, civil and military, local and national, black and white, have been ordered. Mr. Washburne, who serves on the House Committee of Investigation, was also, if we mistake not, a member of the one which enquired into the Fort Pillow massacre—another beauty-spot on Western Tennessee. The case is not receiving a whit more attention than it deserves. Nothing can be more impressive not only to the guilty parties, but to that large population in the South whose hatred of the negro only lacks an opportunity to be converted into violence, than to see such an extraordinary "fuss" made over "niggers." When the idea is once fairly apprehended that the Government means protection for all classes of its citizens, there will be a very sensible diminution of colored persons killed, colored churches and colored school-houses burned, at the South. There can, in our minds, be no sounder policy for the Government than to treat every such occurrence as of extraordinary importance. Half of them are due to the prevailing Southern impression that they are insignificant.

THE "excentric" head-centre Stephens had his ovation at Jones's Wood on Tuesday. His speech was a review of the origin and progress of Fenianism, and of the circumstances of his call to be its authoritative leader. He had the franknes to acknowledge that he never had received much pecuniary aid from this country, in spite of the two or three visits he had made here and of the fine promises which he had reaped so abundantly on each occasion. He was even sincerely sorry that the stay-at-home Fenians had not trusted to their own resources entirely, and had ever looked to America for anything whatever. But he was of the opinion that if, while he was in prison—"the time of our greatest power in Ireland"—a small force, "or even a few superior officers, with the necessary war material," had been sent to Ireland, it would be an independent country to-day. Except this confident statement there was very little brag on the part of Mr. Stephens, and not much else in his remarks that was noticeable. We have before expressed our hope that Fenianism might really do something for Ireland by weakening the influence of the priesthood; and on this point Mr. Stephens was very explicit. He said that the Fenian oath had been devised "to make the people distinguish between the two-fold character of the priests and clergymen of all classes," and while owing them obedience and devotion in their spiritual character, "in their temporal character simply to look on them as citizens." "Without this training," he added, and we believe him, "you never could have a force in Ireland on which you could rely."

THE cholera makes no progress here, but on the Continent it is awakening from its torpor, and the same class of German emigrants who brought it to us are endangering England. The steamship *Helvetia*, from Liverpool for New York, put back just after leaving Queenstown, on account of the breaking out of the disease on board. The passengers have been put in strict quarantine, and it is reported that German immigration, *via* England, will be prohibited by Government.

IT is an agreeable novelty to see in our city streets commodious drays loaded not as once with heaps of prostrate, agonized calves on their way to slaughter, but with the animals all standing and, as far as may be, enjoying themselves. The change, as every one knows, is due to the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, whose very existence guarantees greater humanity in the transportation of stock as

well as in the everyday treatment of the horse. A few wholesome prosecutions answer for an advertisement, and the effect sought after ensues. We wish the society would abolish the first of May in behalf of man and beast alike, though we have noticed that the teamster is never so careful of his team as on moving-day, and that if he can possibly make five loads out of three he is sure to accomplish it.

We get from Richmond more important news than that Davis is to be tried there. One of the old Virginia dreams, that somewhere near the mouth of the James a great city was sure to spring up, at last seems not unlikely to be realized. It is not to be at Norfolk, however, but at Newport News. From that harbor to Cincinnati the distance is shorter by one hundred and ninety-three miles than from Cincinnati to Baltimore, and two hundred miles shorter than from Cincinnati to New York. Travel along this line is not affected by the inclemency of winter. Money has been provided by Northern capitalists, and within three years the Covington and Ohio Railroad is to be built, and the chain of communication completed by short links between Richmond and Lynchburg and Richmond and the coast. A French company has deposited $3,000,000 with the State government as security for the completion of the James River and Kanawha Canal. Thus the new rival of New York is to be connected with the great West by the shortest railway and the best line of water communication; and Virginia, which under the old system literally manured the ground above her iron mines with rich plumbago ore, in order that tobacco might be cultivated by slave labor, under a new system may yet become the greatest of States.

Colorado was named in the list of territories whose acts of organization have just been amended. As the latest step taken by Congress towards universal suffrage, and as a contrast with its previous action in regard to Colorado, a portion of the new bill will be read with interest. The ninth section provides that in none of the nine Territories shall there be denial of the elective franchise to any citizen because of his race or color. Mr. Le Blond, of Ohio, did not believe that Congress had any power to interfere with the rights of suffrage of the citizens in the Territories, but the bill passed by a vote of 79 to 43, many Unionists not being present when the vote was taken.

The general impression in Europe, in the first week of this month, was that war was imminent. The Prussian Government had issued a circular despatch to its foreign representatives, explaining that the negotiations on the question of disarmament had led to no result, on account of Austria's warlike preparations in Venetia, and casting upon that empire the full responsibility for whatever might ensue. Accordingly, Prussia was making great preparations in the districts adjoining Saxony, threatening, as it seemed, an advance into that kingdom; and the immediate mobilization of the whole Prussian army was daily looked for. The Austrian armaments, in Venetia, Bohemia, Moravia, and Western Galicia, were equally pushed forward with great vigor. According to a telegram from Prague, all portable church property, as well as the valuables of the ex-Emperor Ferdinand, had been removed from that city to Vienna. Great excitement prevailed in Venetia; the proclamation of a state of siege in that province was expected. Gen. Benedek was regarded as the future Austrian commander-in-chief. The Italian Government had concluded a new loan of 250,000,000 lire with the National Bank of Italy. The war fever ran high throughout the peninsula. Still, both the Italian and Austrian Governments continued to make public assurances of their determination to abstain from aggressive movements. To this course the French minister, Rouher, declared Italy to be pledged, upon persuasion of the French cabinet. The same statesman summed up, in the Corps Législatif, the intentions of his own Government in the following "three words: a pacific policy; loyal neutrality; complete liberty of action." M. Thiers, in a long speech, attacked this policy as too lenient towards Italy, in which Jules Favre disagreed with him. The Paris Bourse was agitated by a kind of panic. There was some talk of a European congress, as well as of mediations by England and Russia, but without a reassuring effect.

CONGRESS.

Washington, May 16, 1866.

The veto message of the President (number three) rejecting the bill for the admission of Colorado is received with the greatest equanimity by Congress. There is a highly influential minority of the Republicans opposed to any admission of these petty Territories on grounds of principle. And the few thorough-paced partisans who desired the admission of Colorado to make votes in the Senate, are estopped from defending it on that ground by the already overwhelming majority, to say nothing of higher considerations.

The House makes steady progress with the tax bill, and will leave the reconstruction issues to the Senate for a fortnight to come.

The decision of the Senate, after a week's strenuous argument, to leave the quarantine arrangements of the States against the cholera undisturbed, merely authorizing the Secretary of the Treasury to use the national authority to act "in aid of State or municipal regulations," was a surrender of the champions of high Federal powers which was unlooked for.

DIARY.

May 14.—In the Senate, the bill to prevent smuggling was discussed and amended.

In the House, the Judiciary Committee were instructed to report on the expediency of abrogating the laws making the tenure of office dependent on the appointing power. A select committee of three was appointed—yeas, 87; nays, 22—to investigate the late riots at Memphis (Tenn.), and report the facts to the House. Mr Chanler, of N. Y., offered a resolution lauding the President for defending the country by his veto power "against the wicked and revolutionary acts of a few malignant and mischievous men." The House refused to consider the resolution—yeas, 19; nays, 84. Mr. Schenck offered a resolution of censure upon Mr. Chanler for offering a gross insult to the House. Adopted—yeas, 72; nays, 30. The internal tax bill was debated and amended.

May 15.—In the Senate, a bill to authorize an additional assistant secretary of the navy was passed. Also, a bill fixing the time and place for holding the U. S. Circuit Court for the Virginia district, at Richmond, in May and November. The House joint resolution to prevent the introduction of cholera was amended and passed—yeas, 27; nays, 12. A message was received from the President returning, with objections, the bill for the admission of Colorado to the Union. A bill to prevent smuggling was passed.

In the House, the bills of the Joint Committee on Reconstruction, to declare certain persons ineligible to office, and to restore States late in insurrection to full political rights, were postponed two weeks. A bill to amend the organic acts under which the Territories of the U. S. are organized was passed, the House refusing—yeas, 36; nays, 75—to strike out a section prohibiting any denial of the elective franchise on the ground of color. The tax bill was further debated and amended.

THE FREEDMEN.

Freedmen's schools are in successful operation in fifteen large cities of Alabama, and in them more than 10,500 pupils are taught. In some of the white churches colored children are taught under the superintendency of the pastors. At Demopolis the citizens have contributed of their funds to aid in the erection of a school-house for colored people. At Tuskegee the mayor of the city has charge of a large colored Sunday-school.

The Georgia school reports for the month of April give 71 schools, 103 teachers, and 6,991 pupils; showing an increase, since January, of 9 schools, 15 teachers, and 422 pupils. From the 1st to the 30th of April the attendance in Macon increased 314, and in Columbus 307; while in Savannah it ran down from 1,759 in March to 1,369 in April. The schools are in thirty-two different localities—36 of them with 61 teachers and 4,969 pupils being in the cities of Savannah, Augusta, Atlanta, Macon, and Columbus. In nine places, during the month, the freed people paid $498 to the cause of education, $213 of which were paid in support of private schools in Augusta. About twenty-five schools are supported exclusively by the freed people and the others by Northern societies. All are doing well, and many of them are of the highest order, both in progress and discipline.

—The March returns of the health of the freedmen show a slight increase of sickness over the preceding month, but a smaller percentage of deaths. Virginia and the Carolinas are very sickly at present, and small-pox particularly is gaining ground. This disease is noted as being rare in the Gulf States. There were treated in February 318 refugees; in March, 534. The deaths among them are much fewer in proportion to those treated than among the freedmen.

Notes.

LITERARY.

MATTHEW ARNOLD has lately published three papers on "The Study of Celtic Literature" which are among the best things that he has written, being excellent specimens of intelligent and judicial criticism, and containing, in small space, a deal of curious and interesting matter. As regards Celtic literature, he occupies a middle ground, avoiding the mistaken enthusiasm of those who find all the traditions of past ages therein, chief among whom must be reckoned the Rev. Edward Davies, the author of "The Mythology and Rites of the British Druids," and the over-critical scepticism of those who find it little but a mass of imaginative rubbish of a comparatively recent date. Speaking of one department of Celtic literature, that of the Welsh, he states, on the authority of one who is no friend to its high pretensions, that "the Myvyrian manuscripts alone, now deposited in the British Museum, amount to forty-seven volumes of poetry, of various sizes, containing about 4,700 pieces of poetry, in 16,000 pages, besides about 2,000 englynion or epigrammatic stanzas. There are also in the same collection fifty-three volumes of prose, or about 15,300 pages, containing a great many curious documents on various subjects. Besides these, which were purchased of the widow of the celebrated Owen Jones, the editor of the 'Myvyrian Archæology,' there are a vast number of collections of Welsh manuscripts in London and in the libraries of the gentry of the principalities." Mr. Arnold pays a few words of tribute to the memory of Owen Jones, a Denbighshire peasant, who went up to London a young man of nineteen, and worked as a furrier there for forty years, the chief aim of his life being to collect and give publicity to his country's literature—an object which he accomplished at the commencement of the present century by the publication of his "Myvyrian Archæology"—a noble work, with all its imperfections. The stock of Irish literature, printed and unprinted, is, if anything, larger than that of Welsh, and the work of cataloguing and describing it has been admirably performed, Mr. Arnold says, by Mr. Eugene O'Curry, a remarkable man, who died the other day. An idea of its extent may be gathered from his lectures, which were delivered at the Catholic University in Dublin, and in which he states that the great vellum manuscript books belonging to Trinity College, Dublin, and the Royal Irish Academy, have between them matter enough to fill 11,400 closely printed quarto pages; that other vellum manuscripts in the library of Trinity College have matter enough to fill 8,200 pages more; and that the paper manuscripts of Trinity College and the Royal Irish Academy together would fill 30,000 such pages more. Mr. Arnold gives the names of some of these works, as the "Book of the Dun Cow," the "Book of Leinster," the "Book of Ballymote," the "Speckled Book," the "Book of Lecain," the "Yellow Book of Lecain," the "Féliré of Angus the Culdee," and the "Annals of the Four Masters," which last gives "the years of foundations and destructions of churches and castles, the obituaries of remarkable persons, the inaugurations of kings, the battles of chiefs, the contests of clans, the ages of bards, abbots, bishops, etc." O'Curry relates a story of the effect produced on Moore, the poet, who had undertaken to write a history of Ireland (a task for which, as Mr. Arnold justly observes, he was unfit), by the contemplation of an old Irish manuscript. "In the year 1839," says O'Curry, "during one of his last visits to the land of his birth, he, in company with his old and attached friend Dr. Petrie, favored me with an unexpected visit at the Royal Irish Academy. I was at that period employed on the 'Ordnance Survey of Ireland,' and at the time of his visit happened to have before me on my desk the 'Books of Ballymote and Lecain,' the 'Speckled Book,' the 'Annals of the Four Masters,' and many other ancient books, for historical research and reference. I had never before seen Moore, and after a brief introduction and explanation of the nature of my occupation by Dr. Petrie, and seeing the formidable array of so many dark and time-worn volumes by which I was surrounded, he looked a little disconcerted, but after a while picked up courage to open the 'Book of Ballymote' and ask what it was. Dr. Petrie and myself then entered into a short explanation of the history and character of the books then present as well as of ancient Gaedhelic documents in general. Moore listened with great attention, alternately scanning the books and myself, and then asked me, in a serious tone, if I understood them, and how I had learned to do so. Having satisfied him on these points, he turned to Dr. Petrie and said: 'Petrie, these huge tomes could not have been written by fools or for any foolish purpose. I never knew anything about them before, and I had no right to have undertaken the 'History of Ireland.'" And from that day, adds Mr. Arnold, Moore, it is said, lost all heart for going on with his "History of Ireland," and it was by the importunity of the publishers which induced him to bring out the remaining volume. Mr. Arnold enters upon the question of the antiquity of the most noted specimens of Welsh literature, which are claimed to have been the product of the sixth century, but which their ablest disparager, Nash, would put down some six centuries later, and argues for the former date, giving some pretty conclusive reasons for so doing. He quotes in support of his position the singular tale of "Kilhwch and Olwen," from Lady Guest's translation of the "Mabinogion," almost every page of which, he thinks, points to traditions and personages of the most remote antiquity. "The very first thing that strikes one," he remarks, "in reading the 'Mabinogion,' is how evidently the mediæval story-teller is pillaging an antiquity of which he does not fully possess the secret; he is like a peasant building his hut on the site of Halicarnassus or Ephesus; he builds, but what he builds is full of materials of which he knows not the history, or knows by a glimmering tradition merely; stones 'not of this building,' but of an older architecture, greater, cunninger, more majestical. In the mediæval stories of no Latin or Teutonic people does this strike one as in those of the Welsh."

—M. Feuillet de Conches has addressed a note to the editor of the "Athenæum" in reference to the letters of Marie Antoinette, which were published last year by M. d'Hunolstein, to whom he was said to have sold the forged manuscripts, and the charges brought against him by the *Allgemeine Zeitung* in connection therewith, and with some forged letters of Racine, the substance of which we gave a week or two since. M. Feuillet contradicts the statement of the German paper; from the first paragraph to the last there is not one word of truth in it. As regards the letters of Marie Antoinette, he knew nothing of them until they were published. The history of the Racine letters is a pure invention. The story of the blank leaves said to be missing from autographs of the last century, in the Imperial Library, the abstraction of which is laid to his door, he declares to be another invention; he not only never consulted any documents of that period, his researches extending only in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, but the documents in question were never mutilated. Nor was there ever anything like a reclamation made, either against himself or anybody else, as is proved by the official communication of the Minister of the Interior. What his anonymous German accuser will say to all this remains to be seen. For the letters of Marie Antoinette, which lie at the bottom of this controversy, M. Louis Blanc, who ought to be a good judge of the matter, affirms that he is not surprised that their authenticity is questioned, and that he feels bound to say that, after having paid due attention to the controversy to which they have given rise, he is most decidedly under the impression that they are *not* genuine.

—It is well enough, perhaps, to keep a diary, if one is so inclined (Dr. Johnson, indeed, recommends the practice), but not many diaries will bear reading a few years after they are written, and not one in five hundred, no matter who the writers of them may be, will bear printing. Take the diary of Byron, for instance—it is little but a careless jotting down of his crude reflections on the men he met and the books he skimmed, the whole abounding, as some one has said, with the strong expletives with which draymen favor their horses. We learn from Moore's diary that he frittered away his time at breakfasts and evening parties; that he took ices at Tortoni's; and that, once in a while, "dear Bessie" was remembered. The diaries of statesmen ought to be better, one would think, keeping in mind the superior gravity of their occupations, but they are not—being, if anything, more trifling and jejune. One of these mistaken performances, "The Diary of the Right Hon. W. Windham," has lately been published; why, it is not easy to say, since it contains so little that is interesting. Windham was a noted man in his day, a speaker in Parliament, a cabinet minister, and what not besides; his contemporaries christened him "the finest gentleman of the age, the ingenious, the chivalrous, the high-souled Windham;" and Pitt declared his speeches to be the "finest productions possible of warm imagination and fancy." Windham, however, had a much less exalted opinion of himself, for mentioning one of his speeches, which was considered a capital performance, he adds: "There is not a speech of mine which in comparison of one of Francis's would, either for language or matter, bear examination for one moment; yet about my performances in that way a great fuss is made, while of his nobody speaks a word." Windham's diary is crowded with the names of celebrated persons, about whom, however, he tells us nothing, tantalizing us by such mentions as, "Dined with Sheridan; present Fox, Parr, Grey, Lord Grenville, etc." Burke's rejection of the friendship of Fox is entered thus: "Committee. Fatal day of rupture with Burke! I had gone down earlier in consequence of note from Wilberforce, and did not return home from the Committee, but got some soup with Francis at the Spring Garden Coffee House. It was latish before the House broke up." Burke at one time is "peevish and impatient," at another he makes an

'intemperate attack" on Windham for some trifling difference of opinion. Windham admired and respected Burke, however, especially after the publication of his "Reflections on the French Revolution," of which he wrote, "One would think that the author of such a work would be called to the government of his country by the combined voice of every man in it. What shall be said of this state of things when it is remembered that the writer is a man decried, persecuted, and proscribed; not being much valued even by his own party, and by half the nation considered as little better than an ingenious madman?" An odd trait in Windham's character was his love for what is rather dubiously called "the manly art," his diary containing references to fourteen or fifteen different prize-fights. On one occasion he left before the last battle was over to be in time for the House; on another he goes to see Cribb fight Gregson, and returns to town not to practice with his master, as Byron would have done, nor to lose his money at cards, as Fox would have done, but—to commence a treatise on Negative Signs! Windham was reverently attached to Dr. Johnson, of whom we have but a glimpse in his diary, as Johnson died in the year in which it was begun. He visited Johnson on his death-bed, and tried to persuade him to take some sustenance. "I then said I hoped he would forgive my earnestness, or something to that effect; when he replied eagerly, that 'from me nothing would be necessary by way of apology,' adding with great fervor, in words which I shall (I hope) never forget, 'God bless you, my dear Windham, through Jesus Christ,' and concluding with a wish that we might meet in some humble portion of that happiness which God might finally vouchsafe to repentant sinners. These were the last words I ever heard him speak. I hurried out of the room with tears in my eyes." This passage, and a brief account of his interview with Burke two days before the death of the latter, are by far the best things in Windham's rambling and meagre diary.

—The study of Sanskrit, which is on the increase in England, has not resulted there in as many poetical translations from that language as might have been expected, the most notable so far being Horace Hayman Wilson's "Cloud-Messenger" of *Kalidasa*, his collection of Hindu dramas, Monier Williams's version of *Kalidasa's* "Sakuntala" (with the metrical parts rendered into English verse), and Dean Milman's translation of the episode of Nala and Damayanti in the "Mahábhárata," the substance of which was woven into a unique story by an American writer, and published in one of the early volumes of "Putnam's Magazine." To this scanty store of translations may now be added a volume of "Idyls from the Sanskrit," by Ralph T. H. Griffith, principal of the Sanskrit College, Benares, the aforesaid idyls being translations of passages from each of the great Sanskrit epics, the "Rámáyana," the "Mahábhárata," the "Raghuvansa," the "Kumára-Sambhava," and the "Ritu-sanhára." Faithful to the spirit of Sanskrit poetry, which in the main is long-drawn and wearisome, Mr. Griffith's translations will not be found attractive by the general reader, although not without value to the lovers of curious lore. The best thing in his volume—a description of the rainy season in Hindustan—is almost perfect of its kind, being as dainty a lyric, in the Elizabethan sense, as one could wish.

SCIENTIFIC.

Animal Grafts.—The possibility of engrafting one part of a living animal on another portion of the same animal, has long been recognized as a physiological fact, and underlies the whole practice of "plastic surgery." A lost nose or an unsightly opening in the face may be, in a great degree, remedied, at least as far as appearances go, by such an operation. But in these cases the old connections are not wholly destroyed until the new ones are established. The skin out of which the substitute for a nose is made is allowed to retain an attachment to, and derive nourishment from, the forehead until it forms a union with the parts with which it has been newly brought in contact, and only then its old connections, becoming unnecessary, are divided. Completely severed fingers sometimes unite when carefully brought together, and teeth which have been knocked wholly out will re-unite with their sockets when replaced. Individual tissues, as parts of a muscle, nerve, etc., have been from time to time transferred from one animal to another, where they have formed an organic union and lived.

The recent experiments of Bert in grafting, more than eighty in number, and for which he has received a prize from the Academy of Sciences in Paris, are the most complete hitherto recorded, and some of his results show a greater persistence of life in separated parts than had been previously supposed possible. They consisted chiefly in transplanting the tail, or other parts, of one animal into or beneath the skin, or into the cavity of the abdomen, of the same or of another animal. The following will serve to illustrate the nature as well as some of the results of Bert's observations. The tail of a rat was cut off, a portion of its end was deprived of its skin, and then inserted into an opening on the back and secured in place; a complete adhesion of the parts followed, and the tail was sufficiently nourished in its new position. In another case a piece of tail 2.5 centimetres long, from which the skin had been removed, was inserted under the skin of another rat, so as to be completely covered in; the wound soon healed. Two months afterwards, by manipulating through the skin, one of the vertebræ of the transplanted part was fractured; about three months from the beginning of the experiment the rat was killed, and the fragment of tail had not only formed an organic union with the surrounding parts, but had grown from 2·5 to 9 centimetres in length, and the fractured portions had united, showing that its life was fully maintained. In like manner, the foot of one rat, from which the skin had been removed, was inserted under the skin of another, where it formed a union and increased considerably in size.

The following experiment has an important bearing on the physiology of nerves, since it adds another fact in evidence that nerves are more indifferent as conductors than has generally been supposed. The prevailing view has been that sensitive nerves only conduct impressions inwards to the nervous centres, and motor nerves from the centres outwards. The curious experiment of Vulpian, though as yet it has not been often repeated, tends to show that this is not true. He divided the motor and sensitive nerves of the tongue, and, crossing them, united the ends of the first with those of the second. After the union was complete he was able to excite muscular contractions by stimulating the sensitive nerve, which readily transmitted impressions made upon it to the motor nerve. It will be seen that in this case the sensitive nerve acted in a direction opposite to that in which it ordinarily acts. Bert engrafted the tip of a cat's tail into her back, and, after the union was completed, severed it at its base, so that it then hung from its tip and received its nourishment in a direction the reverse of the natural one. The sensibility of the tail was at first destroyed, but at length returned after a union had been formed between its nerves and those of the body. When it was pinched she defended herself in the usual way. Here, too, the nerve transmitted its impressions in a direction the reverse of the natural one, the tail having been turned end for end.

The time for which a part may retain its vitality after being separated from the body was also investigated, and, if Bert's observations are to be trusted, is much longer than has been supposed hitherto. Two young rats had each a piece of its own tail four centimetres long, and an equal piece of the tail of another and adult rat, engrafted into its body, after the parts had been detached from their living connections for twenty-four hours; during this interval the parts were kept in a glass tube inverted over water. They formed a union in their new places, and the immature tails increased in size. Successful grafts were made in other cases after the separation had lasted in one instance for twenty-six hours, in another three days, and in another eight days, the respective tails being enclosed during these periods in tightly corked tubes, and kept at a moderate temperature. He has shown by a series of experiments that the maintenance of a steady and moderate temperature during the period of separation is important. In parts kept at a temperature of from 50° to 54° F. the vitality persisted for several days; at 68° for seventeen hours; and at 86° only seven hours and a half. That the parts had fairly formed a living connection in the above instances was shown not only by their adhesions, but by the aid of injections, which proved that the blood vessels of the body and the graft communicated with each other.

Bert has not been successful in engrafting parts of a given animal on to another of a different genus.

Concerning the Preservation of Eggs.—In one of the French agricultural journals M. Bournouf brings forward a method of keeping eggs which would appear to be a reduction to its lowest terms of the system of preservation based on the exclusion of air by means of varnishes. A host of empirical methods based upon this general idea have been from time to time devised. Among them, one of the more recent is the application of a coating of silicate of soda, thus: the eggs are placed in an aqueous solution of the silicate (water-glass) maintained at a temperature of about 85°, are pressed down beneath the surface of the heavy liquor, and kept immersed there during some ten or twelve minutes. On removing the eggs and allowing them to dry in the air, they become covered with an air-tight coating of the soluble glass, and, as is asserted, may now be preserved for almost any length of time—best, no doubt, in air-tight and dry boxes.

Bournouf's process is more refined than this. He prepares a pomade by dissolving one part of bees-wax in two parts of warm sweet oil, and smears this unguent over the egg until the shell has been completely covered with a thin layer of it. By degrees the egg will absorb the oil, and each of the pores of the shell will thus become filled with wax, so that the contents of the egg will at length be completely shut off from contact with the air. M. Bournouf affirms that he has himself eaten eggs which had been kept in

this manner for two years in a place exposed to no wide variations of temperature. He is even of opinion that eggs kept in this way for a very long time are still susceptible of being hatched.

Fusibility of Silica.—Two distinct modifications of silica are known to chemists. As it occurs in the first of these modifications, the silica is readily soluble in alkaline leys and in hydrofluoric acid; while it dissolves with comparative difficulty when in the second modification. To the first or amorphous modification belong the minerals opal and hyalite, also the infusorial earths, such as the well-known "tripoli" or polishing powder. The specific gravity of the silica of this modification varies between 2.2 and 2.3. The second modification, the specific gravity of which is equal to about 2.6, and which is often found in nature in the form of crystals, includes quartz, rock crystal, and amethyst, as well as silicious sand, and the sandstones which have been formed by the agglomeration of particles of the latter. As an appendix to this second class a third list is often made out of the semi-crystalline varieties of silica, viz., chalcedony, chrysoprase, flint, and hornstone.

It has long been known to manufacturers of crucibles, fire-brick, and the chemical compounds of silicic acid, that the quality of the sand employed in their mixtures may exert a marked influence upon the fusibility of these mixtures or upon that of the products obtained from them. The sand of certain localities has thus come to be sought for by one class of manufacturers who desire to melt their materials readily, or with the least possible expenditure of fuel; while the same sand is held in no repute by those who aim to produce highly infusible products.

Some light has been thrown upon this point by the experiments of Bischoff, a German chemist, though his results do not go to corroborate so fully as might have been anticipated the old division of silica into two modifications. Samples of each of the common varieties of silica having been ground to impalpable powder in agate mortars, this powder was boiled with muriatic acid in order to remove any trace of impurity, and was afterwards rinsed with water. The moist powder was then moulded into little cylinders or prisms, which, after having been placed in crucibles of the most refractory fire-clay obtainable, were exposed to a degree of heat superior to that at which cast-steel melts. From the results of these trials it appeared that flint and rock crystal are the most difficultly fusible of all the varieties of silica. The external surfaces of the test cylinders composed of these minerals were glassy after the ignition; but, on breaking the cylinders, their fractured surfaces exhibited nothing vitreous, but only a granular structure. In the case of opal, vitreous spots were noticed upon the fractured surfaces. After opal, as regards refractoriness, followed amethyst, chalcedony, hornstone, hyalite, crystallized quartz, and milky quartz, all of which exhibited a fracture more vitreous than granular. Least difficultly fusible of all was the infusorial earth.

Mixtures of amorphous silica and alumina or clay were found to be less difficultly fusible than pure silica. Mixtures of crystallized silica with fire-clay are also, it is true, somewhat less difficultly fusible than the pure silica; but they are decidedly more refractory than the mixtures which contain amorphous silica. It will perhaps be found that while the amorphous silica may act as a flux and lessen the refractoriness of the clay, the crystallized silica may, on the contrary, increase its power of resisting heat.

The predilections of manufacturers for the silica of special localities now admit of explanation. It is by no means a matter of indifference to the manufacturer of refractory wares, which are intended to withstand intense heat, what kind of silica shall be mixed with the clay. If, for example, there were to be used the amorphous infusorial earth, no such refractory product would result as could be obtained by employing crushed flints or clean quartz sand. For the manufacturer of silicate of soda, on the contrary, this same infusorial earth would be far more valuable than the crystalline sand.

PROFESSOR SILLIMAN'S MEMOIRS.*

A few men only may be pronounced fortunate in all the circumstances of their lives. Fewer still are happy in the time and accompaniments of their death. Perhaps fewer than either of these classes, whose lot it is to have their lives written, are altogether happy in their biographers. The late Professor Silliman seems to have been fortunate in all these particulars. His life was a continued course of sunshine, the brightness of his mid-day answering to the brilliant promise of the morning, and passing by gentle transitions into the serene and softened glow of a cloudless sunsetting. His death was a veritable *euthanasia*, quiet, peaceful, sudden—a literal breathing away of the spirit in love to man and in praise to God. His biography is modestly and judiciously edited, the story of his life being told in wise and skilfully adjusted selections from his own personal reminiscences, his copious journals, and his extended correspondence. The taste and good judgment of Prof. Fisher can only be fully appreciated by those who know how much he was obliged to omit from the plethoric abundance of material, and how delicate was the task of drawing the line between the too much and the too little. Still, even those who know little upon these points will, we think, be satisfied in the main that the book is one of the best specimens of a biography of the kind which has been prepared in this country. It gives proper prominence to the central figure—the man himself in the exhibition of his personal characteristics. A stranger to the person of Professor Silliman would gain from his journal and letters, as here given, a vivid and correct impression of him. His public and professional career is exhibited with greater prominence than is usual, but with no excess in the case of one who was so distinguished as a professor and public lecturer. To say less of him in these relations might have been suitable in the case of almost any other university man, but would have been out of keeping in his. To dwell so minutely upon the beginnings and the progress in this country of the sciences which he taught, would have been surplusage in the life of any other single American than the one whose personal career was a succession of plans and enterprises for the introduction and the growth, for the defense and the adornment, of those sciences. His very person was associated in the minds of his friends and the public with the branches of knowledge for which his brain, his pen, his tongue, and his purse were brought into constant requisition. The details of his personal feelings, the minute and frequent references to his family life, the copious selections from his own letters and from those of his friends, are all appropriate in the life of one who interested himself so warmly in the affairs of his fellow-men, and who confidingly believed that they were equally interested in everything that concerned himself.

This biography will excite very general interest and be esteemed of permanent value because, also, it presents a continuous picture of the general history and progress of the country from the beginning of the present century, as this history and progress were reflected in the mind of an unusually public-spirited yet charitable and truth-loving man. His predilections or prejudices, if he had any, were all in favor of truth and goodness and order. He represented in his own person some of the most important public interests. He was connected with an institution to which young men resorted in great numbers who represented the wealth, the culture, and the opinions of every part of the country. His acquaintance with distinguished men in every department of public and professional life and holding every form of political and religious opinion, was very extensive. To read his life is to review the political and scientific, the religious and social, history of the country for the last half century.

The book also contains very many sketches of distinguished persons, from the pen of Professor Silliman. To describe the men whom he had honored in his youth and with whom he had associated in his mature years was a passion with him. These descriptions were a chief attraction of the first series of his travels, for they brought distinctly before the mind of the American people the personal appearance and manners of many distinguished men whose names were familiar. In the record which he made of his earlier life he regarded it as a duty and a pleasure to give minute and extended notices of all those persons who were familiarly known by himself, that the impressions on which he dwelt with so fond an interest might be preserved for others. In his letters he dwells with a peculiar satisfaction upon the appearance and manners of those persons whom he met in society. His fondness for detail and his patience in, or rather his passion for, composition contributed greatly to the fulness and the number of these descriptive sketches. This life is not merely a picture of the times in which Professor Silliman lived; it is also a portrait gallery of a great number of the men with whom he associated.

But the chief interest of the book pertains to the character of the central figure, the professor himself. We almost see the inner life of the man, so transparent are all the revelations which are made of the motives and aims of his being. We mark the steady and harmonious development of this life from the first frank revelation which he makes of his aims and aspirations to the last record which he enters upon his journal. The beauty of his face, the stateliness of his person, the elegance of his bearing, the ease of his manners, the fluency of his speech, the copiousness of his rhetoric, the readiness of his compliments, are all brought distinctly before us. We

* "Life of Benjamin Silliman, M.D., L.L.D., late Professor of Chemistry, Mineralogy, and Geology in Yale College. Chiefly from his Manuscript Reminiscences, Diaries, and Correspondence. By George P. Fisher, Professor in Yale College." In two volumes. New York: Charles Scribner & Co., 124 Grand Street. 1866.

see that his intellect must have been quick to apprehend, curious to acquire, and ready to recall. His power of work was astonishing. His mind moved so easily that to read and write for many hours seemed to bring little exhaustion. He would converse with little excitement to himself, but always with sustained and cheerful animation. He would discourse often eloquently, always fluently, upon a great variety of topics, passing rapidly from one to another, never abating his freshness to the end. His sympathy with men was wide in its range, embracing all classes, requiring moral worth as the sole condition. To the high in social position he rendered a most courteous and willing deference. To the lowly and humble he was always friendly and sympathizing. He never forgot an old friend who had not forfeited every claim to his regard, and even those who had cut themselves off from his intercourse were remembered by him with some word of pity. Even chance acquaintances who had rendered him only a casual service were remembered and often spoken of with regard. The readiness and breadth of his sympathies explain his very general popularity. A genuine benevolence, founded upon fixed and strong moral convictions, sustained and regulated this plastic and pliant nature. An earnest religious faith, with devout habits of life, gave to his moral principles fervor and earnestness. In his family he was in early life the devoted husband and fond father; in middle life, the wise and sympathizing friend; in old age, the benignant and beloved patriarch. Among his neighbors he was most attentive, kind, and courteous. In the community he was respected as one ever ready to promote the public interests by his generous public spirit, and was pointed out with pride as the man whose name was an honor to the city in which he lived and died. The very house in which he lived was, like himself, plain, hospitable, yet full of the memorials of his friends and of the tokens of public esteem. The college with which he was connected for sixty years was regarded by him with fondness and pride. He knew that he had done much for its prosperity, and yet he felt for its honor and success an interest which never abated. It was associated in his mind with the highest of public interests, the cause of learning and of religion, and in his heart with the revered President Dwight, who had marked out his career and had foreseen his fame, and with the associates of his youth and the companions of his old age, the classical and critical Kingsley, who died before him, and the sagacious and clear-minded Day, who lingers behind. The thousands of pupils in whose memories of Yale College Professor Silliman presents himself so prominently, all regard him as the instructor and friend who kindled their enthusiasm for the brilliant and useful sciences which he taught, and who at the same time won their hearts to himself by his courtesy and kindness. For the sciences of chemistry, mineralogy, and geology, in this country, he did heroic service by the enterprise which led him to acquaint himself at the beginning of his course with the ablest living teachers in Great Britain, and by the rare power of eloquent exposition which was so useful in exciting the interest of his earlier pupils and in fascinating the public. He did much, also, by the generous kindness with which he furthered the plans and wishes of young men who aspired to become proficients and instructors, and by the hearty interest with which he recorded their success. The self-denial and hazard of pecuniary loss with which he originated and sustained the "Journal of Science" for so many years would alone bring the whole country under heavy obligations to him.

So thoughtful and public-spirited, he must of necessity take a warm interest in the politics of his country. Yet he was never a politician in the common acceptation of the term. In ordinary occasions of political strife he was too catholic in his sympathies and too charitable in his feelings to be ever very warmly excited. But the Kansas outrage stirred his whole soul to its depths and moved all the capacities of his soul for indignation. Unexpectedly this universal favorite at the South, as well as at the North, found himself delivered from the "woe" caused by all men speaking well of you (the only woe to which he was ever exposed), by being innocently associated with a proposal to arm innocent emigrants against ruffifians invading their political rights and their quiet homes. During the war for the life of the nation he was anxious, prayerful, yet full of courage and hope. On the morning of the national thanksgiving he awoke to give audible utterance for the favor of God to the country, especially in raising up "that great and good man, Abraham Lincoln," then to pray for his family and to bless his wife for her affection, and, without a thought of death, to pass onward to another and better life.

The example of such a man in so long a life is a legacy of inspiration to the young men of the country, and not least valuable or important to the devotees of science, to lift them above the sordid and material aims, the petty rivalries, and the selfish ends from which even the most accomplished culture and the largest attainments and the widest acquaintance with men are not certain to deliver them. We are grateful for the life which glows with such inspiring influences and to the biographer who has skilfully arranged its records.

The Giant Cities of Bashan, and Syria's Holy Places. By Rev. J. L. Porter, A.M., author of "Five Years in Damascus," "Murray's Hand-Book for Syria and Palestine," "The Pentateuch and the Gospel," etc. (T. Nelson & Sons, New York.)—This is a well-written, very interesting book. It bears evidence throughout of the closest observation and the most diligent research. We have many books of travel in which the problem seems to be how to expand the minimum of observation into the maximum of printer's ink. But Dr. Porter's problem seems to be how to compress a vast amount of observation into the dimensions of an ordinary book. The result is not so much a book of travel as a volume of topography. The joy of travel is not more in seeing this or that mountain or city than in going from place to place. Men with a genius for travel enable us to feel that we are journeying with them, and in this way refresh us. Montaigne and Heine have been in this respect our truest friends. They are not too tremendously in earnest. We are permitted to see everything with their eyes in a very easy, desultory way, and are not always out of breath from being hurried through on an excursion ticket, as it were, from place to place. But the animus of Dr. Porter's book is very different from this. It has a critical, not an æsthetic aim. It does not seek the reader's enjoyment, but his instruction. The journey is nothing, its termini are everything. But there are passages of very eloquent description, and many facts that students of the Bible will find helpful towards an elucidation of the sacred text. The oft-repeated story of how the Eastern shepherd *leads* his sheep and they *follow* him, is here told very happily. A part of these researches are remote from the more ordinary course of travel, and are more interesting on this account. But the familiar Holy Places have at the same time been visited and cross-examined in the hope of gaining further information to support the general thesis of the book, which is, that Bashan's Giant Cities and Syria's Holy Places are a mine of argument in favor of the credibility of the Bible narrative and a remarkable fulfilment of its prophecies. The candid reader, while conceding that the book illustrates many things spoken of in the Scriptures, will doubtless feel that Dr. Porter overrates the worth of his investigations. What has been called "the topographical fallacy" appears so frequently as to impair our general confidence. That fallacy consists in arguing that because Mt. Sinai can be identified, *therefore* the things reported to have happened there did really happen; or, again, that because a certain thing might possibly have happened in a certain place, it did actually happen there. Anybody who wishes to see this fallacy exposed with all the pleasantry and satire of which the French language and the French genius are capable, will be satisfied on reading Victor Hugo's last work, "The Toilers of the Sea." As an appeal from Bishop Colenso and the results of criticism, the book before us is of comparatively little worth; but as a report of what is actually to be seen, it can doubtless be relied upon. As an illustration of the sacred narratives, it should be highly prized. It is handsomely reprinted from the London edition and has numerous illustrations.

Poor Matt; or, The Clouded Intellect. By Jean Ingelow. (Roberts Brothers, Boston.)—It is natural to have high expectations of any new work from the hand that wrote "A High Tide on the Coast of Lincolnshire," and if a little disappointment is the result of reading such a one, it is due rather to the unusual merit of the singer than to want of power in the story-teller. "Poor Matt" is an infinitely touching story. Matt himself is an idiot boy, rather attractive than repulsive, whose mind has been strongly laid hold of by one idea—the idea of God. All he has been able to grasp of this, which is the barest possible outline, has been taught him by the pastor's wife, some time dead when the story opens. His education is carried on by a lady who first sees him, in one of her walks, as he is standing by the seashore, absorbed in gazing at a rift in the sky between two clouds. In reply to her question as to what he is doing, he says, "Matt was looking for God. There was a great hole—Matt wanted to see God." The lady is not only "astonished" but "shocked" by this answer; but Matt accepts all that is told him with absolute literalness. Thus, when his grandfather dies, and it is explained that God "sent for him" to a beautiful place "where there is no sea," no storms, no cold; whereupon Matt urgently desires to be "sent for" too. He insists on having his "hands washed" and his "best cap on," in order to "be ready," since he is told he may be summoned at any moment. A moral is drawn from this by "the lady," for the instruction of the peasants present; one of the many morals which Poor Matt is made to point by his earnest, undoubting remarks; and they are well pointed, too, with a graceful seriousness which more than offsets their slight suggestiveness of "tracts." A strong and true religious conviction will carry much narrowness of belief. And if "the lady" does count too surely on Matt's understanding and receiving the doctrine of vicarious atonement from her ingenious method of conveying it to him, any one who doubts her success or the necessity for such an explanation to an idiot, will be robbed of desire to find fault by the beautiful liberal spirit pervading the whole of her patient teachings.

The close of the narrative is written with fine pathetic power. Matt suffers greatly from cold and hunger during a hard winter, his aunt dies, he is often beaten by a boy that is set to take care of him, "his lady," as he calls her, has been summoned from the neighborhood, and God, spite of his constant appeals, will not "send for him." One bitter night he escapes from the house and is found at the mouth of a cavern in the cliffs on the sea, standing with arms outstretched and woe-begone face fixed on the sky, crying, "God, God! oh send for poor Matt; let Matt go away!" The little girl—a real heroine—who finds him, runs back to get assistance; but Matt is frozen to death before it comes.

The Book of Roses. By Francis Parkman.—*Cultivation of the Grape.* By W. C. Strong. (J. E. Tilton & Co., Boston.)—These books come to us in a very attractive form. They are of convenient size, and the paper, printing, embellishments, and finish are unusually good, so that they will as often find a place on the centre-table as on the library shelves. The "Book of Roses" will please those who endeavor to beautify their homes with the "queen of flowers." It is a valuable manual for all who cultivate this popular shrub, whether expert or amateur, giving precisely the information on the subject so many persons need and desire. It is especially valuable to those who have but limited experience in the cultivation of the choicer varieties. It is beautifully adorned with cuts, but not illustrated.

The "Cultivation of the Grape" has more competitors in the field, several of which it does not surpass, except in the style in which it is offered. The book is very unequal in its parts, and very often leaves us in doubt which of several processes or methods described the author considers the best. The part relating to the propagation of the vine is most successfully treated, and we opine that in this branch of the subject the author has had the most experience. There is also much really valuable information relating to the management of vines and the treatment of their diseases. But Mr. Strong often indulges in hypotheses and "theoretical considerations" where we want plain statements of observed facts and the results of experience. The amateur cultivator especially wants the results of proved, or at least tried, methods, rather than suggestions of untried ones. The chapter on manures for the vine is very unsatisfactory. Many of the theoretical considerations are apparently derived from a perusal of the older works on agricultural chemistry rather than from the experience of vine-growers. That most important consideration of the effect of the various fertilizers recommended on the quality of the fruit, and on the wine made from it, is left out of consideration entirely. We notice, also, an insignificant error which probably first originated in a typographical blunder, and has since been copied into a number of works on the grape. The great California vine (mentioned on p. 15) is nearly *three* feet in circumference and not *ten*, as it is often printed. The illustrations are tasteful and accurate. A good index would increase the value of the book, although the table of contents is full and the arrangement of subjects judicious.

Cherry and Violet. A Tale of the Great Plague. By the author of "Mary Powell." (M. W. Dodd, New York.)—This little volume could have had no better introduction to the public than its two charming predecessors, "The Maiden and Married Life of Mary Powell" and "The Household of Sir Thomas More." The present story suffers in comparison with these because it is more dependent for its interest upon its incidents than upon its characters. The great plague is a very interesting theme, especially in these days of waiting for the cholera, but not so interesting as a great man like Milton, or Milton's very charming, very silly, little wife. And the great London fire, which burned up thirteen thousand houses in three days, is very interesting, but not so interesting as Sir Thomas More. But for all that it may suffer by comparison, the book, considered by itself, is very readable. It makes the life of just two centuries ago seem very near and actual. Cherry, who is supposed to write the history, lives with her father in his little shop on London Bridge. When the Protectorate is over, and Charles II. returns, of course they have the best of opportunities for seeing him. The fluctuations of the father's trade (he was a hair-dresser) consequent upon the Protectorate and afterward the Restoration, are depicted pleasantly enough. But the most artistic thing about the book is its apparent failure to appreciate the magnitude of these events with which it is concerned. The writer never once forgets that she is not herself but Cherry Curling, and she manages her facts accordingly.

EXPECTED WAR IN GERMANY.

WAR is expected in Germany, and the sudden announcement of it has thrown the whole political and financial world of Europe into the greatest confusion. The designs of Bismark have at last become dimly visible. "Romprons-nous ou ne romprons-nous pas?" say Austria and Prussia to each other, like the *soubrettes* and the *scapins* of Molière. Austria is arming. Prussia is arming. Austria will not attack, and Prussia will not attack. And still everybody believes in war. How is this? It is simply because Bismark is considered as very ambitious, very unscrupulous, very imprudent, but not absolutely mad. And if he prepares to go to war in spite of the German middle states and princes, in spite of England and Lord Clarendon, in spite of diplomatic protestations and assurances, in spite of the Prussian parliament, it must be that he has very good motives for it—some hidden reasons which he is not yet at liberty to make apparent to the world.

It is impossible to see why Germany should be convulsed by civil war; why a new thirty years' period of agitation, discord, and bloodshed should begin in the midst of the nineteenth century; why the question of the two miserable Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein should not be amicably settled between Austria, Prussia, and the Bund; but the absurdity of a war between Austria and Prussia does not, alas! make such a war impossible. There is no holy, no lofty principle which obliges the Germans to meet each other on new battle-fields; but are men always influenced by lofty and holy principles? The dream of German unity would be at an end if the various sections of Germany were armed against each other; but Bismark cares not for Germany, but for Prussia. He wishes to leave Prussia to his successor a strong, compact military power, and he is willing to adopt every means to that end. He said once, "I am willing to give to France the Rhenish provinces, if I am allowed to take in Germany all I want and to make Prussia as strong as I wish; for, once strong, Prussia will easily retake the Rhenish provinces from the hands of her neighbor."

Bismark has been, very improperly, in my opinion, compared to Cavour. The cases of Germany and of Italy are very different. In Italy, Cavour had a double object—the expulsion of the foreign invaders and the creation of Italian unity. Germany has no foreign tyrants, and German unity could not be promoted by a war which would allow the foreign powers to interfere between the German combatants. It is evident that Bismark would never have gone as far as he has if he was not secretly assured of the support of the French Emperor. Bismark cannot believe that Prussia is capable of overwhelming Austria together with the middle states of Germany. Therefore, as he shows himself disposed to bully Austria into war, he must feel assured of a powerful assistance. Will Italy alone be his ally? Nobody in Europe believes it. Prussia could no more with the help of Italy than without it conquer Austria and Germany. Some other ally must be found stronger than Victor Emanuel. The King of Italy, or even Garibaldi, may, as the French say, "mettre le feu aux poudres" in Venetia; but the drama once begun, the principal scenes will not be played across the Alps, but across the Rhine.

France must ultimately come into action, if Bismark wishes to annex to Prussia not only the Danish Duchies, but the small kingdoms and principalities of central Germany. Already Bismark speaks of the revision of the federal congress, and proposes to elect a great German parliament by *universal suffrage.* Universal suffrage! Is not this an echo of the Tuileries? Does Bismark, who has so often treated his own Prussian parliament with contempt, and who professes openly to disregard constitutional institutions,—does he pronounce these fateful words, "universal suffrage," with the same spirit as a Gladstone or a Bright? To him, as to his Imperial model and eventual ally, universal suffrage is simply a weapon by which old governments can be destroyed and old rights thrown to the wind. Universal suffrage has given to France the province of Savoy, to Piedmont the Tuscan duchies and the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, to Maximilian the empire of Mexico; it can be used for all ends, good or bad, in countries where there are no traditions of self-government, no political franchises and guarantees. Where universal suffrage has not been heralded by universal education, it becomes the most powerful ally of force and despotism. Bismark hopes to have all his annexations ratified by universal suffrage; the French Emperor entertains similar hopes; but they both in their hearts trust only the *droit divin* of their improved artillery.

"La raison du plus fort est toujours la meilleure." And so the Continent is drifting into war. The French Empire needs it, because the Liberal movement is becoming too strong and too overwhelming. Napoleon III. once told a lady while he was still an exile, "It is very easy to govern the French." "What is your secret, prince?" "*A good war* every three years." Well, we have had the good war of the Crimea, the good war of Italy, the (not quite so good) war of Mexico—is it not time that we should have another?

All the *familiers* of the Tuileries, among whom General Fleury is just now the great favorite, are in exultation. At one blow, they say, we will get rid of French Liberalism, which is becoming troublesome, we will settle the Italian question, and take the Rhine. All the young colonels dream of *bâtons de maréchal* and of titles; all the young diplomats, of future congresses and diamond snuff-boxes. We are preparing for the great crisis in the midst of pleasure. Paris has never been so brilliant. We have the Diva Patti at the Italian opera and "Don Juan" at the French opera, Danish princes at court, four-in-hands with liveries of all colors in the Champs Elysées, beautiful American *odalisques* at our private theatricals (in the "Ours et le Pacha," played at M. Drouyn de Lhuys', the Minister of Foreign Affairs); the clubs are full, and we play cards till three in the morning; we have balls *in powder;* Thérésa is as deservedly popular as ever; and we have even turned the drama of "Barbe Bleue," the story which so often haunted our infant mind, into the most extraordinary buffoonery at the "Variétés." *King Bobèche,* who has an important part in the new "Blue Beard," tells his minister: "C'est en ne sachant jamais ce que je ferai que j'ai appris à gouverner les hommes." And we might say: "C'est en ne sachant jamais ce que nous ferons que nous avons appris à nous laisser gouverner." Shall we have peace or war? We don't know; therefore let us have pleasure.

A. L.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

NATIONAL TREASURY SPECULATIONS.

Mr. Gladstone made some remarks in his recent "financial statement" on the general subject of national debts which suggest some reflections both as to the future of this country and that of Western Europe in the highest degree interesting. There is no incident of modern political history more striking than the rapidity with which great debts have been contracted by the leading powers of the world, and the almost reckless readiness with which these debts continue to be increased, even in times of profound peace. France owes $2,000,000,000; Spain owes $725,000,000; Italy owes somewhat more, and is fast increasing her liability; Austria owes $1,580,000,000; Russia, $1,395,000,000, and smaller powers, in some cases, in proportion, in others out of all proportion. Nearly all these debts have been contracted within twenty years, and Holland is the only power in Europe, though one of the smallest and weakest, which has done anything within that period to diminish hers.

The readiness to resort to this pleasant mode of filling the treasury is due first to the greater regularity and certainty which the growth of law, order, and civilization has communicated to the collection of revenue. Governments now know pretty accurately every year what their income is to be, something which until the close of the last century they can hardly be said ever to have known. Their credit has consequently greatly improved. At the same time, and owing very much to the same causes, the wealth of their citizens has increased to such a degree that there are now great numbers of persons in every civilized country who literally do not know what to do with their money. Capital has in most old countries accumulated in such masses that the present holders are at their wits' ends to make it produce anything. The bolder and more knowing ones go into foreign banks, foreign railroads, mines, quarries, aerial machines, and all sorts of outlandish schemes, nine out of ten of which ruin the projectors. The more timid wait till some government wants to borrow money, and then rush forward with five times as much as it wanted. In fact, considering the readiness of the public to lend, the wonder is that governments have not borrowed more.

The tendency of all governments to extravagance, from one motive or another, has, of course, been greatly increased by this facility in borrowing. They have been enabled by it to maintain enormous military and naval establishments, and to set on foot gigantic works of improvement or embellishment, generally undertaken in order to reconcile the masses to the absence or loss of their liberties and to maintain courts in a splendor which has never been witnessed before in modern times. Louis the Fourteenth's palace at Versailles, great as it was in its day, was a mean establishment compared to the Tuileries in our day.

The evident intention of all these great borrowers, and it is an intention in which they find no difficulty in getting their subjects to acquiesce, is to let posterity pay the piper, while the present generation does the dancing. But the question is now beginning to be asked seriously whether posterity will be able to pay the piper? Some countries which have hitherto, like Germany, France, and Russia, been retarded in their growth by bad governments, may possibly answer this question in the affirmative. They are now only beginning to run the great industrial race. We spoke, in the "Scientific Notes" of the last number of The Nation, of the extent to which certain great branches of manufactures are being transferred from England to the Continent, in spite of the great advantages in point of time and circumstances which the latter has enjoyed, and there is no question that this process will now go on more and more rapidly every day.

As regards England, however, the question cannot be answered with the same confidence. To her it is an awful question, and the manner in which Mr. Gladstone dealt with it opened up a vista of changes, both social and political, as the mere consequence of the rapidly approaching exhaustion of her coal-fields, which nobody now attempts to deny, more stupendous and momentous than any which have occurred in Europe since the fall of the Roman Empire. There is no doubt that as the coal-fields of England, or other natural advantages of that or of other European countries, begin to be worn out, and profits and wages consequently to fall, and the pressure of the taxation necessary to maintain the public credit to become consequently less endurable, persons whose property is movable, such as capitalists and persons who are dependent on their own labor, will emigrate to America, and other new countries. This will throw the whole burden on the landholders who remain behind, and who will have to remain behind, and it is not safe to say that they will be able to support it, or will even do so by submitting to great impoverishment. Should this state of things come to pass, the possibility to which we ventured to refer last week, that England would eventually become a great summer resort of the inhabitants of this continent, and occupy much the same relation to America that the Isle of Wight does to England herself, will certainly be realized.

In fact, unless some great change, a change for which at present we see no reason to look, should occur in the system of government now pursued in most European countries, we may fairly expect before very long to see the weight of taxation become so great as to overcome the strong feeling of local attachment, which is, in most places, the great impediment to emigration, and a tide begin to set in towards our shores from England and the Continent as great as that which we have now for some years been receiving from Ireland. It takes very strong influences to drive people into abandoning their ancient seats, but the movement once opened, its force increases in geometrical ratio.

PRICES.

Amidst all the divergences of opinion which distract the members of the Universal Yankee Nation—political, ecclesiastical, and economical—there is one on which they are of one mind. Nobody denies that prices are frightfully high. The great fact that we have to pay double for everything that we eat, drink, wear, or live in, is one level to the very meanest capacity. Prices had waxed fat before the war, even, and were almost double what they used to be in the days before California was invented. But the war necessarily increased the inflammation of our quarterly bills to a truly febrile virulence. The depreciation of the currency and the diversion of the labor of near a million men from productive to destructive pursuits sufficiently account for this state of things. The war being over, and the soldiers having been dispersed to beat their swords into ploughshares and their spears into pruning-hooks, and the growth of the national debt having been checked, the question presents itself to every mind, how soon prices will fall back to their old level or something like it? That there will be an approximation to that golden mean is certain, as the morbid stimulation of an inflated currency is gradually reduced, and only the wholesome tide of specie left to regulate the circulations of the body politic. Whether it be possible that the necessaries and luxuries of life can ever be restored to the *status quo ante bellum*, is doubtful. Certainly not without an intelligent direction and application of industry, such as does not yet seem to develop itself, but which certainly lies within the competency of the American people. At any rate, this is as good a time as any to take an observation, find out just where we are, and consider how we had best lay our course.

There are two very sufficient causes for the inflammation of prices, apart from the stimulus given them by the war—first, the actual diminution in the value of gold and silver; and secondly, the decrease in production when compared with the increase in consumption of the necessaries of life. It is with gold as it was with the Sibylline books, it increases in value as it diminishes in quantity, and *vice versa*. Whenever the dollar shall be restored to the throne again, almighty as it will but too certainly still be over men's souls, it will be of less relative power than ever before over their markets. In fact, it is the multiplication of the precious metals that has raised the nominal value of everything that they purchase, much more than the temporary influence of the war. For the same effect has been produced over all the world by the same causes. Since the gold discoveries in California and Australia the volume of the "all-worshipped ore" has been multiplied

beyond all former precedent and almost beyond imagination. It has increased immensely the actual wealth of the world by the impulse it has given to commerce and manufactures, and at the same time it has increased the prices of the commodities thus multiplied. It is only strange that this derangement of prices did not take place much earlier and more suddenly, considering what a multitude of millions was added every year to the currency of the world. This is accounted for partly by the increased use of the precious metals in the arts, but chiefly by its absorption by India, where the currency is almost entirely silver. And here is an example that it is not the quality of a currency but its redundancy that inflates prices. India used to be the cheapest country in the world to live in. Now, it is as dear as any, every particular of living having at least doubled in price within the last fifteen years, because there is twice the amount of currency in circulation. Just as in Canada, where our silver coin took refuge when we stopped specie payments here, a silver dollar would buy only ninety cents worth of merchandise. Still, as the printing press can coin money much faster than the mint, it is advisable to reduce the issues of the former agency to a convertible proportion with those of the latter with all convenient speed.

A similar revolution in values took place in the sixteenth century in consequence of the multiplication of silver after the conquest of Mexico and Peru. We find the dignity of the shilling expand and bourgeon as its pedigree ascends towards the dark ages, as if it were a royal or noble house. Forty of them stood for about as much as as many pounds sterling do now, or did twenty years ago. Forty shillings used to be a usual endowment of a scholarship at a university, and sums similarly absurd, as they sound to us now, were bequeathed for the foundation of schools and colleges. Even within the last century a very great change has taken place in the value of money. An income in England which was thought affluent a hundred years ago is little more than a competency now. And so in this country, without taking into the account the enormous fortunes which have risen like exhalations out of the soil of battle-fields, and which may possibly vanish like exhalations. How high the advancing flood of this golden tide may rise is beyond the skill of any weather-prophet to foresee, however skilled in the signs of the times. All that human wisdom can do is to stand ready to accommodate action to its exigencies, and to direct it as far as may be done for the general good, while guarding against private injury. When the level becomes tolerably well established, the change is more apparent than real. The capitalists receive larger nominal incomes, but as the things they must buy for support, enjoyment, or investment are proportionably dear, they are really no richer than before. Wages, too, must be borne upward on the advancing wave of gold, though they are too often the last to find their due level. Persons living on salaries and fixed incomes are the persons the most immediately impoverished by the change in the measure of values, until they, too, feel the upward tendency, which, sooner or later, they must do.

But the inflation of prices is due to another cause besides the multiplication of coin, viz., in the diminution in the production of the necessaries and luxuries of life of the value of which coin is the measure. We have to pay more for everything we eat, drink, and wear even than the diminished value of money would account for, because there is not as much labor and capital bestowed upon their production as in former years, in proportion to the increased demand for them. The haste to be rich, if not more innocent of old time than it is now, used to be more largely directed to more really profitable uses. The land used to be the principal investment for capital, not for the erection of castles in the air, of cities under water, and of corner lots in the wilderness, but for the actual multiplication of the kindly fruits of the earth. The tendency of the present time, everywhere, is from the country to the large cities, and thus to divert capital and labor from the soil. In the Old World land is still the chief element of wealth and political power, and, therefore, greater pains and larger amounts of capital are bestowed upon it to extort from its bosom all that skill, science, labor, and money can compel. Agriculture is the foundation of all wealth here as well as there. Nobody doubts this truth, but too many seem to wish that the foundation should be built upon by somebody else while he gives his energies to the lighter and more ornamental portions of the edifice of public prosperity. The opening of the South to free labor, as soon as our "misguided fellow-citizens" shall cease biting their own noses off to spite their faces (which they will soon find is an unremunerative expenditure of their energies), will perhaps tend to keep up the prices of other agricultural productions besides cotton and rice and, possibly, sugar. But this very circumstance may stimulate invention and direct capital to multiply them. Capital and skill are essential elements of prosperity in every branch of industry. The discovery will be made in time that there is no bank or manufactory so safe or so sure in its returns as the boon earth, in proportion to the investment of capital and skill committed to her charge. Then there will be a due adjustment of the industries that create the fruits of the earth, that convert them into various shapes, and that exchange them commercially in the wise organization of the great commissariat of the world. Until production shall have overtaken and outstripped consumption, there can be no material change in prices. It is a state of politico-economical transition that we are now passing through, to which we must adapt ourselves as wisely as we can, assured that the laws which Providence is striving to reveal to us will reduce everything to order and prosperity as soon as they are allowed to have their due sway.

THE DOOM OF THE DEADHEADS.

There is a fearful shaking among the dry bones. The ruthless hand of Albany legislation has been stretched forth to disturb the long rest which has brooded immemorially over the noble army of the Deadheads—an "exceeding great army," like that which the prophet Ezekiel saw in vision come together in the valley "with a noise and a shaking." The great vested interest in travelling at other people's expense has been assailed. The beatific privilege of paying one's fare with a smile is snatched away. The elect can no longer be wafted from one end of the land to the other through the magical properties of a scrap of paper no bigger than a man's hand, which put to an open shame the cheap conveyance of Prince Hussein's tapestry. It is no longer not merely glory, but great gain, to be the son, brother, second cousin, or grand uncle of a director. The lofty courtesy which passed the engine-driver or brakesman of the Poppasquash and Skunk's Misery Railway free over all other roads in respect to his exalted station, is forbidden by law. Even the freedom of the press is violated. Editors and reporters will henceforward be reduced to the level of common men, and have to pay their way like their even Christians. But this is too painful a theme to contemplate. Let us turn our eyes in another direction.

This great revolution has been forced through, apparently, in the interest of a class of persons who have not been usually thought of consequence enough for special notice. We mean the shareholders in the corporations thus magnanimously managed, and bent upon proving that they *have* souls, in spite of a profane and ribald proverb to the contrary. Unreasonable and impracticable members of this insignificant class have had their selfish passions excited for long years past, as they glided along on "the pale iron edge" they have paid for originally and paid again for the privilege of using it, at seeing a self-complacent citizen sitting next to them carried triumphantly along with them without money and without price. If of a mathematical turn of mind, the shareholder probably occupied himself surlily in cyphering out how much a fair average of such benevolences might amount to in the course of a year, and perhaps came to the conclusion that the mystery of dwindling dividends in the presence of growing travel might be thus partially solved. If of an impulsive and fiery temperament, he would be very apt to do what is of very evil ensample in any one connected with a railway, and "burst his boiler" at the next annual meeting of the corporation, and blow up the president and directors without mercy. But it is an idiosyncrasy in the natural history of presidents and directors that, like cats, they always come down on their feet, to whatever height blown up. The "set of querulous meddlers," as the *Times* might call them, is soothed by promises of amendment, which too often prove, like the promises of other great men, as well as pie-crust, to be made to be broken.

One of the great dailies, which we quoted just now, thinks it is

"almost impossible to speak seriously of the act" which proposes to circumscribe the majesty of the deadheads. It may be difficult to carry the law into effect and so it may become a just subject of ridicule, as all ineffective laws are; but it will be no laughing matter to many of that respectable portion of our travelling public if it be enforced. The existence of such a class seems to us the fitter provocation of merriment. We see no reason why a law so obviously for the benefit of railway property should not be carried into effect. The difficulty in the way of abating the deadhead nuisance long ago, by general consent of all the companies, has been the competition of selfish interests in their management. Every railway manager was apt to think that he was cunning enough to outwit his neighbors in the contest, and so to evade any arrangement that should deprive him of this species of bribery and leave travel to its natural conditions. Ten years ago, if we remember aright, the president of the Erie Railway urged a general alliance, offensive and defensive, against the incursions of the deadheads. But we presume the mischief had become too inveterate and the habits of railway management too depraved to make this possible. The interposition of the State gives them all now an opportunity to reform their ways, which, if they have grace to do it, will redound to the general benefit of the travelling public as well as to the particular emolument of the long-suffering shareholders.

We believe that it is to the universal Yankee nation that the English vocabulary owes the expressive neologism "deadhead." We are not sure whether or not our cousins on the other side have yet incorporated it with their daily speech. The thing they have most unquestionably, and, as we can never invent a new slang expression that they do not make haste to borrow, it is very likely they have the word, too. Like most abuses, its growth has been gradual. Like other parasites which attach themselves to great bodies, the deadhead system has waxed fat at the expense of the wholesome juices of the body it has grown to. It was originally contrived in the interest of the corporations. The president and directors were naturally and reasonably made free of their roads, then the members of their families, and it was a study to the genealogist to see how widely the ramifications of the directorial family-tree could extend; then all persons bringing freight were permitted to travel free; then all sorts of railway officials, from the president to the stoker, were passed free as a tribute to their official dignity. Editors of all sorts of newspapers were early given the run of all roads as a privilege duly appurtenant to puffery. And so the thing went on. Some of these excrescences have doubtless been cut off, but there remain enough to invite the excision of the legislative pruning-hook.

The mischiefs of deadheadism also attach to all public amusements, though they cannot be reached by law. If the managers of theatres and other places of public entertainment find it profitable or pleasant to give away sheafs of tickets, it is nobody's business but their own. But innocent spectators are often amazed to hear that certain theatrical or operatic enterprises are ruinous adventures when they see the houses full. In the simplicity of their good easy souls they do not dream how many of the best seats are filled by those whose entertainment is purely eleemosynary. There would be no *deficit* in treasuries if all paid honestly for their amusement. But as long as managers and agents will persist in pelting editors with free admissions and complimentary tickets, it is too much to expect of editorial human nature that they should be refused. The only concern the public has in this matter, and it is a material one, is that this system is all but fatal to genuine dramatic criticism. It has perverted what passes for such into mawkish and indiscriminate flattery. There are exceptions, doubtless, but the general feeling naturally is that it is uncivil to speak severely of an entertainment to which you have been freely invited, and that it is hardly fair to ridicule what your host has set before you. We imagine all the best journals would be willing to waive their courtesies and pay for the ticket of their critic on the usual terms. If it be an object to the managers of theatres to put a stop to this custom, it can be done by such a blessed conspiracy as that by which they have put to an open shame the ogre of the press who held them in a hopeless thraldom. But perhaps they had rather *not* have impartial criticism on what they give the public. It is their affair.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN LECTURESHIP AT CAMBRIDGE.

To the Editor of the Nation:

I have read your article on the rejection of Mr. Yates Thompson's generous offer of an American lectureship to the University of Cambridge. My own sentiments on the subject you may easily divine. They would be more appropriately expressed in an English than in an American journal. But there are two remarks which I will beg your permission to make as tending partially to qualify the view you have taken of the conduct of the university in this matter.

In the first place, I am told, and can easily believe, that among those who voted against the acceptance of the lectureship there were many who, while they entirely concurred with Mr. Thompson in the good object which he had in view, doubted whether the foundation of a lectureship of the kind proposed would be the best means of effecting it. I confess that I share this doubt myself. I think that in a place where so many lectures have to be attended for academical purposes, a course of lectures on a non-academical subject would run the risk of being very thinly attended; and I also think that unless the lecturer was endowed with singular tact as well as ability he might be in some danger of repelling those whom he was endeavoring to attract. I am inclined to the opinion that a good collection of American books and statistics made accessible to the students would be more sure of producing the desired effect. A collection of American books, chosen with perfect freedom as regards subjects and opinions, was, as I happen to know, very cordially welcomed by a college in this university; and I believe that any American visitor who enquires at the Bodleian Library will find that the American department there is already good and is being rapidly increased by past purchases.

In the second place, so far as the opponents of the lectureship were actuated by any antipathy, their antipathy was, I suspect, rather ecclesiastical than national. Of all your enemies on this side of the water, the Episcopal clergy have been the most bitter. But this phenomena is not peculiarly British, nor such as ought to provoke special resentment against this country on the part of Americans. It is the world-wide antagonism of the priest party to liberty of body and soul. You have Jesuits among yourselves. Were they very ardent in their loyalty to the national cause?

I am, sir, your faithful servant,

Goldwin Smith.

Oxford, England, May 1, 1866.

WHEELING.

To the Editor of the Nation:

In your issue of December 7, on page 722, occurs the statement, "A Hungarian . . . was broken on the wheel." I do not know from what German statement this has been translated, nor do I propose to make it the subject of remark; but I have never seen an English translation of the German term "rädern" or the French word "rouer," "to wheel," which did not render it "to break on the wheel." Even the "New American Cyclopædia" countenances this mistranslation. See its article on Patkul, and also Vol. XV., page 550, at foot of second column, under the remarks on cruel punishments appended to the article on torture. Webster in his dictionary regards the wheel not as an instrument of execution, but of torture or examination.

Pierer's "Universal-Lexikon," under the article "Raedern," defines it as a "severe death-penalty, in which the culprit, stretched on the ground, has his arms and legs broken and his breast crushed with the front wheel of a wagon." This corresponds with what I was told in Germany and German Switzerland by persons acquainted with the punishment, except that no particular kind of wheel was specified. At Fribourg, in Switzerland, however, I examined one which was evidently intended to be more efficient than a wagon wheel. It was, as nearly as I recollect, between three and four feet in diameter. Part, at least, of its circumference was shod with an iron attachment, hardly sharp enough to cut and yet sharp enough to render it more efficacious in breaking. A young man who accompanied me lifted it and remarked that he had, in 1820 or 1822, seen a person executed with it for killing one of his parents. The malefactor was bound on the ground to stakes and his limbs broken. The law, as I was informed at Berlin, recognizes two forms of "wheeling:" 1st. "From above downwards." In this form, the first blow falls on the victim's chest and is intended to kill him, the limbs being afterwards broken. 2d. "From below upwards." In this the limbs are first broken and the victim is afterwards despatched. This

latter form appears to be expressed in French by the term "rompre vif," or "rouer vif," to "break alive," or "wheel alive." A professor at Berlin told me that in the case of Patkul, the Livonian—an agent of Peter the Great—wheeled by the brutality of Charles XII., the wheel was destitute of iron and less efficient. This will account for Voltaire's statement (Histoire de Charles XII., Livre III.) that the sufferer received sixteen blows. Worcester in his dictionary, under the word wheel, states that "in France the criminal was laid on a frame of wood in the form of a St. Andrew's cross, with grooves cut transversely in it above and below the knees and elbows." This would render the executioner's blows more effective. His statement that in Germany "the criminal was laid on a cart-wheel, with his arms and legs extended, and his limbs in that posture fractured with an iron bar," must be exceptional if not partly erroneous. The iron bar, or club, was used in some countries (Pierer's Lexikon, Art. Raedern); and it was formerly, if it be not yet, customary to bind the body of a criminal AFTER execution on a wheel, and expose it to the public gaze.

"Wheeling," according to information which I received in Europe, is in some countries the recognized punishment for unusual crimes, including parricides and, since the king is legally construed to be the father of his people, for regicides. An extract subjoined below would seem to imply that a bishop is legally regarded as father of his flock, and that his murderer is treated in the same way. In the army of Frederic II., according to Archenholtz (Historische Schriften, Vol. I., p. 28), whoever carried insubordination "to acts of violence with weapon in hand was wheeled alive." During the winter of 1840–41, while I was in Berlin, a man, by some deemed insane, attempted the king's life. My landlady, the next day, repeated to me the opinion of others that some frightful punishment would be devised for the assassin. I smiled at the idea, but learned afterwards from competent legal authority that "wheeling" was the recognized punishment. After my return to America in 1841, probably within a few years afterwards, I cut the following from some newspaper, the name and date of which are unfortunately lost:

"DREADFUL SPECTACLE.—Rudolph Kuhnapfel, the tailor, who murdered the Bishop of Ermeland and his housekeeper, at Frauenburg, Germany, about six months ago, was broken on the wheel [*i. e.*, wheeled] on the 7th ult. He died in ten minutes. Ten thousand persons were present—half females."

Since writing the above, I notice that the last edition of "Webster's Dictionary" (1866) quotes from Brande essentially the same account of the wheel as is quoted in Worcester, implying that it is an instrument of *punishment*, but leaves unchanged the definition that it is an instrument for *torturing*. The difference between the two is correctly stated in the "New American Cyclopædia," at the beginning of the article on torture. One item omitted by that article was interesting to me and may be so to others. The civil law, as practised in some European countries, does not permit execution until a criminal has confessed his crime. Consequently, even in our days, persons who were deemed notoriously guilty have been tortured to make them confess.

F. HUIDEKOPER.

MEADVILLE, PA., May 9, 1866.

COTTAGE ARCHITECTURE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

In the May number of "Harper's Magazine" is an article in which the subject of the proper arrangement of a cottage residence of moderate size is taken up and discussed, and the ideal of the author is given in a series of neatly-drawn plans. The professed intention is to show that in a house about 30 x 50 feet convenient accommodations for a family can be provided and ample ventilation secured. The general statement in regard to the necessity for improvement in American houses is undoubtedly correct, and every judicious effort to influence public opinion in this direction should be gratefully received; but the particular illustration given in this case, in my judgment, is by no means as free from objections as its author apparently believes, and, as "Harper's Magazine" is widely circulated, you will perhaps permit me to point out some particulars in which it should not be adopted as a model.

We have presented to us a two-story and basement house, from thirty to forty feet wide and fifty feet long, which provides kitchen, laundry, six or seven bed-rooms, and two large living-rooms, with conservatory attached. Such a house is unlikely to be built by the head of a family who is not tolerably well-to do in the world, and who cannot afford to keep at least one servant. Most men, at least, would, I am confident, prefer a smaller house with some help to keep it in order, to a house of this size without any assistance except from members of the family. Yet the plan provides no way a servant to pass from the kitchen to the front door to let in a visitor or even to reach her bed-room, when she desires to make herself tidy after her work is done, without passing to and fro through the rooms occupied by the members of the family and their guests, or through the bath-room, etc., which is located in the center of the building.

Although the dimensions of the house seem liberal, the first prospect on entering the main hall is a wash closet—not in any subordinate position, but directly opposite the front door—between the living room with conservatory attached and the principal stair-case, which is intended to be enclosed on both sides, as is usual in attic or basement stairs, and which will therefore present a cramped, illiberal appearance. In a house containing many different apartments, each room may be occupied by but one person; the stair-case, however, is the common avenue of communication for all, and it is an error to crowd and contract it with the hope of thereby adding to the value of the accommodations as a whole.

The kitchen connects directly with the dining-room by two doors, yet the large dimensions given do not call for this uncomfortable arrangement.

But the most disagreeable feature of the plan, considering it as a professedly complete arrangement in matters of ventilation, is the placing of the bath-room and necessary in the very centre of the house, where it would be unlighted except through glazed openings that merely connect with halls or passages, and where a current of fresh air could only be obtained by opening doors that ought to be always closed.

The writer and the editors probably believe in all sincerity that the difficulties of the problem are fairly met and solved in this design; but the few prominent inconsistencies that have already been pointed out will be sufficient to show that this is not the case, and that the plan as presented, however well intended, is ill-conceived and by no means suitable for adoption by those who may be fortunate enough to possess the money that it would cost to build such a roomy family residence.

A.

Fine Arts.

THE FORTY-FIRST EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

[THIRD NOTICE.]

IT is a growing custom to send important pictures elsewhere for exhibition than to the Academy. We have no business now with the reasons for this tendency, nor, indeed, are the reasons sufficiently evident for any one to be quite sure that he perceives and duly estimates them all. It is only to be remarked that a complete account of the last winter's work of the artists even of New York and its neighborhood would only be possible after an examination of perhaps as many pictures not in this exhibition as there are important, notice-worthy pictures in it. The greater number of our painters, so far as we know, are open to the charge of producing less work *per annum* than the world has a right to expect of them. When, of the already too small amount of work done, a part goes elsewhere than to these galleries and another part is never exhibited at all, there is a difficulty, an insuperable difficulty, in the way of adequate criticism. It is impossible to be sure that the judgment which comes of examining a painter's work in the Academy exhibition would not be much changed if all his year's work could be seen. And, if it were not now too late to attempt it, an extensive examination of all the new pictures anywhere to be publicly seen would be the duty of the critical press.

Mr. McEntee, however, has three pictures at the Academy, and they are so able that it is good to believe they fully represent his present power as a painter. The merit of his pictures seems to be steadily in the ascendant. Of the almost complete truth of color which his former studies of autumn woods have shown, these present studies of autumn woods have lost nothing. They have, we think, all of the feeling for the mingled desolateness and beauty of the American autumnal landscape which Mr. McEntee's work has shown in past years. The sky in No. 356, "Woods of Asshokan," is singularly true in feeling; the foliage is almost right in color, especially in the distance, and we are not prepared to assert that in this one respect the picture could be improved by the knowledge or skill of any living artist. Beyond these merits, which have been merits of nearly all Mr. McEntee's pictures these few years past, there is a care for detail in these and a respect for accurate drawing for its own sake—or rather for the sake of the things drawn—which we are sincerely glad to see. The foreground in the above-named picture is a great advance beyond anything of this painter's we have ever seen, especially in the care given to the little plants—lobelia, ferns (dry and yellow), and little maple saplings with crimson leaves. The advance is

in McEntee's own line, too, nothing borrowed of any one else or studied in any one else's way, but nature looked at and drawn as this painter has always looked and drawn, but more carefully and more truly. In saying this we have no intention of calling the drawing of tree form absolutely right; it is by no means wholly right, but mannered and often visibly wrong. And even a better picture than this would suffer from such a blot as that in the lower left-hand corner of the picture above named, where some pine bushes, just at the edge of a brook, are wholly ignored by the water, whose reflections, otherwise truthfully represented, are wholly uninfluenced by the green mass just above them. This hurts the effect as well as the truthfulness of the picture. The brook is otherwise very charming. No. 392, "October in the Kaatskills," we think inferior to the former picture, though its characteristics are the same. The peep of sunlight, illuminating both a spur of the mountain range and a nearer and much lower hill, is very charming. But this is in no respect an adequate rendering of the mass and the details of form of the Catskill range. It happens that good mountain drawing is a specialty of the best American landscape painters, and beside the *best* mountain drawing, Mr. McEntee's is very imperfect.

No. 449, "Flight of the Birds," is also a pleasant landscape, smaller than the two above named. A tree almost without leaves is in the foreground, its naked branches covered with birds preparing for their migration, and a scattered column already on its march. About these birds there is one thing noticeable, the mingling together in this mustering for the march of birds of so many different kinds, blue birds and red birds, yellow birds and gray birds. Individuals of many species are included in this gathering of the clans. To justify as natural this statement—and not less to declare it wholly impossible—would require a very close and accurate knowledge of the ways of birds.

Mr. C. C. Griswold sends two pictures; the larger is another winter picture called "The Last of the Ice," No. 312. A stretch of what seems the Hudson River is shrouded in mist, lifting a little from the surface of the water but wholly concealing the hill-tops, the profiles of the hills dimly seen below, and lost in nothingness above. On a low shore in the near foreground are broken cakes of ice aground, and a few, water-soaked and floating deeply, are drifting with the tide. There is, perhaps, something too little incident for so large a canvas. But the painter's strength comes to him and his success is assured when he touches his favorite rocky bank and cedars again; here it is, in the middle distance and at the extreme left. It is no wonder he loves that subject; it is worth painting, and he has painted it wonderfully well. A scribble of his of a winter hill side, in oil color, on a bit of paper, is worth more than pictures by many men. Green pictures he has not yet painted with great success, but No. 463, "A Summer Picture," is very beautiful in all except the near foreground. The belt, so to speak, of middle distance, ending with the white house on the right, is charming. But that unfortunate spotty tree in the foreground, beneath which we see the white house, and the mulleins still nearer, hurt the whole picture. It is more welcome to us than the larger one, however, and one of the few good because thoughtful landscapes in the exhibition.

In comparing the memory of Mr. Brevoort's study, exhibited last fall, which we have not seen since, with the presence of the two pictures now in the North Gallery, the advantage is with the study. It was purer and truer in color than these are, and better, we think, in other respects as well. There is something peculiarly disagreeable in the tone of color, especially, of No. 215, "Haymaking." We do not use the word "leathery," as it seems to lack exactness of meaning when applied to color, but it has been used of the prevailing color of this picture, and it is evident what it is intended, in this case, to mean. Natural landscape was never pervaded by the yellowish-brown tone of this picture, and it is a false and misdirected operation of the artist's mind to alter nature in this way, out of which no beauty comes nor knowledge. The other picture, No. 167, "In the Farmington Valley, Conn.," is a more interesting picture, though the sky is probably less carefully studied. We sincerely believe that Mr. Brevoort is going to succeed, but it is not success this spring.

Mr. Cropsey has painted several panoramic pictures of late years, all open to the charge of being too scattered in interest, too unharmonious, an aggregate of small and incoherent parts, but generally worth study part by part. The large "Gettysburg" this year, No. 409, is as panoramic as those which went before. One walks along in front of it using many points of sight. But it is otherwise almost wholly below Mr. Cropsey's standard. It is incredibly bad in color. Anything worse than the sunset light on trees and buildings there is not in the exhibition, among works of men of any merit. This is at its worst in the very centre of the picture, at the foot of the flag-staff in the foreground. There is no delicacy of drawing to be found anywhere on the broad canvas. But the rest of the picture seem quiet and refined in contrast with the rumpled flag, which neither floats nor flutters nor blows out nor falls, but crinkles and gets "mussed" in the summer breeze. We are heartily sorry to see this picture here, and wish the committee had been kinder to Mr. Cropsey and sent it back for his further consideration.

It is a very great evil, the painting of very large pictures with very little thought in them. And the evil is greater where not only the amount of canvas covered, but also the amount of labor given, is in excess. The picture last named has very little in it; a great many trees, indeed, a great many houses, a big flag, and a couple promenading, but all very uncommunicative, with very little new or interesting to say. All could have been better said in a canvas two feet long; better, because, with no greater excellence, the defects would not be so evident nor the faults so glaring. "But it is a historical landscape, a picture of the great National Cemetery at Gettysburg, famous from the noble words of our dead President spoken at its dedication." Not so; it has none of the importance of a historical landscape; we have yet to learn that a bad account of great events is true history, or that an inferior picture of a somewhat interesting scene, around which scene historical associations cluster, is necessarily historically valuable. The historian makes but a poor figure unless he is filled with thought and sympathy for his subject; now it is not a profound thought or a ready sympathy that has gone to the making of this large picture; neither of the landscape itself, nor the clustered graves of soldiers, nor the national flag, nor the human figures that blot the right hand foreground.

Mr. Cropsey is a better painter than he would have the world believe.

We notice with pleasure Mr. D. Neal's picture, No. 149, "Interior of St. Mark's, Venice." The interior of that loveliest of churches—roofed with gold, floored with agate—enclosed with walls of half-transparent alabaster—is a subject for the painter of importance and difficulty almost equal to out of-door nature itself. We do not say that Mr. Neal has perfectly rendered the mellow gloom of the dusky interior, the purple flushes that come and go around the precious shafts and along the alabaster-sheathed piers.

A score of painters have tried and failed to do that. But Mr. Neal's picture is the best view of the interior we have yet seen, giving an adequate idea of the construction, appearance, and size of the strange building, and portraying with singular sympathy and success the Byzantine mosaics of the vaults. To those who know the interior of St. Mark's well and feel its beauty this picture would be of little use, but the many who have never seen or scarcely looked at it may learn much of it from the canvas before us.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday Evening,
May 17, 1866.

THE markets are kept in a feverish condition by the war news from Europe. Cotton has declined in Liverpool to 12¾d. to 13d. for middling uplands. A week ago the decline abroad led to a corresponding concession by holders here; but since then telegraphic advices of a heavy falling off in the receipts at the Southern ports, coupled with "bear" predictions respecting the yield of the new crop, have imparted fresh activity to our market, and an advance of 1 to 2 cents has been realized. Cotton is now considerably higher here than in England. So are all kinds of breadstuffs and provisions, and in the case of some descriptions the difference leaves a margin for profit on importations from Europe. Two cargoes of American wheat arrived here a week ago from Liverpool and were sold yesterday at a fair profit. American lard is likewise coming here from Great Britain. The country is thus without the means of paying its debts to Europe by the shipment of its staple exports, and in their absence gold is going forward. Yesterday about $3,500,000 in coin and bars were shipped, and on Saturday a further considerable shipment is expected. Exchange on London rules at 109⅝ to 109¾ for bankers' bills.

The renewal of specie shipments would have led to a smart advance in the premium on gold but that the Treasury Department appeared in the market as a seller. A million or so was sold on Tuesday, and about six millions yesterday at 130⅛ to 130¼. This checked the upward tendency of the market. Opinions vary with regard to the policy of these Government sales. There are many who charge the Government officials with speculating upon their knowledge of the purposes of the department; but thus far there is no evidence that the public interests have suffered by the operations—if there have been any such—of the parties "within the ring."

Money continues a drug; call loans are 4 to 5 per cent. Should Government continue to sell gold, the banks would lose greenbacks enough to make a change in the market. The report of the investigating committee on the Merchants' Bank of Washington is anxiously looked for. It seems monstrous that Government should be paying 4 to 5 per cent. interest for money which it leaves free of interest in the national banks, which, in their turn, lend it to speculators at 5 to 6 per cent. It is whispered that part of the very money which Government left with the Merchants' National Bank was used to effect the late corner in Michigan Southern. Reform in this branch of the administration is essential, or a financial crisis will soon become inevitable.

Stocks have been rather more active within the past day or two. Governments have been generally lower on sales of bonds imported from abroad or to arrive. Old 5-20s sold as low as 101¼, rallying afterwards to the price given in the table. A clique movement in Erie forced up the price on Monday to 76, but at the advance the buyers realized and the stock fell back at once. The May earnings thus far show a falling off not less than that of April. Central was rushed up to 94 yesterday on purchases by a new party. To-day it sold as high as 94½. Pittsburg and Fort Wayne are firmly held. Rock Island is weak; the holders are evidently willing to let the public have as much stock as they need. Active fluctuations take place in the lighter fancies. Canton rises steadily; sold as high as 62. Boston Water Power, which was 36 a week ago, was quoted yesterday at 43½, and this morning at 41. Cumberland jumped up this morning to 49, but was afterward done at 47½. On the other hand, Mariposa Preferred, which sold at 25¼ ten days since, was done yesterday at 19⅛, and Western Union Telegraph, which was 64 to 65, sold yesterday at 58. The ease of money tempts speculators to buy for the rise, but when they try to sell the absence of any substantial consumptive demand for stocks becomes very apparent.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 10.	May 14.	May 17.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	109⅛	109	108¾	....	¼
5-20 Bonds, old	102	101⅞	101¾	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	102	101⅞	....	⅛
10-40 Bonds	95⅞	96	96	...	....
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅛	102⅛	102⅛	....	....
New York Central	92⅞	92¼	94⅛	1⅞	....
Erie Railway	73¾	73⅝	73⅝	....	....
Hudson River	109¾	109⅛	109⅛	....	....
Reading Railroad	107⅛	107⅛	107⅛	....	....
Michigan Southern	78⅞	80	79⅝	....	⅜
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	82¾	84¼	84⅛	¼	....
Chicago and North-western	29⅛	28¾	28⅜	....	⅜
" " " Preferred	60¼	59	58¾	....	¾
Chicago and Rock Island	95½ex. d	94¼	93⅝	....	⅝
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	99¼	99	98⅛	....	⅛
Canton	58½	61	61¾	¾	....
Cumberland	45	45¼	47¾	2¼	....
Mariposa	12¾	12¾	12⅛	....	⅛
American Gold	129½	130⅛	130	....	⅛
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅛	109⅝	109⅝	....	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

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Assets, 1st Jan., 1865,	3,765,503 42
Liabilities,	77,901 52

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1866.

TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

MUTUAL

LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

For the year ending January 31, 1866.

FREDERICK S. WINSTON, PRESIDENT.

OFFICE,

144 AND 146 BROADWAY,

Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...			$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.			
For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same		$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions		20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium		53,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies		190,691 40	
Paid Annuities		10,342 55	
Paid Taxes		38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses		174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums		334,255 12	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank		$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages		7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)		4,468,921 25	
Real Estate		782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents		36,599 14	$14,112,349 85
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due		$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid		5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received		655,844 30	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775).	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, MAY 21, 1866. NO. 50

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Topics of the Day.

THE House Committee on Foreign Affairs is said to have been discussing some recent development of the Mexican question, and come to the conclusion that the Monroe doctrine must be sustained, so far at least as can be done by a decided moral support of the Liberal cause. Juarez seems to be supporting it by force of arms with far more efficiency than has been generally supposed. The letters of correspondents of all shades of opinion begin to give a very gloomy picture of the imperial prospects, but the action of our people and our Government in general has done not much to strengthen the hands of the Republican leaders, and the policy pursued of late by the State department has apparently done something to awaken them. Santa Anna's arrival, for instance, and the alleged good understanding between him and Secretary Seward, seem to have excited the jealousy of the Mexican minister, and, to all appearance, bode no good to the Republican cause and the Juarez party. It will be well if Congress gives some certain sign of the opinion held by the very great majority of the American people, which certainly, if it likes Maximilian not at all, likes Santa Anna and the Almonte party very little more.

ON the recommendation of the National Academy of Sciences, Congress passed recently a bill, which has since been approved by the President, providing for the issuing of a coin of the value of five cents, which shall supersede all paper fractional currency of a less denomination than ten cents. This coin is to be connected with the French metric system by its weight of five (Fr.) grammes, and its breadth of one-fortieth of a metre (39·37 in.). On Thursday the House passed promptly three bills providing that hereafter it shall be lawful throughout the United States to employ the weights and measures of the metric system; directing the Secretary of the Treasury to furnish each State government with a set of these standard weights and measures; and authorizing the President to appoint a special commission to negotiate with foreign governments for the establishment of a common unit of money, of identical value in all commercial countries which shall adopt it. These are very considerable strides in a direction towards which all Europe is tending, as we took occasion to show in No. 39 of THE NATION. England has gone so far as to legalize the metric system as the House of Representatives has just done; and it would be well if something like the action of the British Association for the Advancement of Science could be taken here. That body appropriated money to erect in conspicuous places mural tablets containing the metre and its subdivisions. Besides the most obvious conveniences likely to result from international agreement on the metric system, the aid that statisticians will derive from it is simply incalculable.

THERE seems to be a little hitch somewhere about Jefferson Davis's trial. It does not seem very clear whether the bill of indictment has been found against him with the view of getting him off scot free or having him punished, and there are mysterious disputes amongst the lawyers as to whether it will hold water or not when the trial comes on. In the meantime it is said or hinted that Chief-Justice Chase very properly hesitates about conducting a judicial proceeding of this character in a district still ruled by martial law, and that the President proposes to quiet his scruples by a proclamation declaring the civil courts to have exclusive jurisdiction in all things civil. With all deference to the parties concerned, we do not see how this would mend the matter. The civil law is either in force in Virginia or it is not. If it is, the President's proclamation is not needed to give the courts jurisdiction; if it is not, it is hard to see what the courts gain, either in security or dignity, by an order issued *ad hoc* and arbitrarily by the President. Suppose that, during the trial in Richmond, a case was to arise calling clearly for one of those displays of discretionary power to which the President is every week compelled to resort in other parts of the South, would he feel so far bound by his proclamation as to refrain from interference? This is the real question after all, and we know of no answer to it that can be called entirely satisfactory.

WE believe it is now no secret that a movement is on foot to procure the pardon of Ketchum, now confined in the State prison for the most extensive and perhaps least excusable batch of forgeries ever committed. There is hardly a crime to be found in the whole annals of fraud for which there was less to be said in palliation than his. And we do not know anything better calculated to encourage those lapses from honesty which have of late been so frequent amongst the young commercial men of this city than the extension to him of either mercy or indulgence. Moreover — and this is a still more important consideration—we know of nothing better calculated to shake the confidence of the poor in the administration of justice than the success of an effort made by rich men to save Ketchum from the fate he has merited, and everything which shakes this confidence is a public calamity. We trust that the governor will do his duty in this matter whenever it comes before him, and that all who profess a regard for either public or private morality will not only not sign any petition on the subject, but discourage others from doing so.

JUDGE ABELL, of Louisiana, has decided the Civil Rights Bill to be unconstitutional, on the ground that the two-thirds vote by which it was passed over the veto of the President was not the vote of two-thirds of the Senate, the members from the Southern States being absent. He also objects to it on the general ground that it is an exercise of power not conferred on the general Government by the constitution. He adds that he also refuses to be bound by it as an act of "duty to his State." A considerable portion of the decision is in the nature of a stump speech. It is valuable, however, as showing the course things will run in the South until the act has been passed upon by the Supreme Court of the United States.

THE lack of variety in our editorial pages to-day is plainly accounted for by the heavy demands upon our advertising columns.

THE commission named in a joint resolution of Congress to select a site for a Post-office in this city, has been approved by the President. We notice with satisfaction that Dr. Schultz, President of the Board of Health, is one of the number, because we trust that he will be disposed to secure that comprehensive consideration of all the changes in the present plan of the city and arrangements of business which ought to be had in connection with a change in the locality of the Post-office. We should, for instance, much regret to see any portion of that piece of waste ground called the City Hall Park taken for the purpose, unless such a change were at the same time made in the plan of all the area within the lines of buildings surrounding it, that a more convenient Post-office would be among the least of the advantages we should have to set off against the curtailment of the only ground in the interior of the lower part of the town where there is any chance of our holding a respectable breathing place for posterity. As we advance in civilization and this space is made available, by suitable improvements, for its proper use, its limited extent will be more and more regretted.

WE regard Mr. Donnelly's resolution, offered in the House of Representatives on Friday, and looking to the planting of woods and forests in the timberless plains of the West, as one of the most useful measures proposed this session. The planting would have an important effect on emigration, of course, and in the lapse of time would undoubtedly bring about alterations in the climate and temperature of those regions. We presume the Committee on Public Lands, to whom the resolution was referred, are familiar with Mr. Marsh's book on "Man and Nature;" but if they are not, they will find it a helpful guide in their enquiries, and an encouragement to report the necessary legislation.

THE relation between the gas companies and the public continues unchanged. The former have met with no success in their experiments, but are, they pretend, willing to adopt any plan which the Board of Health may suggest, or even to offer a considerable prize to any one who will prevent the escape of noxious vapors from their works. Perhaps the remedy, after all, is *Punch's* for the prevention of railroad accidents; and we suggest as a "plan" for the Board, that it should compel the directors to live in the area affected by the nuisance, and as near as possible to the gas factories; or, as the companies have an advantage over the public, since to suspend their operations is to darken the city, let the Board cut off the gas from the directors whose residences are in town, until the purity of the atmosphere bears some proportion to the purity of the companies' intentions, or until coal gas is superseded altogether by petroleum gas, according to the promises and expectations of a new corporation.

THE Spaniards have bombarded Callao and been beaten off, it is said, with heavy loss. It seems probable that this continued tide of disaster and humiliation will bring the Government at home to its senses, and put an end to one of the paltriest and most barbarous wars of the century. Five years ago Spain seemed reviving; judging from the events of the present year, there are still lower depths awaiting her.

THE news from Europe will now be awaited with considerable anxiety, as it is reasonable to look by every mail for the outbreak of hostilities in Italy. The last steps taken by the Italian Government were of such a nature as to leave very little doubt that it counted confidently on the co-operation of Prussia in an attack on Austria. Whether Prussia draw the sword at once or not makes for the moment very little difference to Italy. As long as she threatens to do so, Austria will be compelled to keep the bulk of her army in Germany, leaving Italy tremendous numerical odds on the Po. But then the famous "Quadrilateral" may, with all the garrison Austria can throw into it, defy everything but a blockade. A blockade is tedious, and time is now the worst enemy of Italy. Her army is enormous, her finances in a condition little short of desperate, and her people are in one of those excited moods in which failure is apt to breed despair. It remains to be seen if the new nation has acquired during its six years' independence that magnificent indifference to immediate results, and magnificent faith in the future, without which no great struggle was ever yet carried to a successful issue.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 19, 1866.

EVERY one will be glad that a bill has received the sanction of Congress for the revision and consolidation of the laws of the United States. These statutes at large now make twelve ponderous volumes in octavo. It is thought that by omitting the obsolete statutes, and codifying the remainder, our national law may be compressed into a single volume of quite portable dimensions.

The recent debates in the House upon the constitutional amendment were notable for the superior spirit and condensation of the speeches, in most instances. This praiseworthy result is attributable simply to the adoption and strict enforcement of the half-hour rule. If the rule could only be made universal, our Congressional eloquence would speedily gain in quality what it would lose in quantity—a consummation devoutly to be wished.

The tug of war upon the reconstruction amendment begins in the Senate on Monday. There will be no flinching from the rugged issue in that body, though it may be that some amendment of the disfranchisement clause will be carried, in the hope of presenting a cleaner issue to the people.

DIARY.

May 16.—In the Senate, a bill was offered to transfer the Indian Bureau from the Department of the Interior to the War Department. The consular appropriation bill was debated and amended.

In the House, a bill was passed to provide for the safety of the lives of passengers on board steam vessels. Several private bills were passed, and the tax bill was discussed in detail and amended.

May 17.—In the Senate, a bill was passed to punish the carriage of nitro-glycerine by passenger vessels. Also, a bill granting lands in aid of a railroad from California to Oregon. The consular and diplomatic appropriation bill was passed. The West Point Military Academy appropriation bill was passed, after striking out the clause prohibiting appointments of cadets from the rebel States, and inserting a prohibition of the appointment to the Military or Naval Academy of any person who served in the army of the rebellion.

In the House, a bill was passed providing that it shall be lawful throughout the United States to employ the weights and measures of the metric system. Also, a resolution authorizing the appointment of a special commissioner to facilitate the adoption of a uniform coinage between the United States and foreign countries. The tax bill was debated and amended.

May 18.—In the Senate, the day was spent on the pension laws and private bills.

In the House, the Senate bill to punish kidnapping for the purpose of enslaving was passed. Mr. Schenck reported, from the Committee on Military Affairs, a bill to equalize the bounties of soldiers. The remainder of the day was spent on the tax bill and on District of Columbia business.

May 19.—The Senate did not sit. In the House, speeches on the state of the Union were made by Messrs. Morris, Patterson, Newell, and Ross.

THE FREEDMEN.

IN the conferences which Generals Steadman and Fullerton are holding with the colored people in their tour through the South, there is a uniform desire expressed by the latter for the retention of the Bureau, whose officers are generally approved as well-meaning and upright. At Wilmington, when General Steadman asked whether they would prefer that the Bureau or the troops should be withdrawn, they answered unanimously, the troops. Among the obvious reasons for this choice, the privilege of schooling was not the least. At Norfolk, one of the committee (four or five are usually selected for convenience as spokesmen) was asked by the same General: "The duties of the Bureau must be turned over to the civil courts; had this better be done while the military remain?" He replied: "I think it best to get the Virginia courts in the habit of doing us justice *now*, while the military are here; *then* it will be much easier for them after the military are withdrawn." And General Steadman said: "I think your proposition a very sensible one."

—Capt. Geo. O. Glavis, formerly a U. S. A. chaplain in the military hospital at Newark, N. J., has written a letter from Goldsborough, N. C., to Secretary Stanton, refuting certain charges against himself contained in the report of Generals Steadman and Fullerton as published in the New York *Herald*. Their personal examination of him did not last longer than ten minutes, and the company they kept, while in town, he thinks was not favorable to impartial or exact conclusions about the workings of the Bureau.

—The two commissioners have reached Savannah. They are reported to have detected frauds in the Sea Islands on the part of planters, who, for instance, charge their hands $3 a bushel for corn which cost but thirty cents.

Notes.

LITERARY.

The late election to fill the chair of M. Dupin in the French Academy resulted in the choice of M. Cuvillier-Fleury. Only two other candidates were proposed, M. Henri Martin, author of the well known history of France, which has several times been crowned by the Academy, and Count Franz de Champagny, the author of a history of the Cæsars which is favorably criticised in the last number of the "Dublin Review," of the school of Montalembert, and once editor of the "Revue Contemporaine." Champagny was supported by *Le Constitutionnel*, but received only one vote, that of Lamartine. Eleven voted for Martin, including Cousin, Feuillet, Legouvé, Merimée, Mignet, and Sainte-Beuve, while Cuvillier-Fleury had twenty votes, the most noteworthy of his supporters being Guizot, Montalembert, Prévost-Paradol, and Villemain. Thiers would have voted for Martin, and Berryer for Cuvillier-Fleury, but both were kept away by their duties in the Corps Législatif. The rule which prescribes that the choice of the Academy must lie between those men only who have gone through a formal candidature and have made personal visits to each member to solicit his suffrage, often works injury to the reputation of the Academy, when, as in this case, no persons of great merit are willing, of their own motion, to undergo the ordeal of a candidature. Modest merit is left in the background, and eminent scholars and writers are passed by. Few men are willing to try again after one rejection, unless sure of success. Alfred-Auguste Cuvillier-Fleury was the preceptor and secretary to the Duc d'Aumale, and was for many years one of the chief writers on the staff of the *Journal des Débats*. Several of his sketches of men and manners during the later years of the reign of Louis Philippe have been collected into volumes. In 1851 he published "Portraits Politiques et Révolutionnaires," and in 1854, "Etudes Historiques et Littéraires." His success was owing to his legitimist principles and to his connection with the *Journal des Débats*, a large force of the writers for this paper having preceded him to the Academy. By the death of Clapisson a seat in the Académie des Beaux Arts is vacant. Gounod, Felicien-David, Massé, and Maillard are mentioned as the candidates.

—"Les Apôtres," the second volume of Renan's History of the Origin of Christianity, has been published in France, and the first part of a German translation is also out. In an introduction of some length the author defends himself against the cross-fires to which he has been subject, and explains the system on which he has proceeded in the present volume. A new edition of the "Vie de Jésus" will shortly be issued, with an appendix containing a detailed reply to his antagonists and a full statement of his reasons for accepting the fourth Gospel as genuine. "The Apostles" contains the Christian history from 33 to 45 A.D., from the death of Christ to the chief mission of St. Paul. A third volume, "St. Paul," will complete the work. The most remarkable portions of this volume, in a literary point of view, are the description of Antioch in the twelfth chapter, and the whole of the seventeenth chapter on the state of the world about the middle of the first century. This chapter is said to have given great offence to the French liberals, on account of the statements concerning freedom of thought and action under the Empire and the reflections on the influence of absolute power on philosophy and literature. It is so customary for certain persons in France to see a modern allusion in every book touching on Roman affairs, that truths as evident as these cannot be stated without bringing on the writer accusations of Cæsarism and of an attempt against liberty. The sale of "The Apostles" is, of course, not so large as that of the first volume, which fact is wittily explained in *L'Evénement* by the old proverb, "Il est mieux de s'attaquer au bon Dieu qu' à ses saints."

—A very remarkable literary imposture has just been discovered and exposed in England. A MS. journal of travels, purporting to be written by George Ludwig von ——— (the name had been carefully erased), was found in 1859 in the archives of the Military Topographical Dépôt at St. Petersburg. The German traveller professes to have been employed by the East India Company early in the present century (the MS. is dated 1806) to purchase horses for the use of the army. Starting from Srinagur, the capital of Cashmere, on the 8th of May, on the 9th he passed in sight of an active volcano, Darumudan; on the 10th crossed the Indus, and reached Kashgar on the 12th of June. Here he bought 132 horses and despatched them to Bengal with Lieut. Harvey and eight Sepoys. The lieutenant and the Sepoys were murdered on their way by Mahrattas. He, himself, travelled about the little known of regions and visited Khokand, Turkestan, and Samarkand, but, finding his exit to the north impeded by the Kirghiz tribes, he returned after about a year's absence to India. A dispute arose with the East India Company in regard to the payment for the horses that had been captured, and as a result his journal was offered and sold to the Russian Government. The MS. is elegantly written, accompanied by forty sketches of the country and numerous tables of astronomical positions. A translation into French was also found, with several maps of the regions visited. The work is very circumstantial, giving full details about the inhabitants productions, and physical features of a country then entirely unknown, and even now rarely visited in some parts by Europeans. The faithfulness of the journals deceived the Russians, and it was made the basis of their official maps as well as of those of Kiepert of Berlin, and Stanford of London. A memoir on the Pamir region, by Veniukof, published in the journal of the Imperial Geographical Society in 1861, first brought it to the knowledge of English geographers. Sir Henry C. Rawlinson investigated the subject and made his report at a recent meeting of the Royal Geographical Society. Numerous statements in the baron's journals were at once seen to be improbable and untrue—the whole description of Kashgar, which has since been often visited; the alleged volcano in a country which shows no traces of volcanic action, and the fact that few names correspond to the present names of the places mentioned. The impossibility of performing the journey to the Indus in two days and to Kashgar in twenty-five days was at once fatal to the narrative. There are no horses in those mountainous regions but ponies, unfit for cavalry service; and no Lieutenant Harvey was known to be in the East India Company's service at that time, neither is there any record of such journeys or expeditions. Indeed, it would have been perfectly impossible at that time to have traversed as peaceful travellers, with instruments and note-books, countries which even now are very dangerous. There seems no doubt, after Sir H. C. Rawlinson's investigation, that the whole journal is an ingenious hoax played on the Russian Government, which has always been eager for details with regard to Central Asia, and was especially so in the early part of this century, during the alliance between Alexander I. and Napoleon.

—Among recent books on art history and criticism the "New History of Painting in Italy from the Second to the Sixteenth Century," by J. A. Crowe and G. B. Cavalcaselle, holds a very important place. The third volume of this work has just been issued by Murray. It contains the painters of the earlier part of the sixteenth century, beginning with Luca Signorelli, famed for his anatomical knowledge, and ends with Andrea del Sarto, who died in 1531, "a little fellow," said Michael Angelo to Raphael, "who will bring sweat to your brow if ever he is engaged in great works." Perugino and Frà Bartolommeo fall within the limits of the volume. The indexes, illustrations, and catalogues of pictures are elaborated with very great care, and for its trustworthy narrative and its sound criticism the book is of great authority. Messrs. Smith, Elder & Co. have just published "A Century of Painters of the English School, with Critical Notes of their Works and an Account of the Progress of Art in England," by Richard and Samuel Redgrave. Mr. Richard Redgrave is a Royal Academician, and is the surveyor of Her Majesty's pictures and inspector-general for art. "Essays on Art" is the title of a little book by Mr. Francis Turner Palgrave, a collection of newspaper criticisms, published chiefly in the "Saturday Review." They have all been revised and some rewritten, and are not so open to the charge of having "a note of provinciality" as was the hand-book which Mr. Matthew Arnold alluded to in his essay on the "Influence of Academies." This book is worth reading, as giving a sketch of contemporary English art by a sympathetic, though not always trustworthy, critic. The principal papers are on the three last exhibitions of the Royal Academy, on Mulready, Dyce, William Hunt, Holman Hunt, Madox Brown, Triqueti's "Marmor Homericum," and "Sculpture in England." Revised and rewritten criticism, such as is contained in this book, rightly bears the motto from Sainte-Beuve, "C'est à ce lendemain sévère que tout artiste sérieux doit songer." This book is announced for republication by Hurd & Houghton. M. Taine has given us the first instalment of his critical survey of Italian art in "Voyage en Italie," the first volume of which is out. It is a portion of the articles entitled "L'Italie et la Vie Italienne," now being published in the "Revue des deux Mondes," and includes criticisms on the art works of Naples and Rome, as well as some very suggestive accounts of Italian life and thought.

—Several new books of interest are announced in England: "The Crown of Wild Olive, Three Lectures on Work, Traffic, and War," by Mr. Ruskin; "The Albert Nyanza, Great Basin of the Nile, and Explorations of the Nile Sources," by Samuel White Baker, with numerous maps and illustrations a new translation of "Homer's Iliad," by Sir John Herschell; the Globe edition of the poetical works of Sir Walter Scott, with a preface by F. T. Palgrave; the second and concluding volume of Miss Meteyard's "Life of

Wedgwood;" "The Memoirs and Correspondence of Field Marshal Viscount Combermere;" and a new story by the author of "Adam Bede," to be called "Felix Holt, the Radical," the scene being laid in the Midland counties during the excitement of the Reform Bill agitation.

—"Superstition and Science" was the subject of a lecture recently delivered by Prof. Charles Kingsley before the Royal Institution in London. In his analysis of the subject, Mr. Kingsley considered fear as the sole cause of superstition, which he confined within its narrowest limits, disregarding entirely wonder and imagination. The lecture was especially felicitous in its illustrations, but displayed all of the lecturer's old faults in analysis and treatment.

—The second volume of the Emperor Napoleon's "Histoire de Jules César" was to be published in both French and English on the 8th of May. It embraces the Gallic wars and extends to the passage of the Rubicon, with which it closes. This volume shows the important results of the numerous and extensive surveys and excavations made on the sites of Cæsar's battles and camps, especially at Alise (Alesia) and Puy d'Issole (Uxellodunum). The volume is accompanied by an atlas of thirty-two maps and plans. After detailing the Gallic wars, the Emperor gives a summary of the events and intrigues at Rome which ended in the elevation of Cæsar. The analogies which were thought to be seen in the first volume, between the state of Rome and France, are still further drawn out by the present volume, and the author acknowledges them in the foot-notes by reference to his own accession to power.

SCIENTIFIC.

Uses of Magnesia.—Apart from the interest which necessarily attaches to it as being the source of the metal magnesium, which is latterly coming into somewhat extensive use in the arts of pyrotechny and photography, magnesia is now attracting considerable attention in view of its great refractoriness as regards fire, and of the fact that it is capable of hardening, like hydraulic cement, when mixed with water.

Very strong and exceedingly infusible crucibles are now made in Paris, for scientific purposes, by compressing magnesia, and these bid fair to supersede for some purposes the lime crucibles which have been in vogue there during the past ten or twelve years. The magnesian crucibles are readily made and possess one very great advantage over lime crucibles in that they may be kept for a long time in the air without undergoing change. Even after they have been exposed to moist air for months, it is only necessary to heat them slowly in order that they may be used without trouble. Magnesia and lime resemble one another in that they are not prone to form fusible slags by uniting with oxide of iron; and in this respect they both differ essentially from silica, which is the predominant ingredient in ordinary crucibles and fire-brick. The suggestion has been thrown out in this connection that bricks made of magnesia would be valuable as material for the floors of puddling furnaces, since it is probable that the magnesian bricks would resist much longer than the usual silicious materials that solvent action of oxide of iron to which the linings of these furnaces are so much exposed. The cost of magnesia, which is now about fifty dollars the ton in Paris, must, however, prevent it from coming immediately into any very general use for metallurgical purposes.

Another property of magnesia, which is likely to find important technical applications, has recently been brought prominently into view by H. Deville. In this case, as in so many other previous instances, the observations of this acute chemist have thrown a flood of light upon several empirical facts and methods in chemical technology which have hitherto been exceedingly difficult of comprehension. It is a familiar fact that the common, light, powdery "calcined magnesia" of the apothecaries, which is prepared by heating the hydrous carbonate, yields no very tenacious product upon being moistened with water. But the more compact variety of magnesia, obtained by calcining the nitrate or chloride of magnesium at a bright red heat, possesses remarkable hydraulic properties. When wet it quickly combines with a portion of water, increases somewhat in bulk, and is converted into a crystallized hydrate of remarkably compact texture and of great durability. This hydrate is somewhat harder than marble, and is equally heavy and tenacious; when in thin layers it is translucent, like alabaster.

In preparing this magnesia very high temperatures must be avoided, for its hydraulic properties would be thereby impaired. After magnesia has been exposed to a white heat during ten or twelve hours, its hydraulic qualities seem to be well-nigh destroyed; for if this superheated product be reduced to fine powder and mixed with water it will not "set," and it will now harden only slowly when left for weeks exposed to the air.

A mixture of equal parts of the hydraulic magnesia and of chalk, or powdered marble, made into paste with water, yields a slightly plastic mass which admits of being readily moulded, and which, upon being placed in water, becomes after a time extremely hard and compact. By means of it M. Deville expects to be able to obtain busts, bas-reliefs, and like objects, in artificial marble, by casting; the hydraulic magnesian mixture being simply poured or pressed into appropriate moulds. One very important practical observation, to which the study of these mixtures of the hydraulic magnesia and marble directly led, relates to the degree of heat which ought to be maintained in the kilns in which dolomites or magnesian limestones are burned. It has long been known that many dolomites yield upon calcination hydraulic cements, though these products have generally been held in comparatively little esteem. But it now appears that if dolomites, tolerably rich in magnesia, be calcined at temperatures sufficiently low, there will be obtained products which rapidly "set" under water, and are converted into stone of extraordinary hardness. In Deville's trials the dolomite was heated to temperatures below redness, say to 600° or 700° Fah., these temperatures being, of course, very much lower than those of an ordinary lime-kiln. By this treatment the carbonic acid of the magnesia is alone expelled, while that which is in combination with the lime remains intact, or but little disturbed. After this gentle calcination there is really left a mixture of hydraulic magnesia and marble, such as has been mentioned above. In the final hardened product the particles of carbonate of lime will be found unaltered, precisely as in the stone prepared from artificial mixtures of magnesia and marble. If the dolomite be heated to temperatures somewhat higher than those given above, so that a small quantity of quick-lime is produced in the mass, the product will still be capable of "setting" under water, but when a pure dolomite is heated to redness the carbonic acid is all expelled from the lime as well as from the magnesia, and upon treating the product with water it will slake at once and fall to powder.

From some experiments made by Culvert, it appears that where a dolomite rich in magnesia contains also a considerable portion of silica, this last will combine with the lime and render it harmless. Silicious dolomites, then, may be heated even to redness and still yield products which are hydraulic; the hydraulic effect being in this case increased, according to Culvert, by grinding the product to fine powder immediately after the calcination.

Frost Figures.—A certain Herr Schulz, of Hamburg, has hit upon the curious idea of seizing, as it were, and rendering permanent the beautiful pictures which are formed by the deposition of hoar-frost upon our window-panes in cold weather. His experiments are interesting from a scientific point of view, as going to illustrate the power possessed by bodies in the act of crystallizing of enclosing, and even transporting, extraneous matter. In order to fix the frost picture, there is first sifted, through a fine hair sieve, onto an ordinary pane of glass a very thin layer of finely powdered enamel; the pane is then placed upon a thick plate of iron, which is cooled to a temperature of about eighteen degrees above zero. The whole thing is then thrust into a space filled with aqueous vapor. The vapor at once condenses upon the cold glass and forms frost pictures, the powdered enamel being at the same time taken up by these mechanically, so that the enamel-powder is arranged in the same forms as the particles of ice. The frost figures enclose enamel figures of precisely the same form, the enamel being in some sort the skeleton of the crystals, of which the hoar-frost is the flesh. The pane being now carefully warmed and dried, the enamel figures will still remain after all the water has been expelled, and on heating the glass to redness in a muffle furnace, the enamel can be burned into the glass; so that, as the final result, there will be obtained a transparent pane covered with representations of the frost figures done in enamel.

Coloring Matter of the Emerald.—Of late years doubts have arisen among chemists as to the cause of the beautiful green color of the emerald. After Vanquelin had detected the presence of oxide of chromium in specimens of emerald examined by him in 1797, and after the discovery of the fact that this oxide is capable of imparting a green coloration to vitreous substances, it was everywhere naturally admitted that oxide of chromium must be the coloring matter of the emerald. But in 1858 this view was contradicted by Lewry, a Danish chemist, resident in Paris, who, in an elaborate essay upon the occurrence and composition of the emerald of Muso, in New Granada, advanced the idea that the color of the emerald is not due to oxide of chromium, but is dependent upon the presence of a certain organic substance. According to Lewry the emerald becomes colorless upon being ignited Finding his last assertion to be incorrect as regards emeralds from other

localities, G. Rose and Wöhler have taken the trouble to re-examine the whole subject. They have subjected to careful analysis emeralds from the very locality from which the stones mentioned by Lewry were derived, and have found that these do not lose their green color upon being ignited; and as the final result of their investigation they have reached the conclusion that the green color of the emerald is, after all, really due to the presence in the stone of small quantities of the oxide of chromium.

A TOUCHSTONE FOR MASSACHUSETTS.*

We know no law for specialties and hobbies, nor, as we opine, is the human mind accountable for its choice of pursuits, however eccentric that choice may appear. It is as difficult to appreciate investigations for which we have no sympathy, as it is to explain the attractions which they had for men who were willing to exhaust their lives upon them. What is essential is, that this liberty of selection should continue and be respected, and that we should trust that in the divine economy no diligent enquiry will be wasted, though it concern itself with the leg of a fly or with a lacuna in the chorus of a Greek tragedy. The field of historical research is, for our short existence, both unlimited and illimitable; and as the past is never weary of giving up its dead, the record of the race is little better than a palimpsest, on which the writing of one generation is obliterated by the writing of the next, which in turn is destined to be buried under that of the third, and so on *ad infinitum*. In short, history is judgment subject to perpetual appeal, and the appellants, conscious and unconscious, are legion. The world sometimes finds them bores, sometimes disturbers of the peace. There are delusions which it is not comfortable to have detected. Why must Prof. Masson expose the daughters of Milton to be not the "rapt and reverential" scribes whom novelist, painter, and engraver have made a familiar group for us, but such unfilial creatures as to pawn their father's books, and to anticipate wistfully the arrival of his undertaker? Why must the French Emperor filch Cæsar from our list of despots, and insist on classifying him among the philanthropists? Why must Mr. Moore——— But we were about to beg the question.

Mr. Moore would, if interrogated, undoubtedly profess that religious regard for historic truth which inspires the Imperial biographer. He is careful to apologize at the outset that there is nothing in his book "to comfort pro-slavery men anywhere;" and he uniformly makes use of language which would exclude him from such disreputable company. But it is one thing to entertain sound convictions, another to write in a spirit attributable to the very opposite, and the lameness of the author's defence consists in his inability to see that these two things are perfectly compatible. His conclusions will, of course, comfort the enemies of emancipation, and so, also, we can assure him, will those secondary motives for which he has not chosen to account —an apparent jealousy of New England's pre-eminence and an aversion to Puritanism. These supply the bias which he lacked as an abolitionist or even as an antiquarian—and he is the latter more than an historian—so that he seems less anxious to obtain the simple facts about slavery in Massachusetts than to prove that the good name hitherto borne by that State is not only not rightfully hers, but ought to be exchanged for one in an equal degree infamous. It is to this end that he controverts Mr. Sumner, who declared, in 1854, that "no person was ever born a slave on the soil of Massachusetts," and "if, in point of fact, the issue of slaves was sometimes held in bondage, it was never by sanction of any statute law of colony or commonwealth;" and Mr. Palfrey, who repeats that "in fact, no person was ever born into legal slavery in Massachusetts."

According to Mr. Moore, "the first statute *establishing* slavery in America is to be found in the famous Code of Fundamentals, or Body of Liberties of the Massachusetts Colony in New England—the first code of laws of that colony, adopted in December, 1641." In order to show how he justifies this statement, we will quote the 91st section as he prints it:

LIBERTIES OF FORREINERS AND STRANGERS.

91. There shall never be any bond slaverie, villinage or captivitie amongst us unles it be lawfull captives taken in just warres, and such strangers as willingly selle themselves or are sold to us. And these shall have all the liberties and Christian usages which the law of God established in Israell concerning such persons doeth morally require. This exempts none from servitude who shall be Judged thereto by Authoritie.

This code was not printed till 1648, and the second printed edition of 1660, with subsequent typographical emendations, retains the foregoing section, differing notably only as follows: For the title, "Bond-slavery" was substituted, and the sentence after "just warres" was made to read: "or such as shall willingly sell themselves, or are sold to us." That is, the word "strangers" was omitted; designedly, as Mr. Moore insists, and with the effect of removing "the necessity for alienage or foreign birth as a qualification for slavery," and taking off "the prohibition against the children of slaves being 'born into legal slavery in Massachusetts.'" He adds, that the code "sanctions the slave-trade, and the perpetual bondage of Indians and negroes, their children and their children's children."

Had he confined himself to using the word "sanction," our difference with Mr. Moore would not have been fundamental; but elsewhere he has chosen to assert—and his argument hinges upon it—that slavery was "established" by the statute quoted. We shall remark, on the contrary, that the system arose naturally in Massachusetts, and in conformity to the then laws of conquest, when one of the parties to a war belonged to a "heathen" or, as we have since chosen to call such, an "inferior" race; that it began with the captured Indians, some of whom, like the Pequods, being troublesome to keep and not attempered to servitude, were shipped to the Bermudas and swapped for the negro slaves already there; that the publication of the code in question found Indian and negro slavery and the African slave trade already in existence, and provision was made that they should not be disturbed; that the code did not enumerate certain persons or classes who could only remain in the colony in a servile condition and must on no account be admitted to freedom; and that the construction of the disputed 91st section, even without the aid of the original draft, strictly pertains to a trade *from without*, and not within, the colony, and can only be distorted to sanction hereditary bondage. And believing that this is what Mr. Sumner and Mr. Palfrey both mean when they speak of being "born into *legal* slavery," we agree with them, although it is true that the issue of slaves were held as slaves, and probably by the Civil Law, which holds that *partus sequitur ventrem*, as well as by the prevailing custom in all the British colonies. The Code of Fundamentals "established" slavery and the slave trade in the same sense that the United States Constitution afterwards established them, and in no other.

It is probable, however, that one born a slave would have found it difficult, in the early days, to escape from service by appealing to the law. In 1783 the Legislature instructed the committee to report a bill "declaring that there never were legal slaves in this Government," and in 1796 Chief-Justice Dana instructed a jury that a native negro born before 1780 was of right born free; but in 1799 the same court gave a directly opposite decision. It is noticeable that the petitions of slaves were entertained by the Legislature, and their suits were admitted into the courts. What we observed on a former occasion, in reviewing the history of religious liberty in Massachusetts, is also apparent here: that the courts were more liberal than the General Court, and were the efficient agencies in abolishing slavery. How this overthrow was brought about, in reliance upon the preamble to the Bill of Rights of 1780, we have not space to describe. The judges willingly discovered an intention which was probably far from the thought of John Adams, who framed the Bill; and after the case of Quork Walker *vs.* Nathaniel Jennison, in 1781–2, no one who chose to be free needed to be bound in Massachusetts. Slavery was so clearly doomed that no strenuous effort was made to preserve it, and if no formal attempt to pronounce it abolished succeeded, it was perhaps in good measure for the same reason.

We are indebted to Mr. Moore for many interesting facts and important documents. In 1659 the General Court ordered two Quaker children, Daniel and Provided Southwick, to be sold, for non-payment of fines, to Barbadoes; but nobody was found willing to carry them thither. There was the usual prohibition of trading with negroes, and of manumission without a guaranty of support for the freedmen. There was, even in 1788, a vagrant law expatriating negroes, but it could not be enforced in 1800 under the stimulus of Gabriel's insurrection. Yet it was not repealed till 1843. The first census in Massachusetts was of negro slaves. When the census ordered by the United States was being taken in 1790, the marshal of the district was generally answered that there were no slaves; and when some professed to be slave-owners, he would ask if they meant to be singular, and, as they concluded not to be, no slaves were returned for any part of the State. The reverses of the Revolution were necessary to make the blacks acceptable as soldiers, as in the later experience of the rebellion. They were not by statute placed upon the footing of white citizens in regard to militia service till 1863. A Constitutional Convention in 1778 excluded negroes from the ballot, but the people voted down the constitution thus vitiated. James Somerset, the subject of Lord Mansfield's famous decision, was a negro slave from Massachusetts. The historic connection is a pleasing one, even after the statement of Lord Mansfield himself "that his decision went no farther than that the master cannot by force compel the slave to go out of the Kingdom."

* "Notes on the History of Slavery in Massachusetts. By George H. Moore, Librarian of the New York Historical Society and Corresponding Member of the Massachusetts Historical Society." D. Appleton & Co., New York. 1866. Pp. 206.

ADRIFT IN DIXIE.*

Lieut. Henry L. Estabrooks, of the Twenty-sixth Massachusetts Volunteers, was unlucky enough to be one of the two or three hundred prisoners captured by Early at the battle of Sept. 19, 1864, and at the close of the day was, in company with that general, sent "whirling through Winchester." A week later the young Union officer was herded with many other companions in misery in the Libby Prison, at Richmond; whence, in the beginning of October, he was transferred to a train on the Danville Railroad, to be conveyed to some more infamous place of imprisonment in the far South. A few miles north of Danville he succeeded in escaping from the train, and after a month of painful and hazardous travel, the incidents of which were scarcely less exciting than the creations of the novelist, reached the Union lines near City Point. Part of this journey was made in a dug-out down the Dan River to its confluence with the Staunton at Clarksville, from which place he travelled on foot to his destination, traversing the heart of that portion of southern Virginia which lies east of the Alleghany Mountains. Upon reaching home, Lieut. Estabrooks wrote out from recollection a tolerably full narrative of his escape, which is embodied in the book before us. It is such a plain, unvarnished tale as a man who has endured a month of perilous adventure and constant excitement would indite while the incidents are still fresh in his mind; and it is apparently told in nearly the same form and language as when first related at the family fireside. As a record of singular coolness, sagacity, and endurance in a young man, the volume will attract attention, and none will doubt that the author well deserved the liberty which was the reward of his trials; but to a large class of readers its chief interest will consist in the accounts it presents of the feelings, disposition, and moral and intellectual development of the negro population of southern Virginia. These, from the simplicity of the narrative and the homely directness of the style, seem thoroughly trustworthy, and must prove a valuable addition to the evidence bearing on the same subject already collected.

Of several hundred colored men and women whom Lieut. Estabrooks encountered on his journey, not one refused him sympathy; scarcely one declined to add substantial aid to that sympathy, some even offering him money; and he heard of but one who would be likely to betray him. Go where he would, he found the colored people, bondmen or free, in general well informed of the character which the war had by that time assumed, and able to distinguish between friend and foe. So fully did they seem prepared for just such occurrences as the escape of Lieut. Estabrooks, that his sudden appearance at their cabin doors at night, or at lonely places in the day time, caused little or no surprise; but, on the contrary, often developed a degree of sagacity and presence of mind in them to which on more than one occasion the young officer probably owed his life. In two or three instances only, from pure physical fear, colored men showed reluctance to secrete him or guide him on his way; and, considering the severity of the punishment which awaited them if discovered, it will be admitted that they had reason to hang back. But this only adds to the heroism of those who braved the risk of torture or death to aid the Yankee officer, of whom they knew nothing but that he was their friend. It has been customary to extol the fidelity and courage of the English royalists who harbored, at the risk of their lives and fortunes, the fugitive Charles Stuart when beset by his Roundhead pursuers; or of the Scottish Highlanders who, nearly a century later, performed the same office for another of the same family. In either case it was the foremost man in the realm for whom the risk was encountered. Should he escape, glory, honor, and riches, perhaps, awaited those who had befriended him; and, should they be detected, their punishment, according to the exaggerated notions of loyalty then fashionable, would reflect no less glory on themselves and their kindred. In place of an anointed king, substitute an obscure and needy fugitive, of whom nothing is known beyond the information afforded by himself, whom it is perilous in the extreme to succor, and for the succor of whom no more substantial reward than his gratitude may be expected, and it will be seen how much brighter shine the acts of the ignorant and oppressed pariahs of the South than those of English or Scottish royalists. Lieut. Estabrooks's case was not a peculiar one. Hundreds, if not thousands, of Union fugitives were aided in a similar manner by Southern slaves, but we have nowhere seen their services more directly and, it may be said, more unconsciously set forth than in the unpretending little volume before us; and it seems scarcely credible that any loyal man could arise from the perusal of it without feeling that the debt of gratitude to the colored people of the South has not yet been fully paid. If the negroes of Virginia may be supposed to fairly represent their class, the freedmen possess a degree of intelligence, courage, and devotion entitling them to a higher reward than mere freedom from bondage The volume is edited by Edmund Kirke, who has furnished an introduction, although from the lettering on the back it might be supposed that the whole work was his production.

* "Adrift in Dixie; or, A Yankee Officer Among the Rebels." New York: Carleton·

PARIS GOSSIP.

Paris, May 4, 1866.

So precocious a season as the present is not paralleled in the memory of "the oldest inhabitant." In some parts of foggy Albion the hay is already being carried; wheat and rye are nearly ripe in Belgium; here, strawberries have descended from the Olympian regions of the shop-windows of Cheact, Aubert, and their rivals, to those of ordinary greengrocers; and green peas are being hawked through the streets by itinerant venders. Asparagus has not yet descended quite so low, and is still too dear for any but well-filled purses; but it is of magnificent quality, and very large, though not quite rivalling its wonderful Brazilian congener—a yard long, thick as a man's arm, and edible down to the very root—which one wonders that no enterprising friend of humanity, in these days of acclimation, has yet bethought him of introducing into Europe. The following choice bit of French-English, extracted from the bill-of-fare book of one of the great feeding-places of the boulevards (which book, for the convenience of English customers, has just been translated into what is supposed to be the insular vernacular), shows both the progress of internationality in this region and the delicacies most in vogue at the present moment:

"Bill of Fares.—Patty of fatgoose's liver with truffles; soup with smashed chesnuts.—*Fish.* A Thornback with butter which is black.—*Entrées.* Four chops with asparagus tops; a blanket with mushrooms; trotters to a pullet.—*Roast.* A chicken of the year to small peas; asparagus hashed to little points; gelly whipt to a Russian.—*Dessert.* Strawberries, at will; conserves."

The month of May being dedicated, in Catholic countries, to the Virgin Mary, services in her honor are being held in all the churches, with choruses of sacred music sung by young girls dressed in white and blue, the Virgin's colors; the only occasions in which, according to the gallant traditions of the Romish ritual, female voices are allowed to take a recognized part in the services of the altar. All the children bearing the name of 'Marie' are considered as being placed under the special protection of the Virgin, and devoted to her service; very devout mothers of girls so named make it a point (if they can afford the great extra outlay thereby involved in the way of washing-bills) not to allow them, until they reach their fourteenth year, to wear any article of clothing other than white, with, perhaps, a few blue ribbons by way of ornament, and girls so named always choose the Virgin's chapel to say their prayers in, and are married therein when their "ascendants" have duly chosen a husband for them.

The annual fine art exhibition is just opened in the Industrial Palace of the Champs Elysées. The gathering is not considered as being exceptionally fine, but the crowds who there do congregate exceed in number those of previous years. As the Emperor and Empress go frequently to these exhibitions, and buy largely, it has become fashionable to spend an hour or two daily in the interminable galleries of the upper story of the structure which contained the international glories of 1855. It is said that the Government would be glad to sell this vast and costly building, if it could find a purchaser. The yet larger and more pretentious structure, at Auteuil—intended as a permanent industrial exhibition of all the products of the world—is also in the market, and seems likely to remain there indefinitely, to the sad disappointment of the unhappy shareholders, who have long ago renounced the brilliant prospects of gain held out to them in the beginning of the speculation, and would now be devoutly thankful to get back even a fraction of the money invested.

A good many splendid entertainments have been given during the last few days, the most remarkable being the great ball given by the Duke and Duchess of Bisaccia, in their magnificent Hôtel de la Rochefoucauld, and the dinner given to the Emperor and Empress by the young Duke and Duchess de Mouchy, followed by a *soirée dansante*, to which only a few spoonfuls of "the cream of the cream" of the fashionable world had the joy of finding themselves invited. Princess Clothilde, Princess Mathilde, the Crown Prince of Denmark, and some of the princely relatives of the young hosts, were alone invited to the dinner, which is said to have been a miracle of good taste and splendor, and at which, the affability of the two principal guests putting all the others at their ease, the conversation was as merry and animated as the cheer was *recherché*. The relatives of the duke were, at first, terribly shocked and scandalized at the prospect of a Noailles disgracing his illustrious lineage of heaven-knows-how-many cen·turies by an alliance with the mushroom ex-royalty of the Murats; and all

of them, with the exception of a sister of the late duchess and her two sons, made it a point of honor not to show themselves in the chapel of the Tuileries at the celebration of the marriage. On the return of the young couple from their honeymoon of ten weeks at the fine old Château de Mouchy, much curiosity was felt as to the sort of reception that would be accorded by the haughty representatives of a past *régime* to the charming granddaughter of the ex-King of Naples, when, in accordance with Paris custom, she made, with her husband, the usual round of wedding calls. The young duke had allowed it to be known that his mind was very decidedly made up on one point, viz.: that whoever of his relations or friends should be "not at home" when he brought his bride to their door should be erased from the "red-book" of the Hôtel de Mouchy for the remainder of his tenancy of that magnificent heirloom of his race. This decision appears to have had its desired effect; for during the week devoted by these young favorites of fortune to making their appearance before the greater part of the grandees of the "aristocratic faubourg," not one soul is said to have been "out" at the time of their call. Many of these sulky contemners of "the Revolution" must have winced a little at the idea of the grand Mouchy gala carriage, its stately coachman, and its lofty lackeys, bringing into the courts of their hotels the Imperial colors and liveries which the bridegroom had solicited and obtained the honor of being allowed to adopt, instead of those of the Noailles; but no one chose to cut himself off from the future fêtes over which Princess Anna would preside, and, accordingly, the whole faubourg had made up its mind to give no pretext for the infliction of the threatened penalty. The duchess being one of the most charming and amiable women of the day, as well as one of the handsomest, appears to have made a most favorable impression on all these people, and to have really melted away a vast deal of social iciness by her genial smile and the bright glances of her beautiful, honest blue eyes. The round of visits, which had been so much dreaded on both sides, thus passed off with the utmost *éclat*, and the young duke has the satisfaction of seeing his wife adopted by the traditional friends and allies of his house.

The Hôtel de Mouchy, in the Rue d'Astorg, is one of the finest private residences of Paris; large, ample, full of historic paintings and sculpture, containing one of the richest private collections of art and *virtù* to be found in Europe, and with courts, stabling, and gardens on a scale scarcely rivalled by any other of the fine old residences of this city. It is now undergoing extensive repairs, and the Empress has lent to the new pair, meantime, the beautiful house she recently built for her mother, at the corner of the Rue de l'Elysée and the Avenue Gabriel. It was in this charming hotel that the duke and duchess gave their dinner.

Nothing in the lives of the very highest personages of the social world offers a more striking contrast to the habits of the "new rich" than the quietness of their luxurious splendor. Go into the dwellings of the nabobs of finance, of the various fields of lucky speculation, and your eyes are dazzled by the brand-new splendor of every thing they encounter. In the residences of those whose ancestors, like themselves, were born with "the golden spoon in their mouths," the luxury is solid, old-looking, quiet, with the well-worn look of an appendage in every-day use. Nothing is locked up for special occasions; nothing—unless the owners are away—is kept under cover. The beautiful house in which the duke and duchess have set up their temporary housekeeping, though so new, looks, inside, as though it had been inhabited for a hundred years.

On alighting, in the inner court, at the semi-circular vestibule, with windows all round, from which you pass to the staircase, you are received by tall footmen, in gorgeous livery and with a mass of powder in their hair, who pass you on to another functionary of that class, by whom you are motioned to ascend; a signal, sent by him through a silver tube, as you mount the stairs, bringing out another of the radiant tribe from an ante-room above. The broad staircase is so thickly carpeted that the heaviest foot would fall inaudibly; the balustrade is of old carved oak and bronze, the walls are painted in panels, and the ceiling is painted and richly gilded in sunk compartments. The effect of age has been skilfully imparted to these paintings by the dark colors employed, and probably some particular varnish. A superb chandelier hangs above the staircase.

The Mercury who emerges into view as you approach the ante-room deposits your card on a silver salver, and ushers you into the drawing-room. You observe, however, that the ante-room, which seems to be part of the landing-place, for it has no window, is hung with dark blue silk, surrounded by a sort of divan, covered with velvet of the same color, extending all round it, with a table in the centre, covered with the same material, and a thick Turkey carpet on the floor.

The double drawing-room, in which the young princess usually receives her visitors, is hung with satin (you never see wall papers in houses of this class), of a shade between chocolate and liver; rich and quiet, the play of light on the satin preventing the gloomy aspect that would be presented by paper, or even silk, of so dark a shade. There are no folding doors between the two rooms; their places being occupied by heavy curtains of the same satin, looped up with thick silk cords. The magnificent chimney-pieces—their mantel-shelves covered with embroidery—are laden with immense clocks, candelabra, vases, and small objects of art. Several richly ornamented pieces of furniture are placed against the walls, in buhl, carved ebony, and Japanese laque; and both rooms are literally filled with luxurious seats of all shapes, kinds, and sizes. Divans, like the hangings, are placed against the walls; little sofas, squabs, *tête-à-têtes*, ottomans, arm-chairs, lounging-chairs, and chairs of every possible style, are scattered all over the rooms, grouped about tables of various size, just ready for visitors to drop into, and so well-disposed that the guests would find themselves, by the mere fact of their cosy distribution, naturally disposed to go off into "chat." The more massive of these seats are covered with the same satin as the walls and curtains; the more fantastic are covered with oriental silks, the ground of which is of the same color, and the pattern in gold and bright colors; several have gilded frames, and a few of sky-blue contrast pleasantly with the sober tone of the rest. The centre-table of the larger room is covered with a superb India shawl, with a very rich, deep fringe, gathered into a sort of drapery below the top. An immense oblong table of dark rose-wood stands before the great bay-window, laden with newspapers, writing materials, books, etc., and with chairs conveniently placed round it. All the other tables are covered with objects of art, elegant baskets or pots of flowers, photographs, little busts, work-baskets, crochet-cases, books, smelling-bottles, and an infinity of small, elegant objects, most of them things of every-day use, but all works of art in their own line. The duchess's favorite seat—a great lounging-chair, with a book-stand attached, foot-rest, and other ingenious conveniences—stands beside the fireplace, with her own table to the left of her chair. This "table" is a *multum in parvo;* being a happy combination of drawers, writing-desk, etc., and is covered with little busts and photographs of the Emperor and Empress, her parents, relatives, and friends; dwarfed plants in tiny baskets, and all the materials of her usual occupations.

But the glory of this most charming drawing-room is its enormous windows, forming a deep bay, extending along nearly the entire front of the room, and looking out not only on the beautiful garden of the hotel, but into the vast grounds of the palace of the Elysée across the street, with its immense and magnificent trees, and on the innumerable trees of the Avenue Gabriel and the gardens of the adjacent hotels, all of them full of trees, the largest of the city, excepting a few of those in the gardens of the Tuileries and Luxembourg. In order to allow of the full enjoyment of what looks like some wonderful leafy fairyland or sylvan arcadia, these great windows are hung with dark blue gauze, which softens the light but allows of the scene outside being distinctly visible between the curtains of satin and embroidered lace, which make, as it were, a series of frames to the various pictures presented by the windows.

The piano (the duke is an accomplished musician) is placed cornerwise in one of the angles of the front room; hidden by a screen of trelliswork, over which living ivy is trained, the roots of the ivy being planted in a narrow box of zinc at the bottom of the screen. Add to the "items" already described the pictures on the walls, the rich, dark panelling of the doors, with their sober "bits" of gilding, statues, and vases in corners all about the rooms, superb chandeliers of rock crystal and gilt bronze, and the well-used appearance of all these comfortable and luxurious elements of home life, and you will have a pretty good idea of the cosy elegance of the most fortunate young couple of imperial France. Of course, when a fête is given, various other rooms are thrown open, all brilliantly lighted, and gay with magnificent flowers. But in every-day life the beautiful drawing-room, with all its costly and luxuriant appointments, is the most quiet-looking and cosy of apartments, one in which you could sit down comfortably to any task which you might happen to have in hand, without feeling in any way restrained by the touch-me-not newness and gala-day finery of drawing-rooms of a lower rank, reserved for visitors and show.

As for the fair princess who therein holds sway, she will receive you during the day-time in a toilette of the utmost simplicity, and with an entire absence of pretension. On such occasions she will probably wear a plain black silk morning-dress, white collar and sleeves, a tiny cravat, sand-colored gloves, and her beautiful hair artistically but simply put up in a net, with no jewelry or finery, and only the ornament of her bright eyes, pleasant smile, and graceful manner, offering a very marked contrast to the elaborate "getting up" of rich women of a lower rank whose morning toilettes are now-a-days almost as costly and overladen as their evening ones.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE RECONSTRUCTION DISCUSSION.

MR. ROBERT DALE OWEN has published a long letter in the *Evening Post* setting forth a plan of reconstruction, of which the leading features are the establishment of universal suffrage at a certain fixed date, say 1876; and the alteration of the basis of representation not in the way proposed by the Committee of Reconstruction, which inflicts a penalty on every State requiring an intelligence qualification or imposing a poll-tax, but by simply excluding from computation all persons disfranchised by the States on account of race or color. He also urges the necessity of taking precautions not only against the repudiation of our debt, or the addition to it of enormous sums for the payment of Southern claims for damages sustained by the war—both of these things he looks on as wildly improbable—but against the mere discussion of them in Congress. The mere agitation of these matters, even if it had not the smallest chance of success, would, he rightly considers, be very injurious to the public credit; he therefore proposes that the subject should be for ever excluded from the political arena by a constitutional amendment.

Mr. Owen adds, however, that a proposition even for the bestowal of prospective suffrage on the negro would, in the opinion of the majority of Congress, cause the rejection by the people of any constitutional amendment in which it was embodied. He, therefore, surrenders this part of his plan, and contents himself for the present with securing the colored population in the enjoyment of civil rights, but presses for a change in the basis of representation and the final and formal repudiation of the rebel debt and all rebel claims.

Now it may be that the majority are right as to the unwillingness of the country at present to force negro suffrage on the South. That they should think so, is comprehensible; but that gentlemen who have this strong impression of the conservative tone of the public mind should have so little hesitation as they have shown in asking that same public to pass an amendment excluding nine-tenths of the Southern people from all share in the government for the next ten years, is not comprehensible. Of all the wildly radical propositions for the settlement of the Southern difficulty that have been made this is unquestionably the wildest and most radical, and yet it has been coolly presented to the House by a committee which does not dare to speak of universal suffrage, and has been passed by the House, with what, in spite of all that has been said of Mr. Stevens's dexterous use of parliamentary tactics, may be fairly called alacrity.

The great difficulty with which Thaddeus Stevens and those who think with him have to contend in advocating their plans for the punishment and pacification of the South, is that these plans are opposed both to the genius of American institutions and to the temper of the times; and they are, therefore, sure not to be tried, or, if tried, are sure not to succeed. Confiscation, disfranchisement, retaliation, proscription of all kinds, as means either of reconciling large bodies of men to a new and distasteful order of things or of frightening them into obedience or acquiescence, are expedients borrowed from mediæval or pagan times—expedients that fifty generations of tyrants and conquerors have tried, and found worthless; expedients which no man who reverences human nature, and who desires its elevation, will ever desire to see succeed. That piece of fierce invective in which Mr. Stevens poured forth his latest views with regard to the treatment which we should deal out to the Southern States, was but the utterance in a deliberative assembly of the opinions on which for thousands of years the statecraft of the Old World has been based, and by which two-thirds of the atrocities of history were instigated. There was nothing startling or strange about them except their production at such a time and in such a place. And they are certain to fail here, because our polity, our religion, our manners, our theory of government, of morals, and of human nature are but a series of protests against them. We have repudiated them as solemnly as men can do. If there be any principle at the base of our Government and society, it is that the great remedy for disaffection is equality, protection, and freedom of speech, and that there is no worse way of making men orderly and submissive to law than putting them under a ban or disability. There is in our legislation no place either for hate or revenge, and anybody who seeks to embody either one or other in it is false to the very spirit of our institutions. We therefore have no hesitation in predicting that the disfranchisement section of the proposed amendment will neither be passed nor carried out, and in asserting that those who now attempt to lay it before the country either have very little knowledge of its temper or very little respect for its understanding.

But for reasons which, if not the same, are somewhat similar, we do not understand the hesitation which Congress shows in asking the country to agree to anything which looks towards securing the freedmen the means of protecting themselves which are offered in universal suffrage. Nobody who has watched the tendency of the times, and who is familiar with the processes by which our people reach their conclusions on the great problems of society and government, ought to feel that the exclusion of negroes from the franchise, either in Connecticut or in any other State, is of much value as an indication of what the popular response would be one, two, or three years hence to a demand from Congress that the Southern disease should be cured by the destruction of all the barriers which excluded the loyal portion of the Southern population from a share in the Government. The greatest glory of the country and its most marked peculiarity is that an appeal to principles is nowhere so effective, that principles have a charm and fascination for the public such as have never anywhere else been witnessed, and that their triumph, though slow, is certain; that no public man and no party which has ever yet taken his or its stand upon them has failed to succeed. We are not so readily captivated by them as the French. We never run mad after an epigram or a definition. We examine, discuss, and hesitate a good deal, but once we discover the article to be genuine, we fasten on it tenaciously.

The fact, then, that there is not a single argument against negro suffrage which is not based on prejudice, is one of the grandest import in our statesmanship. The ignorance of the negro is remediable, and the remedy may be controlled by Congress. The popular dislike to him will doubtless last long after he has wiped off from himself the last traces of the degradation wrought by slavery, and the dread of having the general Government unduly strengthened by its efforts to better his condition in reality generally comes from men who are never troubled by any assumption of authority if only the "nigger" is not the object of it. All these arguments against it are based on things temporary, fleeting, and evanescent. Some of them people are already ashamed to use.

On the other hand, our theory of government, the popular conception of the mission of the Republic—a refuge for men of all races and all creeds, in which artificial distinctions should count for nothing, and in which the poorest and meanest should enjoy the same legal rights as the richest and best-born—the popular love of principles, the popular love of fair play, the national pride in its republicanism, in its equality, are all fighting in favor of the very thing which Congressmen are so afraid to touch. Negro suffrage may be a bad thing, an inexpedient thing, a thing that, if established, will prove the ruin of the country. Many people have the same feeling about democracy itself; but nothing can be more certain than that we shall yet see every man in this country, black, white, yellow, red, and brown, voting, no matter what the consequence may be. Every influence by which society is affected is helping to bring this about. The whole current of progress, physical and mental and moral and religious, runs in this direction, and the shrewd politicians are those who count on it, look for it, and proclaim its coming, and not those who are afraid to mention it.

A BURIAL SERVICE.

To this burying
We come alone—you and I,—not with our dead,
But with our dearest living; oh, could mortal tread
Be unfaltering!

God knows how we love it,
This we have come to bury; the eyes smile; life's best wine
The hands hold out! Darling, shall it be yours or mine
To lay the first sod above it?

But no decaying
Can reach it, in this sepulchre whose stone
Our hearts must make! To an exceeding glory grown,
This grief outweighing,

Not even regretting,
It will await us! Thank God, not being sown
In any dishonor, it will await its own,
Never forgetting!

To Christ's protection,
Now let us leave it,—the tomb—and the key! He
Will remember us, if there may ever be
Resurrection!

H. H.

ELEGANT ORATORY.

THERE are certain contemptuous vulgarisms not honored by a place in any dictionary which are yet indispensable to people who habitually listen to the stump speeches of this and other countries. Highfalutin is a useful term of this sort; Blow is another; Blatherskite is another; and there are many more in many different tongues. A purist would probably deny them the name of language. They are all the fitter then, we may say, to designate a jargon which itself is neither an instrument of thought nor a means of communicating thought. They are just the criticism, quite respectful enough and quite discriminative enough, to pass upon the true stump eloquence.

It is not particularly pleasant to know that the critic of Congressional eloquence also does sometimes, however much against his will, find some use for these same terms; to find that the rhetorical standard of the cross-roads is sometimes the only standard applicable to the honorable orator who speaks for a great State in the national councils or tries to rise to the height of some great national occasion. The house of Pogram is as surely and as rapidly disappearing as the forests in which its founder was bred. Even the Southern branch of the family is in its decadence. Yet, as we read the morning papers, we can see that once in a while one legislator or another diminishes the respect which we like to entertain for him, by some amazing burst of spurious eloquence, which is not agreeable if we consider the speaker alone, and wholly disagreeable when we reflect that, by mistake, a well-meaning man has done something to bring the nation into contempt. Considered in itself the thing may be amusing. For example, there seems to be no good reason in the nature of things why we should not lump together the old, familiar, Fourth of July bird of freedom, at which all Congressmen probably smile superior, and that recent wonderful steam engine, and give the two the same uncomplimentary epithet. And if we ever laughed at our national emblem in his Glorious-Anniversary attitudes, one pinion flapping far above Upper Canada and the other overshadowing the trembling halls of the Montezumas, screaming the death-knell of European monarchies as he soars majestically to his Rocky Mountain eyry, why—unless because he appears in Congress—should we refrain from laughter at the Pacific Railroad locomotive of Mr. Banks's late peroration? That triumph of art is to wend its slow foot, we are told, up the precipitous slopes of the same Rocky Mountain chain, and, as its foot is slowly wended, is to scream out the last requiem of the solid men of Boston!

Eagle and engine are much alike. Some of the resemblances between them are not perfect, to be sure. For instance, though both are ill-tempered apparently, the scream of the eagle, it has been truly said, "discounts the universe," while in the scream of the engine we detect "the note of provinciality;" the eagle soars westward and the engine walks; one hates monarchs and the other aristocrats. But in this, at least, they are alike—both are truly screamers; and the one, we contend, is as fine a specimen of pure high-falutin as the other.

Nor is this merely the slip of a moment on the part of one man only. Such speaking is believed to be elegant and powerful oratory. There are gentlemen in Congress grieved at not being versed in it, and other gentlemen who are complete masters of it and constant practitioners, and others again who rise in their seats and say in praise of fustian very similar to this that it is "gifted words" and a "splendid tribute."

A few days since the House was considering whether the grade of general should be revived, and, of course, the chief theme of the speakers was the character and services of Lieutenant-General Grant. It was a theme which one might have thought adequate in itself, of a nature to demand and to be best adorned by an honest and dignified rhetoric, earnest, sincere, and without pretence. It is only a year since the whole North was in an uproar of joy because victory had come at last. The strain of four years of anxiety was at an end, the sacrifices of four years of suffering and labor were all rewarded, and the most tumultuous expression of gladness was nothing to the depths of heartfelt satisfaction beneath. The death of Abraham Lincoln came afterwards, or we might still point to that memorable time when the Confederacy fell as the time when the hearts and minds of loyal Americans were most at one and most deeply stirred. And in all our exultation and content, Grant was the man whom we most delighted to honor. We remembered then the February which had added the name of Donelson to a roll of battles that before had held no names but Bull Run and Bethel and Ball's Bluff, and how ever since then the conqueror of that army and fortress, fighting at Shiloh, at Vicksburg, at Chattanooga, in the Wilderness, had led our armies to the final success. Our pride in our victory was the measure of our pride in him and of our belief in his greatness. In Grant we recognized the impersonation of that tenacity which must conquer, and of that courage unconquerable which had obtained for the people so grand and so well deserved a success. Whatever may be the judgment of the critics upon his ability as a commander, his claims to admiration as a military genius, this solid glory must remain to him—that his country, after trying many men, and many good men, in him at last saw itself, and recognizing its own spirit, gave to him its undoubting confidence, and so accomplished its desires.

These recollections of what so short a time since was in the hearts of all must have been fresh in all minds. Yet, though Congress is mainly composed of men of sense and largely of men of ability and education, and contains several speakers quite equal to a worthy treatment of the subject, the selected orator of the occasion makes a pretentious speech which may be "gifted words" but is by no means the splendid rhetoric which he mistakes it for, nor at all what we had a right to expect. Silence or oratory we had a right to expect, and we get neither.

The rhetorician, the orator, for that matter, though it is well enough that he be born, may be made. To a certain extent, it is true that he must be made. And as there are plenty of text-books; as in almost no kind of literature are there so many models of excellence within reach as in the rhetorical kind, and in no field of intellectual labor is a failure apt to be more complete and ridiculous; and as, despite the newspapers, which usurp some of its functions, the art still offers to its masters great opportunities and great rewards, we recommend to Mr. Banks, Mr. Deming, and the other gentlemen of fluency that they proceed to the study of it. Cato, if they are fond of classical exemplars, began Greek long after he was fifty, and shunned no labor. Another person, an example equally classical and perhaps more to the purpose, used to lie on his back with lead weights on his breast in order to improve his chest tones. And, at any rate, till they have begun the study, we beg them to leave off the practice of the more difficult branches. Most men when they talk of business, when they really have something to say, talk well enough. It is when they begin to be fine, to display their ornaments, that these half-taught people expose themselves. And at the same time we see specimens of all that tawdry finery which a better taste discards. We have recently had a "splendid effort" wherein the seeker for the pinchbeck gewgaws of rhetoric may find a collection very good in respect of both quantity and variety. Of anti-climax, for instance, there is this pretty good sample: He, "when the rebellion struck the first tocsin, rushed to the defence of the flag under which he had been trained and nurtured—and offered his services to Governor Yates, of Illinois." This was the same man who previously had fought so well "on that memorable day when the steep and frowning heights of Chapultepec were carried, and the trembling city below implored the mercy of our artillery," and afterwards "wiped out Jeff. Thompson." It was he, too, who, being confronted with "the mightiest Paladin of treason," properly enough refused to believe that even a paladin "could suddenly throw a summersault over intervening forests and mountains into our lines." So, modern and unromantic tactics being applied to him, ever the mightiest Paladin found himself "outflanked and whipped." And if any one has a weakness for metaphor he can have his taste completely gratified, if indeed he be not completely cured of it. Here is one which has the stroke of a butcher's cleaver in it: "At Richmond, in April last, there was a blow struck which at the same time broke the head and paralyzed the extremities of the rebellion." And here are some which are remarkable both singly and in conjunction. The Capitol is described: "This massive structure, with its solid foundations, expanded wings, towering columns, and bubbling dome," which perhaps may all be

"engulfed in Lethe's dark waters," a fate which, somehow or other (perhaps the cadence is the reason of it), recalls the whelming of Araby's daughter. Whoever likes his metaphors mixed will do well to go to the historical sketch which opens the oration: "Far, far back at the very dawn of history, indeed upon the very first page of man's tempestuous annals, writ in faded hieroglyphs upon crumbling columns."

As to what may be read upon this singular tempestuous, dawning page, whose columns crumble and whose hieroglyphs fade, and upon other pages (very many other pages, indeed) which follow it, we learn that beyond a doubt Grant may properly be made a general, as can be proved by the history of Rameses, Sesostris, the Pharaohs, Achilles, Hector, King Agamemnon, commander-in-chief during "the war which for two lustrums raged round mighty Ilium," Themistocles, Miltiades, Aristides, Epaminondas, Cæsar, Hannibal, Charlemagne, Turenne, Condé, de Luxembourg, Marlborough, who having won the battle of Blenheim, "the extensive manor of Woodstock, once a royal palace—the scene of the loves of Henry II. and the fair Rosamond—was instantly conveyed to him in fee," Wellington, Jackson, Scott, Zachary Taylor, William Henry Harrison, and lastly Washington, against whose name "the mournful affix 'dead'" is written in the records of the War Department, a fact which "vividly suggests, in connection with a name so illustrious, that

"'The paths of glory lead but to the grave.'"

It is only too easy to laugh at the burning words of such oratory as this. But not a few of its characteristics—the style, with its mingled turgidity and meanness; the language, deformed by vulgarisms and without felicity of any kind; the clumsy ostentation of erudition, so cheap that its useless display is not even pedantry—these are shared with the bastard eloquence of the stump alone.

The best that can be said for such displays, and it is too disgraceful that this commendation should be possible, is that their faults are chargeable to defective taste and knowledge merely, and that when compared with some recent violations of Congressional decorum and outrages upon common decency they rise to respectability.

A HUMAN NUISANCE.

A MAN named Kranchie, or rather a man's mode of life, has been brought before the Board of Health in this city as a nuisance. He lives in a barrel on a vacant lot, and surrounds himself with offal, rags, and old bones, and lives on dogs and rats and other foul things, and the smell of his "appurtenances" poisons the air in his neighborhood. One of the inspectors has therefore reported him as a cholera-breeder, and proposes to have him abated.

This incident seems trifling, but it is in reality a most striking illustration of the enormous interval of feeling which separates us from an antiquity not very remote. Kranchie's habits are such as would two thousand years ago have entitled him to the rank and honors of a philosopher. The contempt which he displays for the comforts and even decencies of life would have been taken as the result of his meditation on the vanity of earthly things, and to his success in finding his happiness inside of himself. In the early ages of Christianity, or even in the Middle Ages, he might have passed his barrel and his rags and his old bones and dead dogs off as proofs of extraordinary sanctity, and thousands would have come long distances to get a whiff of his bad odors, and see him cast out devils and cure diseases, after having dined off the leg of a cat. Simon Stylites and many of the monks of the desert must have been twice as dirty and unsavory as he is. We do not know that Kranchie makes any pretensions to holiness—we hope not—but he undoubtedly would do so if the public gave him any encouragement in it, and that the public has not done so and does not do so is a proof of the distance to which we have wandered from the opinions and customs of our fathers. Had he lived in the ages of which we have spoken, we may be sure he would not have been dirty, and would not have lived in a tub very long, without finding out that he gained by it in popular estimation, and consequently without rising to an extravagant height in his own.

Closely allied to the ancient respect for philosophic or monkish indifference to dirt was the ancient horror of luxury, as a moral evil, and there is, perhaps, nothing which separates modern from ancient civilization more strikingly than the reconciliation which is in our day to be witnessed between good living and good morals. An ancient philosopher often surrounded himself with comforts, but he did so with strong misgivings as to their effect on his character. A modern philosopher secures all the good things he can afford not only without a qualm, but with perfect faith that they improve him, and that a man is likely to be all the better Christian and better citizen for being "well off." A proper sense of the vanity of this world is no longer held to be incompatible with a morning bath, a clean shirt, and the proprietorship of a pair of horses and a corner lot. Poverty and dirt have sunk gradually from the rank they once occupied as moral agents of the first order to that of almost unmitigated evils.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday Evening,
May 21, 1866.

THE Government broker sold some nine millions of gold last week at 130 to 130⅛. Of this amount the bulk was taken by bankers for export, and two millions or so on speculation. Though the Sub-Treasury balance has not increased as much as might have been expected from such heavy sales, the movement of these large sums of currency has imparted more tone to the money market. Call loans have advanced 1 per cent., and should the Government continue to sell a further advance to 7 per cent. would seem inevitable. Money has now ranged at 4 to 5 per cent. for a much longer period than usual, and a change is but natural. No prolonged stringency can take place so long as the Secretary owes $125,000,000 on call at 4 to 5 per cent. But the banks will not resist an advance in the rate to 7, and would rather see money firm at that figure than otherwise. Of course, a 7 per cent. money market would for the time being put an end to the scheme for a 5 per cent. loan. Late advices from Washington increase the probability of strong opposition being made to Senator Sherman's bill. Senator Fessenden has already placed himself upon the record as one of its opponents, and he intimated that it did not even command the approval of a majority of the Finance Committee. The difficulty is that if the bill passed and it was found impossible to negotiate 5 per cent. bonds at par, the Secretary would be left without any means of funding his short-date obligations.

The stock market shows no new feature. Cliques continue to rule the day; where they are not moving stocks of all kinds are dull and neglected. The Prairie du Chien party, which bought large lots of Illinois Central ten days or a week since at 8 to 10 per cent. above the price in Europe, have since been bulling New York Central, the price of which they forced up at one time to 95. There is, of course, no justification for the movement in the earnings of the road, which are falling off. But the ease of money enables cliques to buy any quantity of a stock which they desire to put up, and, until they are forced by an advance in the rate of interest to disgorge their purchases, it is not certain that prices will decline. The quantity of New York Central on our market is unprecedentedly large. The Pittsburgh party continue to operate in a mysterious way. On Friday the price rose to 86¼, in the face of a decline of $23,000 in the April earnings. It has since been done at 84¾. Erie has fallen back again, and it is suspected that the bulls are tired of their game. The short interest in this and other active stocks is less than it was a few weeks ago. Fort Wayne is steady with a small business. Michigan Southern does not vary much; at or above 80 the clique appear to be willing to supply the stock. A new movement has been inaugurated in the stocks of the North-western road, and they are rather higher. Hudson has advanced 3 per cent. on a reported increase in the earnings. Toledo, likewise, is firm. The miscellaneous stocks have not varied materially since we last wrote. Governments are active, and the tendency would be downward but for the theory that the Secretary is sustaining 5-20s by purchases made with the money received for sales of gold.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 14.	May 17.	May 21.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	109	108¾	108⅞	⅛	....
5-20 Bonds, old	101⅞	101⅜	101⅝	¼	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	101⅞	102	⅛	....
10-40 Bonds	96	96	96	...	⅛
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅛	102⅛	102⅜	....	⅛
New York Central	92¼	94⅛	93¾	....	⅜
Erie Railway	73⅝	73⅝	73¾	....	⅜
Hudson River	109⅛	109⅛	113	3⅛	....
Reading Railroad	107⅛	107⅛	107⅛	....	....
Michigan Southern	80	79⅝	79⅛	....	⅛
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	84¼	84⅛	85⅛	⅝	....
Chicago and North-western	28¼	28⅛	28⅝	⅜	....
" " " Preferred	59	58¼	58¼	....	....
Chicago and Rock Island	94¼	93⅝	93¾	....	⅜
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	99	98⅜	98⅛	....	⅜
Canton	61¼	60¾	60¾	....	1
Cumberland	45¼	47¼	46¾	....	1
Mariposa	12¾	12⅜	12⅜	....	....
American Gold	130⅛	130	130⅛	⅛	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅝	109⅝	109¾	⅛	....
Call Loans	5	5	6	1	....

The specie export for the week ending on Saturday last was $8,763,000, by far the largest export ever made from this port in a single week. Sterling exchange, which for many weeks had ruled at 106½ to 108¼, suddenly jumped to 109¾. Further specie shipments will be made this week, and the drain will continue until financial affairs resume their former smooth aspect in Europe, and prices are restored to a just equilibrium. The immediate causes of the sudden advance in exchange were the importation of American securities from Europe and the cessation of cotton shipments. But for some time a change has been inevitable. From various causes, prices of all kinds of merchandise and of all classes of securities have been higher here than in Europe. Not only articles of foreign growth, such as teas, coffees, hides spices, sugars, drugs, etc., have paid a profit on their importation from England, but American produce, cotton, breadstuffs, and provisions have ruled so much higher here than abroad that New York millers have sent to Liverpool to buy Chicago wheat, and New York bakers have sent to Paris to buy flour. A profit of from 2 to 5 per cent. has been realized on the importation of American stocks—5-20 bonds, Erie, and Illinois Central—for sale in this market. Cotton has not yet been re-imported, though at present prices a profit could be realized on the operation. So anomalous a state of things could not last long. The remedy has come in the shape of a sudden advance in exchange, and a resumption of specie shipments at a rate which promises soon to make up for their prolonged discontinuance. As it happens, the remedy—which will afford relief to the embarrassed banks of Europe—will involve no trouble here. Had we been trading on a specie basis, it would have gravely embarrassed us to lose nine millions of gold in a week. As it is, the Government supplies the bullion, and the transfer is not felt in commercial or financial circles. It is asked—how if the drain continues? The answer to this question depends on two things—first, the Southern cotton crop; and, secondly, the extent to which Northern importers are indebted to Europe. Government can afford to sell some forty millions of gold, which, if the coming cotton crop prove anything like an average, and if the importers have paid a fair proportion of their debts to Europe, will suffice to restore equilibrium, and will help foreign banks out of their troubles without embarrassing us. If, on the other hand, the coming cotton crop should fall considerably below an average, or if the importers, relying upon Mr. McCulloch's promises of contraction, have generally deferred their remittances, we shall inevitably ship all the gold the Treasury can spare, and when it is forced to stop selling the premium will rise, perhaps very high. It is no easy matter to form a reliable judgment with regard to either of these questions. A number of cotton circulars declare that the crop promises badly; that the seed proves bad, and that the plant is sickly. On the other hand, other authorities predict a crop of two million bales. As to the indebtedness of our merchants to Europe, individual enquiry would tend to prove that remittances have been general; every importer says that he and his friends have paid up promptly. On the other hand, it would seem but natural that many importers must have deferred remittances in the hope of a contraction of the currency, which was promised by Mr. McCulloch, especially as their spring business proved generally unremunerative.

It is clear that nothing but the policy of the Treasury Department now prevents an advance in gold and a decline in 5-20s. At 130½, all last week, the Treasury broker stood ready to supply bidders, and it is understood, though not officially avowed, that the bulk of the currency derived from the sales of gold was invested in 5-20 bonds. Thus the former stands no higher than it did when we were shipping cotton, wheat, corn, provisions, and bonds to Europe by every steamer, and the latter still command a premium, though they are coming from Europe at the rate of $2,000,000 to $3,000,000 a week. Should the cotton crop turn out well, this action of the department will figure in history as eminently sagacious. It will be said of Mr. McCulloch that, at a critical moment, by a judicious use of his resources, he checked the depreciation of the currency and maintained the market value of public securities. But if accident should reduce the cotton crop much below an average, the consequences of this interference with the natural course of prices will prove disastrous not only to the reputation of our finance minister, but to the best interests of the country. Mr. Chase tried to regulate prices from the blue room of the Sub-Treasury, and very nearly broke the nation in the attempt. Let us hope that Mr. McCulloch will be more fortunate.

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Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024	
Total profit for eleven years		$1,896,334
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.		1,107,240

New York, Feb. 20, 1866.

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CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS - - - - - - - -	$414,729 18	
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages - - - - - - - - - - -		$134,672 00
Temporary Loans - - - - - - - - - - - -		92,630 00
Real Estate - - - - - - - - - - - - -		10,000 00
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank - - - - - - - - -		5,000 00
Government Sec., value - - - - - - - - - -		144,514 00
Cash on hand - - - - - - - - - - - -		18,042 34
Interest due - - - - - - - - - - - -		3,085 58
Premiums due - - - - - - - - - - - -		6,785 26
PRESENT LIABILITIES - - - - - - - - - - -		$15,995
NET SURPLUS - - - - - - - - - - - - -		198,733 26

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Topics of the Day.

MR. STANTON on Wednesday read a long, written speech to a crowd which called on him by appointment. It was remarkably guarded in expression. The process of reconstruction, so far as it has gone, was detailed at length, and we learn that once Mr. Stanton thought the right of suffrage should be granted to some negroes at least, but on careful consideration of the practical difficulties in the way he gave up that opinion; the civil rights bill was passed, vetoed by the President, then passed by a two-thirds vote; the Freedmen's Bureau bill had his approval, but having been vetoed and not passed over the veto, it is not now a living question. The freedmen, the President has said, will find that their labor is, indeed, in the South, and that the fine climate and fertile soil of the Gulf States will attract immigration and make their labor still more necessary. It is a relief to find Mr. Stanton, at the end of the speech, speaking decidedly. The third section of the proposed constitutional amendment, which he quotes in full, he dislikes. He cannot see the wisdom, the justice, or the necessity of the measure; and one very strong objection to it, he thinks, is that it not only discourages the growth of Unionism in the South, but, by constitutional provision, it limits the power of Congress in that part of the country for the next four years—a limitation which may work deplorable results. This is an objection which we have not heard before, and it is not without force.

THE decennial farce of bringing in a bankrupt bill which nobody expects to see passed at the tail of the session, is once more acting at Washington. We shall not discuss the provisions of a measure which in three months will be forgotten. It is a national disgrace that, in a commercial country, men whom misfortune has overwhelmed should have no means of extricating themselves from their difficulties; but a striking illustration of the general prosperity is to be found in the fact that the debtors are such a small and insignificant body that even politicians do not think it worth while to attempt to relieve them.

MAJOR-GEN. BUTLER may still wear the title which he earned during the war, having been appointed to the same rank in the Massachusetts State militia, under its new organization. The field is one in which he figured before the rebellion, and in which, with his late experience, it cannot be doubted he will display the highest ability. Whatever be his fitness for a military command in active service—and about this many dispute who agree as to his great usefulness in suppressing the rebellion—it is, we believe, the testimony of distinguished officers who became his subordinates, that they could not have desired a better chief, at least in respect to the clearness of his purposes and his orders. This characteristic precision will be well employed in training the Massachusetts militia.

THE city of Memphis is indebted to the radical Legislature of Tennessee for the gift, a most unwelcome one, no doubt, of a new metropolitan police law. Governor Brownlow is to appoint three commissioners who are to appoint and manage the police force of Memphis while the city is to pay it, giving each patrolman, and there are a hundred altogether, $1,200 a year. Nashville and Chattanooga are put under the same system. No one will say that this interference with local independence was not called for, and we look to find it, expensive as it is, justified as effectually by the future quiet of Memphis as it has been by the past turbulence of that disorderly town. Prevention and cure are going on together. The Congressional investigating committee have reached the city and begun to examine witnesses.

A CORRESPONDENT who is a warm friend of the newly-established society for the prevention of cruelty to animals, and rejoices in the relief which that body has secured for calves in butchers' carts, writes to us making a strong appeal on behalf of green turtles and terrapins. He describes the sufferings of the turtles, when left exposed to the sun on the sidewalks, as very great; but the utilitarianism of the age is curiously illustrated by his urging, as the strongest argument against this treatment of turtles, the superiority of steaks cut from turtles fresh from the salt water over steaks cut from those which die by inches in the city. There was, when the Rinderpest was at its height in England, a similar odd mixture of pity for the beasts and sorrow for the loss of the meat visible in most of the lamentations over the plague.

NOTWITHSTANDING their seeming indisposition to concur with the House, the Connecticut Senate did, on Wednsday, elect Gen. Ferry to the U. S. Senate. The event must be regarded as another proof of the progress of the State away from its anti-negro-suffrage vote of last year, and confirms what we said in our last issue about the rapid gravitation of the people toward the point from which politicians shrink—that, namely, of applying our theory of government in its broadest equality to all classes throughout the land.

THE greatest fire of a season of great fires occurred on Monday night, completely destroying the Academy of Music and surrounding buildings. There are loud complaints of the new fire department, on the ground that it is managed by politicians, as if this was not also true of the old ones. The fire seems to have been the work of an incendiary, and some of the rumors as to the perpetrator of the crime are at least comical.

IN Texas and in Virginia, conventions have recently met and laid down the platform of a party which never before had an organized existence in the Southern States. The leaders and most of the members of these conventions have, however, from the period of the birth of the rebellion sustained an honorable notoriety under the title of Unconditional Unionists, a title which no men would have earned under the circumstances who were not more than politicians, more than states-

men, more than patriots; who were not men of singularly profound convictions, tenacity of faith, stern resolution, and heroic endurance.

In England the Continental troubles, combined with two or three years' indulgence, through the medium of joint-stock companies, in wild speculation, has brought on a financial panic of extraordinary violence, overwhelming most of the great banking houses and leading to a third suspension of the Bank Charter Act. Mr. Sampson, the city editor of the London *Times*, has now for five years been predicting "a grand crash," which during the years 1861–2–3–4 he always announced as likely to occur within the three months next ensuing, and the scene of which he laid in New York and the adjacent country. The occurrence of the long-expected catastrophe at his own door, in the presence of the extraordinary steadiness in the American markets, is one of the most striking illustrations we have yet had of the risks and vexations to which political and financial prophets, whose temper is not strictly controlled by their reason, are all the while exposed.

The latest developments make it clear that the whole of the European continent is now on the verge of a terrible war. Count Mensdorff declares, in a note, that Austria is determined to fulfil her duty to herself and to the Germanic Confederation "without being drawn into further discussions concerning the priority or extent of the respective military arrangements." Prussia, in the Diet, avows "that she will consider the requirements of her self-preservation as more important than her relations to the Confederation." Napoleon, at Auxerre, in oracular words addressed to the laboring population of his empire, in whom he finds "the true genius of France," but carefully prepared for the peace-loving and grumbling *bourgeoisie*, their spokesmen in the Corps Législatif, and Europe in general, openly expresses how much he "detests the treaties of 1815." The general belief is that France is in secret league with Prussia and Italy. Count Bismark, assailed by an assassin—a step-son of the revolutionist, Carl Blind—and thereupon serenaded by the people of Berlin, exclaims, in response: "We are all ready to die for our King and fatherland, be it on the street pavement or on the battle-field." Clarendon, in the House of Lords, laments that the British Government "stand alone, and . . . can do nothing," at the "melancholy sight" of "more than one million of men . . . in arms, and prepared for a conflict," "marching towards their respective frontiers." The financial world is shaken by a panic. An Austrian imperial decree announces the issue of Governmental legal-tender notes and releasing the National Bank from specie payments, and reports are current that the church property of the empire is to be made the basis of extensive war loans. In Italy communes and provinces vie with each other in offers of free contributions for the wants of the army. This is to be commanded by Lamarmora, with Generals Durando, Cucchiari, Rocca, and Cialdini as corps commanders, and Garibaldi as leader of volunteers; the Austrian army by Gen. Benedek; and the Prussian, by Prince Charles. The Italian Chamber of Deputies has passed a bill clothing the Government with extraordinary powers for the emergency; the Prussian Chamber has been dissolved. A secret conference of various minor German sovereigns has taken place in Würtemberg. The understanding between Austria and the States lately represented in the conference of Augsburg is said to be perfect, and Saxony, Bavaria, and Würtemberg are rapidly mobilizing their full contingents. Hanover, too, seems to arm against Prussia. Bohemia and Saxony, on the frontiers of which troops are being massed, are expected soon to become the scenes of great movements. Austria is also energetically arming on her southern borders, in Croatia, Talmatia, Istria, the Tyrol, and chiefly in Venetia; the country surrounding Mantua has been inundated for defence. Frightened by Napoleon's declaration of Auxerre, Belgium, too, is reported arming, and even Spain to fortify her strategic positions in the Balearic Isles. Switzerland is about to call out 15,000 men to cover her borders. In the east of Europe, too, things seem to approach a crisis, Russia and Turkey preparing for intervention in Moldo-Wallachia, whose new election of a hospodar has been rejected by the Paris conference, and the Slavic populations of Servia and Montenegro, it is said, for a new struggle against the Porte.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 23, 1866.

The passage of the bankrupt bill on Tuesday was a surprise to many members not only because of the previous repeated defeats of the measure, but because of its supposed bearing upon the coming fall elections. Mr. Thaddeus Stevens had been good enough to warn the House long since that such a law might prove a political death-warrant to the party which should pass it, besides that it would discharge all rebeldom from its commercial obligations to the North, and he yesterday tried to get in a motion "to postpone this hari-kari until December." But the House—though by the narrow majority of nine—determined otherwise.

A most beneficent measure for the freedmen has now passed both Houses, and awaits the President's signature. It extends the provisions of the homestead law over the public lands in States late in rebellion, reducing to $5 the price to be paid for each patent, and giving eighty acres to each actual settler, without distinction of color. It is also provided that these lands shall be disposed of in no other way.

DIARY.

Monday, May 21.—In the Senate, the Colorado veto message was made a special order for May 29. The fortification appropriation bill was passed. District of Columbia business occupied the rest of the day.

In the House, Mr. McClurg, of Missouri, offered a resolution instructing the Joint Committee of Fifteen to enquire into the expediency of levying contributions upon the States lately in rebellion to defray the expenses of a standing army to keep the peace in those States. Adopted—yeas, 73; nays, 25. Mr. Henderson, of Oregon, offered a resolution in favor of executing the laws upon a sufficient number of leading rebels to vindicate the law and warn the refractory for all time to come. Adopted. Mr. Defrees offered a resolution declaring that Congress has no constitutional right to fix the qualifications of voters in the States. Referred to the Judiciary Committee, the House first refusing to lay it on the table by yeas, 12; nays, 97. The tax bill was debated and amended.

May 22.—In the Senate, House bill to sell the public lands in the late rebel States to actual settlers, without respect to color, in homesteads of eighty acres, was passed. A bill to amend the postal laws in sundry details was passed.

In the House, the bill to establish a uniform system of bankruptcy was passed—yeas, 68; nays, 59. A bill providing for an additional Assistant Secretary of the Navy was passed. The rest of the day was spent in debating and amending the tax bill.

THE FREEDMEN.

It is reported that the crops in South Carolina will disappoint the expectations of some months back. The chief cause is the general failure to raise provisions to feed the laborers engaged in cotton-raising. If all that has been planted and prospered could be harvested, there would be little or no deficiency, and, of course, no waste, as there must now be. We have, besides, accounts of two destructive tornadoes—one, on the 4th, demolishing the freedmen's village on Port Royal Island and nearly all St. Helenaville; another, on the 17th, which swept over Charleston and the adjoining counties. Not only the fields suffered, but several lives were lost.

—Brigadier-General Gregory has just returned from an extended tour of inspection in Western Texas. The industrial condition of the country is good and improving; but with the reduction of the military force there has been a perceptible increase of violence and abuse of the colored people. With a favorable season the cotton crop, it is re-asserted, will be larger than ever before. The health of the State is good. There are 42 day schools for the freedmen, 29 night schools, and 19 Sunday schools, counting 2,830 children and 1,860 adults as pupils. There are also several private schools. All are wholly self-sustaining.

—Gen. Howard, in a circular admonishing the agents of the Bureau of their duties, assures them that such as may be accused of malfeasance shall have the opportunity of a thorough vindication before a court-martial.

—Gens. Steedman and Fullerton had an interview at Savannah on the 19th with the General Conference of the African Methodist Church, composed of colored clergymen from Georgia, Florida, and South Carolina. The commissioners departed next day for Florida.

—A brisk religious revival is going on among the freedmen's villages on the Peninsula, says a telegram from Fortress Monroe.

—The North Carolina *Progress* has heard "good tidings from the crops in Granville, and also as to the industry of the freedmen. The yield from the former will perhaps be larger than for some years, and he freedmen are working better and harder than previous to the war."

Notes.

LITERARY.

THE edition of the Bible in Arabic, which is in process of preparation by the American Bible Society, is one of the most interesting literary undertakings of the present time. Three separate editions are to be issued—one in octavo, a second in duodecimo with references, and a third still smaller in size. The translation used is the one which was begun by the late Dr. Eli Smith in 1847, and finished by Dr. Van Dyck in August, 1864. The punches, matrices, types, and electrotype plates are all made at the Bible House, under the supervision of Dr. Van Dyck. The work was begun in August, 1865; the first page was electrotyped March 15, 1866, since when thirty more pages have been finished. It is expected to issue the large Bible in about three years. Full eight years must elapse before the other two are ready. Some idea of the difficulty of the work of composition can be had from the fact that sixteen hundred different characters are necessary. The text being printed to imitate script, many varieties of each letter are requisite in order to secure accuracy of joining and an even appearance in the words. Considerable trouble was also experienced from the necessity of learning, by trial, how many type of each character must be cast. One important result of the distribution and cheap sale of this Bible in the East will be the gradual familiarization of the natives with printed books. Printing is there considered a work of the devil, and the Koran and other books are all published in manuscript. Written copies of the whole Bible, and especially of the Gospels, in Arabic are quite common among the educated Turks. Nearly all persons who pretend to culture have them in their libraries. The American Bible Society also contemplate printing an edition of the Bible in the ecclesiastical Slavonic and Bulgarian in parallel columns. The work will be commenced under the superintendence of Dr. Long, of Constantinople, as soon as that gentleman arrives.

—The literature of the rebellion is about to be made the subject of a bibliographical treatise. Mr. John Russell Bartlett, author of the "Dictionary of Americanisms," is compiling a catalogue of all the books and pamphlets that relate to the civil war, and to subjects growing out of it, together with works on American slavery, as well as the essays in reviews and magazines on the same subjects. Nearly 6,000 titles will be included in the book, which will be an octavo volume of 500 pages. But a small edition will be published—250 copies in royal 8vo, at $6, and 60 copies on large paper at $12. The publishers are S. S. Rider & Bro., of Providence, R. I.

—The practice of importing English books in sheets, and then selling them at a reduced price to suit the American market, with the imprint of the American publisher, has greatly increased of late, owing to the high ruling prices. Indeed, it is very foolish and uneconomical to waste labor in reproducing a book which must be sold at a higher price than the imported copies. One other advantage is that part of the profit goes to the author. Lippincott & Co., of Philadelphia, Roberts Bros., and Little, Brown & Co., of Boston, have recently published many books in this way. D. Appleton & Co. have issued three valuable books which could never have been reproduced here on account of the number of wood-cuts; we mean "The World before the Deluge," "The Harvest of the Sea," and "Homes without Hands." They have also imported five hundred copies of the new eight-volume edition of Lord Macaulay's works edited by Lady Trevelyan, which are sold at forty dollars, a considerable reduction from the original English edition. This edition of Macaulay is very complete, containing everything of which Macaulay acknowledged the authorship, even the essays on Mill which he refused to print in the edition prepared by himself. Besides the history and the essays, we have his speeches, the introductory report and notes on the Indian Penal Code, the papers which he wrote for "Knight's Quarterly" in 1823 and 1824, and all his poems. Among the latter are several translations, one of "Dies Iræ," and some humorous poems, such as "A Radical War Song," and other election ballads. There are many passages in the essays and the history that show a fine sense of humor, and it is not surprising to find two very amusing papers here, "Some account of the great Lawsuit between the Parishes of St. Dennis and St. George in the Water," and "A prophetic account of a great National Epic Poem, 'The Wellingtoniad,' A.D. 2824." In the preface which Macaulay wrote for his essays, and which is reproduced here, is a criticism which will startle many of those young writers who are in the habit of taking the essay on Milton as a model of style. Speaking of the exact republication of these essays in the form in which they were written, he says: "Even the criticism on Milton, which was written when the author was fresh from college, and which contains scarcely a paragraph such as his matured judgment approves, still remains overloaded with gaudy and ungraceful ornament." Few writers have ever criticised themselves so severely in print.

—A singular case relating to literary property has just been decided in the French law courts. In 1814 an eminent French surgeon, Nysten, published a "Dictionary of Medicine and Surgery," which became a standard work. Nysten disposed of the copyright to the work, and it has frequently been republished since his death. Various modifications and alterations have been made by successive editors, until the original text, as is alleged, has entirely disappeared, though the work still bore the name of Nysten, by which it was known to the medical public. The last changes seem to have been very radical, and excited the displeasure of the Nysten family. Madame Nysten accordingly sent a note to the publisher, stating that, as the moral and philosophical spirit of the original plan of the work had entirely disappeared, there was no reason for using her husband's name, and requesting it to be taken off the title-page. Messrs. Baillière, the publishers, so far complied with her wishes as to issue the new edition with the title of "Dictionary of Medicine, etc., based on the plan of Nysten, and entirely remodelled by Messrs Littré and Robin." As the name of Nysten was printed in large characters, and those of the editors were less conspicuous, Madame Nysten was still dissatisfied. Feeling that a wrong was done to the memory of her husband, she brought a suit for damages against the publishers. The court gave judgment in her favor for 2,000 francs damages, besides costs and expenses, on the ground: "That the rights and duties which arise from marriage, both as regards husband and wife, do not end with the marriage itself; that the wife shares with her children in the honor and consideration which attach to the memory of her husband, and that she has, like them, personally, if these are attacked, the right to demand reparation."

—The theatres of Paris have had some brilliant successes during the last year, although so lowered has become the character of that stage that few of the comedies would bear translation and reproduction here. Three comedies especially, all intended to be pictures of the manners of the day, have had, and are still having, great runs—"Le Supplice d'une Femme," for whose authorship Dumas and Girardin contended; "La Famille Benoiton," by Sardon; and "Héloïse Paranquet," which was given anonymously. "Le Lion Amoureux," by Ponsard, was more elevated in character; but the last new piece, "La Contagion," by Emile Augier, of the Academy, surpasses the rest in impropriety, as it does in merit. The receipts of some of these pieces for the year 1865 were very large. At the Opera there was taken for "L'Africaine" 1,545,000 francs; at the Théâtre Français, with "Le Supplice d'une Femme," 942,923 francs; at Le Gymnase, with "Les Vieux Garçons" of Sardon, 714,397 francs; at Le Vaudeville, with "La Famille Benoiton," 536,462 francs; at Les Variétés, with the operetta of "La Belle Hélène," 822,212 francs; and at the Porte St. Martin, with the spectacle of "La Biche en Bois," 1,427,228 francs. Some of these pieces were played for the whole year, and continued on the stage long into 1866. Besides these, Bazin's "Le Voyage en Chine" and Offenbach's "Orphée aux Enfers" brought in immense sums to the Opéra-Comique.

SCIENTIFIC.

THE POTASH MINE AT STASSFURT.—In view of the close analogies which subsist between the two compounds, chloride of potassium and chloride of sodium, their nearly equal solubility in water, and the wide dissemination of potash as well as of soda in nature, it is not a little remarkable that while chloride of sodium (common salt) is found in abundance in sea-water, and in many special deposits in the bowels of the earth, its congener, chloride of potassium, occurs only in small quantities in the water of the ocean and has hardly ever been found in abundance anywhere. Any exception to a rule so general is, of course, worthy of careful attention. Hence much interest was excited, a few years since, among geologists and chemists by the discovery of an enormous deposit of a mineral containing chloride of potassium in a bed of rock-salt at Stassfurt, near Magdeburg, in Germany. How this potash-mineral came to be deposited in its present position is not apparent to the uninitiated. The question seems even to puzzle the adepts, judging by the number of memoirs and opinions concerning the geological relations of the deposit which have appeared since its discovery. Latterly, thanks to the introduction of improved processes of purifying the mineral, the subject has become prominent in another connection, and is now exciting a good deal of comment in chemical and technological literature. The deposit has in fact now come to be recognized as one of the principal sources from which the potash-salts of commerce are to be henceforth drawn; and as the supply appears to be well-nigh inexhaustible, it can hardly fail to exert a very considerable influence upon the progress, or rather upon the direction, of the chemical arts.

The bed of rock-salt in which the new mineral occurs was examined, by boring, as long ago as 1839–43, but the brine obtained in this way was found to be so largely contaminated with magnesia that there was no encouragement to work it. In 1848, Prof. Marchand expressed the opinion that the magnesia of the brine was not derived from the bed of rock-salt, but must have come from some other source. This opinion was corroborated by matter brought to the surface in subsequent borings, and the conviction was finally arrived at that the magnesia-salt in the brine was derived from a bed lying above the true rock-salt. In 1851 mining operations were commenced by the Prussian Government for the purpose of reaching the rock-salt. Between that time and 1856 a couple of shafts were sunk to the depth of some 1,100 feet, at which depth a bed of impure rock-salt was struck—some distance below the potash-mineral—the value of which was at that time unsuspected. In 1857 pure rock-salt was reached, as had been anticipated, and its extraction commenced; but it was not until 1859 that the true value of the layer of the potash-mineral was recognized. The dip and general character of the deposit having by this time been well made out, a new pit was sunk in the Duchy of Anhalt, at a distance of about four-fifths of a mile from the old mine. By means of this new shaft both the potash-mineral and the rock-salt are reached at a less depth and can be worked to better advantage than before. The new shaft was completed towards the close of 1862, and since that time the mining of the potash-mineral has been very largely developed, both in the old and the new workings, while the extraction of the rock-salt has become a matter of secondary importance, especially at the new pit.

That portion of the deposit which has thus far been explored has a thickness of about six hundred feet. It consists of a bed of rock-salt, of enormous extent, upon which, and capping it as it were, repose layers of several saline minerals. The entire deposit may be divided into four principal layers or beds, each of which is well characterized at its centre by the predominance of minerals peculiar to it, though at the points where the layer comes in contact with the underlying and superimposed beds its character is by no means so well defined. The rock-salt at the bottom has been entered to a depth of some three hundred and fifty feet, though as yet it has never been pierced; it consists of pure chloride of sodium interspersed with veins of sulphate of lime (anhydrite). Next above is a bed one hundred feet thick of the same character as the preceding, only that the veins of anhydrite are here replaced by a complex sulphate of potash, soda, and magnesia (polyhalite). Above this is a bed of ninety feet composed of sulphate of magnesia (kieserite), mixed with a double chloride of potassium and magnesium. And, finally, at the top there is a layer some sixty-seven feet thick of the potash-mineral proper (carnallite); this is a hydrated double chloride of potassium and magnesium containing, when pure, about twenty-seven per cent. of dry chloride of potassium.

The mineral is detached in large masses from the bed by means of gunpowder; these masses are then broken up into small fragments by means of pick-axes, and sent up to the surface. The cost of extraction appears to be exceedingly low, and the amount produced is limited only by the demand. At the time when it first became apparent that the potash-mineral was of value, it was sent into commerce in the crude condition, to be sold as a manure, and for this purpose it is still largely employed; but it was not long before a complete system of purification was organized, and at the present time enormous quantities of pure chloride of potassium are prepared from the crude mineral. There are now a dozen or twenty factories at Stassfurt devoted to the treatment of the mineral. In July, 1864, when the demand for chloride of potassium was active, the most important of these factories turned out some 12,000 to 16,000 pounds of chloride of potassium daily, while in each of the smaller works the yield ranged from 2,000 to 4,000 pounds. The crude mineral rapidly absorbs water, and deliquesces on being exposed to the air, so that it must be purified as soon as possible after it has been brought to the surface. Moreover, it has not been found advantageous to transport the mineral to any great distance from the mine, since, on the average, no greater yield than 16 per cent. of chloride of potassium can be obtained from it. Hence all of the mineral, excepting those portions which are employed in agriculture and for the preparation of freezing mixtures, is subjected to treatment near the mouth of the mine. This treatment is in the main founded upon the fact that on soaking the mineral in a quantity of warm water, insufficient to dissolve the whole of it, the chloride of magnesium will dissolve first, and may be poured off in solution, while the chloride of potassium is left in the solid state. This residuum is now treated with a fresh portion of water, which dissolves the chloride of potassium, but not the earthy impurities. The chloride is finally recovered by crystallization. Besides the chloride of potassium, considerable quantities of sulphate and of carbonate of potash are manufactured by appropriate chemical treatment, the production of these salts being fostered by a government bounty Saltpetre also is made by decomposing Peruvian nitrate of soda with chloride of potassium. There is some question, however, whether, with the exception of the saltpetre, the manufacture of these salts is likely to rise to any considerable importance, for there is neither pyrites nor any other source of sulphur in the vicinity, nor has there been discovered, as yet, any way of procuring in Stassfurt, at a low cost, the sulphuric acid which is so essential to the success of this, as of almost every other, chemical manufacture. In other respects, Stassfurt is favorably situated for the prosecution of chemical operations, since an abundance of water and of lignite is to be had close at hand.

Just at present this new branch of industry is suffering from a reaction which has succeeded to the undue activity and expansion of 1864. At the moment when the potash mine at Stassfurt first began to make itself felt as a new element in commerce, in 1863 or thereabouts, the relations which obtained between the producers and consumers of potash compounds reposed upon a tolerably firm basis. The sources of potash were in a measure limited, the tendency was ever towards a more restricted supply, and, as a consequence, the price of potash salts was not liable to very sudden fluctuations, and was relatively high as contrasted with the price of the salts of the other alkalies, soda and ammonia. So long as the Stassfurt manufacturers could obtain the prices then ruling, or an approximation to these, they, as a matter of course, pushed off as much of their product as could be made, the business being highly remunerative. It was easy to do this so long as consumers of potash salts failed to perceive the significance of the new condition of things. In 1864 there was thrown into commerce from Stassfurt some 30,000,000 pounds of chloride of potassium, this being just so many pounds more of this substance than the world had been accustomed to use. The market was glutted, of course. No immediate, instantaneous, and adequate demand is ever likely to greet a new-comer thus suddenly thrust in upon the market-place. On the contrary, all repelling influences awaken from their quiescence, and conspire to force back the invader. As the price of chloride of potassium began to fall, that of the ammoniacal salts of the English gas-works was reduced still more rapidly in the attempt, probably futile, to prevent the potash salt from regaining its old importance in the manufacture of alum, a position from which it has long been well-nigh excluded—so far as Europe is concerned—by the cheaper ammonia. In the same way the lixiviators of "kelp," the ashes of sea-weeds, whose profits depend upon the sale of chloride of potassium as well as of iodine, increased the price of the latter and lowered the price of the former, as a welcome to the uninvited guest. That the East Indian producers of saltpetre lent another cold shoulder need not be said, though the full significance of their action is obscured by the influence of the wars which were then prevailing. For the present purpose it will be sufficient only to mention the fact that the export duty upon saltpetre was first diminished and subsequently altogether withdrawn.

In consequence of all these opposing influences the production of chloride of potassium at Stassfurt fell off largely. In a comparatively short time the price of this salt fell from $3 to $1 50 the hundred weight, although the production was at the same time reduced something like 25 per cent. The amount of mineral treated at the Prussian mine in 1865 was only ninety millions of pounds against one hundred and fifteen millions of pounds in 1864. It is very possible that the present depression may last for some time, or become even deeper, in spite of the recent assertions in German journals that the worst is passed, and that symptoms of the revival of business are abundant; but there can be no question as to the prominent position which the working of this mineral-potash is destined to assume among the chemical arts. Of course most of the secondary sources of potash, which have been nursed by European governments, must now be abandoned. For example, the elaborate method of obtaining potash-salts from sea-water, which had risen to some importance in the south of France, has already been given up. The amount of influence which the opening of this German mine will ultimately exert upon the production of American potashes, is a point worthy of being watched with attention.

THE LOST MANUSCRIPT.*

The influence of the literature of one country upon that of another is generally so subtle that it is equally difficult to fix its limit or to ascertain its character. Leaving out of consideration the effect of the Greek mind upon the Roman, the most obvious instance of the direct action of the

* "The Lost Manuscript. A Novel. By Gustav Freitag. Three Volumes." London: Chapman & Hall. 1865.

thought of one age upon the intellectual development of another is, of course, in what is known as the *Renaissance* in Italy, which was nothing more than the Neo-Platonism of Alexandria, with its aspiration for a purer life reflecting itself under similar conditions of corruption in Florence. Yet that very reproduction of ancient thought illustrates in itself, also, in many ways, the final divergence of the modern from the ancient civilization; for the life it awakened took a different direction and entered upon a much higher plane. But in most instances, like that which has recently been brought to light by Le Clerc of the diffusion of the French romance of the Middle Ages not merely through Western Europe, but even in the Greek empire of the East, so much abused for its stolid perseverance in decay, though it is easy to detect the prevalence of a certain taste, as for chivalrous adventure, common to the age, it is impossible to discover a pervading inspiration caught by one people from another.

In the multiform development of modern times it becomes still more difficult to trace this process of mutual education; for as the leading nations, the French, German, and English, stand upon pretty nearly the same intellectual level, though they have certain specialties in literature as in manufactures, no one of them gives the tone to the others. Our fashions, indeed, come from the Tuileries; but we have not as yet borrowed the pattern of our poetry from the Palais Royal, nor that of our histories from Unter den Linden. On the contrary, in one respect at least, we have rather set the fashion for the rest of the world. Rich as the English literature has been in the past, it is richer to-day, we venture to affirm, in the novel properly so called, than that either of Germany or France.

In Germany, indeed, it was not till the recent appearance of Freitag, to whom we desire now to call attention, that the novel proper seems to us to have come in. There has been plenty of romance, but no representation of real life, which is what we understand by the novel proper, with its follies and vices as well as its nobility and truth; the life of the world as it goes on about us, refined and brutal, intellectual and sensual, the sport as it were of many capricious forces, which, nevertheless, are found, when carefully analyzed, to be tending, though from opposite quarters, to the production of one general result of enlightenment and reform.

We do not mean, of course, that Freitag is the first or only writer of German fiction. The Leipsic press probably pours upon the world as great a quantity of fiction as that of Paris or London, perhaps greater; but to the English reader, with his taste formed by the great writers in his own literature, it is for the most part a dreary waste of dulness, drearier if possible than the ponderous criticisms which strive to explain its tendencies. But we mean that leaving out of view the romance, of which there is so much, and often of so exquisite kind, in Tieck and Novalis and Stifter and Storm, and many others living or dead, Freitag is the first really great realist in modern German fiction; while in dramatic power and felicity of style, though not beyond all others, he is certainly equal to any among contemporary writers.

It is quite unnecessary to go out of the way to show that he does not stand, as the German critics in their admiration affirm, upon the same footing with Thackeray and Dickens. They are men of genius, and Freitag is not. They are great masters, Freitag is only a cultivated artist. The creations of Dickens, like those of Shakespeare, have an existence of their own; Freitag's are the reflections of other people's lives—not the spontaneous growth of his fancy, but the results in artistic form of his observation.

Yet the English reader, though he may not gain in quality in the German novelist, will gain a great deal in variety. The gasping poor of London, and the sharpers, male or female, of the Boulevards, do not make up the whole of life; they do not even typify it. There are many poor persons, indeed, in the world; but, though few are rich, a great many more are neither rich nor poor; and that is especially the case in Germany, where, owing to the equal distribution of property among all the children of a family, the number of persons who stand upon the same general level in respect to property is quite as great in proportion as in this country. It is in the representation of this class that Freitag is not only most successful, but of greatest use to us. For the middle class in Germany is the class of its thinkers and artists and writers; the class with which we are most in sympathy, because we have most in common. The aristocracy of England, if not directly the subject, forms at least the background of most English novels; but that aristocracy is as much a tradition in this country as the Roman. So far from being in any way related to us, it stands in ever increasing contrast with all our sentiments and habits of life; while on the other hand the intellectual freedom of Germany among the middle class comes home to us, spiritualizes our character, and deepens our thought. We are drawn to it as to fellow-toilers in the same field—fellow-sufferers in the same cause.

In depth of thought, in poetic insight, Freitag may be inferior to some of the writers with whom one familiar with German literature would compare him, but in his artistic grasp of this life of the middle class about him, of which he himself is one of the best instances, he seems to us really to have made a revolution in German literature; and, as the representative of its present tendency to realism, will attract to himself, we are sure, more and more the English reader in search of pictures of foreign life and of the beauty that lies under all life. That he will be popular with the many who feed on the inferior English novels we do not expect. His first work which, under the title of "Debit and Credit," was so well received in this country several years ago, found its readers chiefly, we suspect, among more thoughtful persons. Those in pursuit of a sensation must have found it tedious.

His last work, however, "The Lost Manuscript," of which a translation has recently been published in London, seems to us more likely to obtain a large circle of readers. There is more dramatic power in it, greater concentration of interest, and greater insight into character, as well as on the whole what one may call, perhaps, superior finish. The fascination of the style, however, is almost wholly lost in the translation; and the loss must necessarily injure him in the estimation of the English reader, for his style is one of his best charms. In order not to be misunderstood, however, we ought to add that we have read only the German original. Our remark applies to translations in general. The style evaporates in the process. It is only when a man of great power applies himself to the work, as Carlyle did to "Wilhelm Meister," that one finds the original reproduced in the beauty of its form as well as in its substance. "The Lost Manuscript" is a picture of life in a German university town, not, however, of the student, but of the professors, with sketches of life in the country and at one of the minor courts. The foibles of the professors are hit off with the most delicate satire, while the undertone of self-sacrificing devotion to the truth shows how near the reality of things we should come if the writer, beside being a scholar himself, were also a poet.

We do not mean, however, to state the plot; that has always seemed to us unfair to the reader if his attention can be drawn to a novel in any other way. A word about the writer himself will be more useful, for nothing helps us better in getting at a knowledge of a work than some acquaintance with its author. Born in Silesia in 1816, Freitag was carefully educated in the universities of Breslau and Berlin, and took his doctor's degree in the latter city in 1838. He was then occupied at the University of Breslau as a private teacher of the German language and literature; but the poetic faculty steadily gained upon the scientific, and he published poems and dramas. "Die Valentine" is one of the most popular plays and "Die Journalisten" is one of the most amusing comedies on the German stage. In 1847 he went to Dresden, and then to Leipzic as one of the editors of the *Grenzboten*, a popular journal, from which he withdrew, however, several years ago, and now divides his time between Leipzic in the winter and his country-place, near Gotha, in the summer. His "Pictures of German Life," in two series, each of two volumes, have been translated into English, and will be found one of the most careful as well as most interesting delineations which exist anywhere of German society in the last three or four centuries.

In 1855 appeared his "Debit and Credit," which was afterwards translated into the English and other languages, and was so popular in Germany that hundreds of manufacturers presented it to their sons as a testimony to the dignity of their own social position. In the course of a couple of years it went through six or more editions, which, as Bunsen philosophically remarks, may certainly be taken as the best proof of its excellence, when it is considered that the price of it was nearly four dollars (gold.)

But as we began by saying that it is difficult to detect the influence of one literature upon another, we end by saying that it is often most difficult to determine the course of that influence when its presence is most apparent. The realism of the English novel and of English life has found in Freitag its best representative in Germany; but it is because the basis of the German character is, after all, realistic. The romanticism which came in with the overthrow of Bonaparte was a perversion of the German mind. Industrious by nature, the German cannot be a dilettante. So forced a thing, indeed, was this romanticism that, as Julian Schmidt says, they all breathed freer when Auerbach showed them in his peasant tales that there were beings in the world who had a distinct conceivable occupation. The poetry of despair does not flourish well on German soil. Victor Hugo and Balzac have left few traces upon the German mind. English literature, from the day when Lessing first discovered Shakespeare, has left many. Yet it will be observed, as in the case of Freitag, that, though the English influence is obvious, the native strength of the German mind gives it a new direction, while it aims at finer results.

For the reasons we have indicated, therefore, we cannot but commend

"The Lost Manuscript" as not merely one of the best German novels that have thus far been rendered into English, but as one of the best in German, and a very good one at that.

DABNEY'S LIFE OF STONEWALL JACKSON.*

Dr. Dabney has several important qualifications for writing this biography. He served on Jackson's staff in two important campaigns, he was a personal friend of his hero's, and he had access to the archives of the Confederate War Department and to Jackson's correspondence with his wife and friends. He is not a good writer, but neither is he a very bad one, and he seems to know quite well the limitations of his powers. But the book was wholly written before the suppression of the rebellion, a great part of it was published long ago amid the heats of civil war, and it was published in England, apparently with a view of what used to be called enlightening foreign opinion in regard to the present struggle.

The biography, therefore, has glaring faults. The temper in which the writer entered upon his work puts it beyond his power to treat the enemies of the Confederacy and opponents of Jackson with anything like fairness, or even with moderation of hatred. Dr. Dabney himself, in his preface, very happily, though with unconscious felicity of phrase, characterizes the tone of his book. Controversial he probably meant to call it, but polemical is the word he uses, and it is only in the proverbial bitterness and unfairness of theological controversy that his biography can find its parallel.

Illustrations of this fact are abundant. "The Northern people," he says, "like the rabble of Imperial Rome, had became the *colluvies gentium*." The Confederacy being forced into war, was compelled "to wage the strife only on the cruel terms that the blood of her chivalrous sons should be matched against this *cloaca populorum*." Of McDowell's army at Bull Run he says: "The fanatical volunteers had supplied their pockets with halters, with which to hang the Southern rebels as soon as they were captured in battle." The intent of the party which elected Lincoln, an intent which that hideous party hardly affected to conceal, "was to oppress and enslave the humane master in order to exterminate the contented and comfortable servant." A Northern soldier, as a matter of course, is a coward; "the Federal is rarely found deficient in anything which cunning or diligence can supply; his defect is in the manhood of his soldiery."

Surely this is all very foolish in any man, and in a professor and doctor of divinity very contemptible. But the writer is thoroughly in earnest about it, and evidently believes it all. A Southern Unionist is in his eyes, and in his language, a miserable traitor, and a secessionist is a patriot. He is utterly unable to see why the Southern States could not rightfully secede from the Union, and equally unable to see that a view of the Constitution different from his and his hero's was possible. These political opinions of his, set forth as they are at great length, and seemingly for the by-end of instructing Englishmen and confirming Southerners in the secessionist faith, and being so violent as they are, and so strenuously held, make it very hard, not to say impossible, for any but an unthinking partisan to give credence to his statement of facts.

That the biographer belongs to the clerical profession we do not regard as a disqualification. Jackson interests us not merely as a soldier; the man's character even more than a scientific account of his remarkable military exploits is what most readers wish to know about, and what is most worth the study of ninety-nine readers in a hundred. This a clergyman can very well depict. Besides, Dr. Dabney seems not wholly a minister of the gospel; he is something of a soldier as well. We would say to him, however, that while the general reader is not apt to think the occasional presence of the clergyman an offensive intrusion, of the company of the Presbyterian clergyman, say, or the Methodist, or other sectarian, he can very easily see too much; and he is just as well pleased if the Roman Catholic priest is not called unevangelical and unorthodox, and then patronized a little, and if the Universalist chaplains are not dragged in to be denounced as "erratic heretics."

Amid very much, then, that is unnecessary, and for that and other reasons unpleasing, and while it is without any charm of fine literary workmanship, the book has this merit, that we can get from it what seems to be an accurate narrative of Jackson's life while Jackson was an obscure man, and an intelligible account of the growth and formation of his character.

He sprang from that Scotch-Irish stock which had already produced one of the most strongly marked characters in American history, and shared with Andrew Jackson the strong will and the strong sense characteristic of the blood. His father died poor, for he had been an improvident Virginia country gentleman, and soon his mother left her children orphans. Young Jackson was sent to one of his relations, and lived with him till he was eight years old. He then deliberately chose to leave the home that had become distasteful, and no expostulation could prevail on him to alter his decision. Another uncle received him, and before he was ten years old he had disappeared again. His brother and he found their way to the Mississippi and earned a living by cutting firewood for passing boats. Fever and ague drove them home. After these early proofs of determination and persistency, the boy contented himself till he was eighteen with his favorite uncle, leading the rough life of a farmer and horse-breaker and hunter in North-western Virginia. Then came West Point, where Jackson proved himself a man of strong and high character and of good parts. Had the course been two years longer, his contemporaries used to say, Jackson would have led his class. In the Mexican war he showed great courage and great skill and was noted for his exact observance of every duty. Then when peace came he resigned, and till 1861 was a professor in the Virginia Military Institute.

It was at Lexington that he made choice of his form of religion, and the choice which he made throws light upon his character. Catholicism he had before examined slightly and rejected. Episcopalianism seemed to him hardly Scriptural, but he was baptized into that communion with the understanding that he might soon leave it. Presbyterianism fully satisfied him. He became very firm in his belief and most strict in every observance. For example, he would never open a letter which came to him on a Sunday, nor ever, if he could help it, send away a letter which, in the ordinary course of mail, would have to make any part of its journey on that day. He seemed to delight in wearing the yoke of conscience and in making it heavy as possible. Special providences he believed in and prayed for, and he was not only constant but enthusiastic in prayer.

In all other things as well as in religion he seems to have been a man of definite, unbending rules, and of narrow beliefs, which he held with tenacity. A reticence of disposition that made him uncompanionable; a harsh honesty which could not accommodate itself to any trickery and hardly to the ordinary forms of courtesy; a certain stiffness of mind—an inability to adapt himself to the minds of his pupils, for example—which proved him devoid of imagination, were among his distinguishing traits, and underneath all was a tremendous force of will. "I can accomplish anything that I will," was his favorite maxim and perhaps his only boast, for he was a modest man. He was always a State-rights Democrat and a slaveholder, a master who "faithfully administered necessary chastisement."

He was not a man, we should say, as we read about him here, to be greatly loved, but the hard fibre of his unsympathetic nature which repelled love must always have commanded respect, and there was something to admire in the straightforward simplicity of his character. After 1861 these stern qualities had a conspicuous stage for their display, and he became the idol of the people for whose benefit they were exercised, and the terror of those against whom he turned his arms. This book, on the whole, enables one to discover underneath the gigantic figure of the Stonewall Jackson of the days of 1862 the man himself in something like his true proportions. By and by we shall probably have a really good biography, and for that reason, as well as for others above hinted at, we do not recommend the purchase of this one.

* "Life and Campaigns of Lieut.-Gen. Thomas J. Jackson (Stonewall Jackson). By Prof. R. L. Dabney, D.D." New York: Blelock & Co. 1866. Pp. 742.

THE MAGAZINES FOR JUNE.

The "Atlantic" opens this month with "Quicksands," a neatly-written but otherwise quite commonplace story, whose male and female personages respectively fight in the war against the rebels, rising rapidly to the grade of colonel, some of them, and knit and sew for the soldiers. The "Last Days of Walter Savage Landor" comes to an end in this number. Though lacking in literary merit, it has been exceedingly readable, and has added considerably to our knowledge of that remarkable man and not a little to our liking for him. "Passages from Hawthorne's Note-Books" are not yet exhausted and continue still to instruct us, giving us an intimate knowledge of the finest genius yet produced in America, showing us the union of the carefullest study of external nature and the laborious collection of material for future use with the remarkable fertility of his mind in those strange and grotesque conceptions which were so characteristic of his genius. "In the Hemlocks," by John Burroughs, is a particularly good sample of the work of one who has taken Thoreau for a guide but not for a model. The sincerity and fresh naturalness of his writing seem an emanation from the scenes in which he so greatly delights and, more than that, which he depicts so well. "Dr. Johns," that very pale reflection of what is popularly supposed to have been New England village life just before railroads made all the villages into suburbs and while the minister was still a power, gets to an end in its

seventy-second chapter. We may have it next in the form of a book. "Griffith Gaunt" is as brilliant as ever. Mrs. Stowe's "Chimney Corner" is duller this month than we remember it to have been before. If "Tied to a Rope" was called "Concerning being Tied to Ropes" its title would assign it to the class of writing where it belongs, for it is made up of the thin platitudes, and its tone has all the affected airiness and lightness which make the whole tribe of "concernings" so insupportable. "Bad Symptoms" is the same in kind though a shade better in degree, and the magazine would be all the better if it contained neither of them. We are rather at a loss for language with which to speak of "The Mountain." It eludes criticism unless one is a mere critic of words. Longfellow furnishes a sonnet, and Whittier the best poetry of the number.

In "Our Young Folks" we meet Mrs. Stowe again. Her "Mother Magpie," of course, has the excellent moral, but it is excellent in other respects also. Another very pleasant article, with an agreeable vein of humor, is "The Little Southerners." Besides these, which, though they will be read with pleasure by children of all sizes, are more especially meant for little ones, there is a variety of pieces suited to the different capacities of different ages. Mr. Trowbridge, for example, supplies an account of some Tennessee poor whites which will aid youthful politicians to form a body of opinions upon the social condition of the South. We presume it is the growing boy, too—Wordsworth's, perhaps—that so much natural science is for; and "A Summer in Leslie Goldthwaite's Life" seems to be meant for young ladies high up in high schools. The illustrations of this number are remarkably good.

We think the June "Harper's" a very fair number. In *Harper's Weekly* we have been for some time getting instalments of a story which, with some blemishes as a story, gives a very vivid and instructive picture of life in the South during the war. Information of this sort is no doubt valuable, and certainly it is eagerly read. The "Monthly" in its next few issues will contain a series of illustrated articles by General Strothers, the "Porte Crayon" of "Harper's" old days, which, judging them by this first one, will be an interesting contribution to such literature of the war. The general makes extracts from a diary kept at the time, and describes the first movements in arms of the Virginia rebels. We see how much of the rebel strength was the indecision and weakness of the Government. He saw Harper's Ferry destroyed, and was in Baltimore a day or two after the memorable riot. It sounds strangely now to read of "a Colonel T. J. Jackson, formerly of the U. S. Army, and latterly a professor at the Virginia Military Institute." Ross Browne treats of the Reese River silver mines in a paper which combines liveliness with statistics. Professor H. W. Draper gives an affirmative answer to the question: "Are there other inhabited worlds?" His reply is chiefly occupied with facts about the moon. In his opinion, there are no human beings—as we suppose we may say—living on our satellite, but it is likely that in some of the planets "conspiring circumstances may have allowed life to develop even beyond our standard." A chatty article about American studios in Rome and Florence has a few pretty good anecdotes amid much highly laudatory criticism. "Armadale" seems likely to come to an end; the last book is begun. A casual visitor to the House of Commons describes Gladstone introducing the new reform bill. There are no less than fourteen other articles, of which three are stories of love and three are in verse, the poorest in the two classes respectively being "Letitia" and "The Live American." The editor in his Easy Chair talks of Carlyle's Edinburgh address, not sparing its weaknesses. Also he controverts that view of Carlyle's present condition which he calls the one put forth in the April "North American." The assertion which the editor disagrees with is made in the review; but so, too, is the substance of his reply to it, and both views are there subordinated to a theory more exhaustive. The contents of the number must be considered varied and interesting, and they are mostly original contributions by American writers. Indeed, we suppose "Armadale" to be the only exception.

The managers of "Beadle's Monthly" "regard the June issue as one of the best numbers of a popular magazine ever issued in this country." We can hardly say just that, perhaps. It may be worth any one's while, though, to look into it for the sake of one person who actually contributes "Personal Recollections of Mrs. Caroline Lee Hentz." That writer of fiction he first saw in Columbus, Georgia, and she seemed to him "the most exquisitely dressed lady I ever met South." Her last novel, "'Ernest Linwood,' is mournful as a prophetic chant; her soul there seems pouring forth its last burning thoughts," etc. "Our Entrance into Richmond" derives some slight interest from its subject. On the whole we should have imagined that the sale of this magazine might have been seriously interfered with by the same publisher's series of dime novels, but we should have been mistaken; the magazine is a gratifying success in a pecuniary point of view.

The New Gospel of Peace, According to St. Benjamin. Book Fourth and Last. (New York: American News Company.)—In a particular sense it is true of parodists that the prosperity of their jest lies rather in the ear of him that hears it than in the mouth of him that makes it. It is so in this case. The sound of Scriptural language is familiar to us all, and we are all to some extent ready to be amused by the application of biblical phraseology to ordinary matters, our amusement being greater or less according as we feel more or less reverence for the Scriptures themselves. As for that, the national taste is probably not shocked even by the idea of a New York *Daily News* editor transformed into an apostle. American wit and humor, if we may believe its European critics, habitually allows itself a somewhat free handling of sacred things, and we ourselves think there need be no fear that the "New Gospel" will be exposed to the danger that threatened the Scottish Chaldee Manuscript—a prosecution as a "profane and ribald" travesty of Holy Writ. Where so much of the wit consists in the garb, the man who invented that is entitled to a good part of such praise as can be accorded this performance, and much of the merit of the "New Gospel," therefore, does not belong to the writer of it. It is hardly doubtful that we should not have had it if Hogg had not previously produced "The Chaldee." That famous parody is superior to this in other respects than priority in time. Its biblical style is better preserved, fewer of its expressions being modern. It will be found, too, that in its effect upon the ear the Manuscript is not different from what the reader finds it, while in the "New Gospel" much of the wit, if it can be called so, exists for the eye only, consisting in the very Scriptural look of words whose sound is even as the sound of the words of the book Deilighnuse, as St. Benjamin himself would say. But there are some strokes in it which certainly are good, as, for instance, where the obtuse British holders of Confederate bonds are described, and one of them gives the rest some counsel that is well pleasing: "And they all cried out Eereer and Oo-rae, which, in the tongue of the Hittites and Hammerites of Gotham, is Hi-hi and Bulhiphurewe." The account of the Fenians, also, is witty, bringing, as it does, into sharp distinctness the absurdities of the Union Square doings by a mere statement of them, changing practical into verbal bulls. Irishmen in general, "Pahdees," as he calls them, get no good words from him, and negroes he despises. Radicals fare little better. While he praises Seward highly, he calls Greeley the "chief of the Oueecneas," a title which, when so applied, is truly absurd. Women, we should say, had at some time ill-used him. They receive very hard knocks at his hands over the back of Jeph the Repudiator. Wits, who naturally ransack earth and heaven for the weapons of their armory, are not to be held so strictly accountable as other men for what they say. License and authority to destroy much that other men admire and respect, is almost a need of theirs. The mental picturesque, like that of nature, is often none the worse for a ruined temple or dwelling-place. And narrow prejudices, bitterness, contempt, hatreds, and other proofs, as the poet says, that the man who feels them has faculties within which he has never used—all these pitiable things may, in the case of the jester, be only seeming and not real; he may need them merely as the motley of the mind; perhaps he only wears that dress in fooling. It is but fair to think of this in reading much that our author says.

A complete edition of the "New Gospel," with explanatory notes, practical remarks, comments, and illustrations, is announced as being in preparation. It ought to be preserved and made a companion volume to Mr. Richard Grant White's "Poetry of the Civil War."

A Practical Homœopathic Treatise on the Diseases of Women and Children. Intended for Intelligent Heads of Families and Students in Medicine. By Henry Minton, M.D. (Blelock & Co., New York.)—The remedies of homœopathy, as everybody knows, are (none could be more so) simple, portable, and agreeable both to take and to administer. It is this fact which, we will not say as much as anything but largely, recommends the system for domestic practice, and in not a few places enables it to boast a popularity over all its rivals. Waiving the question of the soundness of its fundamental doctrine, it must also be admitted that the successes of homœopathy are nowhere more conspicuous than in its treatment of women and children, who certainly show the greatest susceptibility to its medicines. A work, therefore, like Dr. Minton's, must prove of peculiar usefulness in households which are prepared to make it their guide on due assurance of its trustworthiness. Such assurance in the present instance we believe we can safely give. "Intelligent heads of families," of either sex, will find not the least difficulty in understanding the descriptions and instructions of this treatise, which is written in a thoroughly familiar and untechnical style. The author says of himself that formerly there never was a more bitter opponent of the "vagaries" of Hahnemann. In the war of "potencies" Dr. Minton advises for laymen the use of the thirtieth, and adopts for himself, apparently, whatever experience has shown to be most efficacious in any given case. We differ from him in dissuading women from attempting to become practical accoucheurs, or rather in doubting their ability to cope with the most formidable emergencies of child-birth. We incline to the opinion that nature points to the opposite idea, and it will not be disputed that our colleges for female physicians are turning out yearly a large number of responsible practitioners, and that this number is steadily increasing. The author asserts quite broadly on p. 435 that "no *healthy* child sleeps on its back; and, when the child is found habitually sleeping in this position, no other symptom is necessary to assure the child's being in ill-health—the position itself being the result rather than the cause of disease." For our part, we remember to have seen very healthy children sleeping in the position here denied them; but what will be said of the infants of the aborigines, who are strapped upon a flat board, now hung upon the mother's back, and now inclined against a tree? Do the pappooses never sleep, or are they proverbially sickly? The whole question of the normal position in sleep, whether for children or for adults, offers a very interesting investigation. The individual mode of life and constitution affect this posture very variously

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

WHAT THE EUROPEAN WAR IS ABOUT.

WE may expect to hear now by every mail that nearly a million of men are engaged in hostilities in Germany and Italy, and that the whole of the European continent is shaken by the shock. There has not been since 1815 promise half so strong of a general war. It was not difficult, after all, to "localize," as it is called, the Belgian-Dutch war, or the Austrian-Hungarian war, or the Russian-Turkish war, or the French-Austrian-Italian war. These were all avowedly waged about interests essentially local, or else were so far removed from the great centres of European affairs that any of the great powers which chose to stand aloof could do so without difficulty. But this war which is on the point of breaking out will rage in the very heart of European civilization, and, though nominally for the possession of a strip of territory, is in reality waged to shape the future of one of the great races of the world, and to decide whether one of the oldest and proudest of European empires shall or shall not vanish from the map.

And yet nine out of every ten of our readers have probably no idea at all, or a very vague one, of what it is all about. There is a confused notion in the public mind that Schleswig-Holstein is somehow or other at the bottom of it, but how it got to the bottom of it, or why it remains there, very few indeed know. Most people have been deterred from following the Schleswig-Holstein controversy at all, owing to the general and not unnatural belief that it was incomprehensible. The efforts of most European journals to throw light on the matter have made it as clear as mud. *Punch* published a year or two ago an amusing burlesque on the subject, which was probably of as much value to most readers as the most serious of the previous attempts at explanation.

We do not propose to follow the dispute through all its ramifications. An "exhaustive" treatise upon it would fill several volumes. But the gist of it is this: The Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein are subject to the Salic law, which prohibits a woman from reigning. In 1460 they were inherited by the King of Denmark, and they remained in the hands of his descendants until the time of Frederick VII., who died in 1863; with him the direct male line terminated, and the duchies legally reverted to the young Duke of Augustenburg. In view of this contingency, however, a conference of the great powers was held in London, in 1852, at which it was resolved for various considerations affecting the peace of Europe, but perhaps from deference to Russia as much as any other, that the duchies should remain annexed to the Danish Crown and should not pass in the legal order of succession.

When the King died in 1863, however, it was found that the popular party in Germany were by no means disposed to acquiesce in the arrangements of the diplomatists. Holstein is German, and has always been a member of the German Confederation, though governed by a Danish prince, and there was a general outcry against its annexation to Denmark. The clamor grew louder every day, and at last found formal expression through the Diet, which ordered the King of Denmark to take himself out of Holstein. On his refusal, "federal execution" was ordered—that is, the troops of the Confederation were ordered to turn him out, and put the Duke of Augustenburg in possession.

Up to this point Prussia and Austria had stood aloof. The movement against Denmark being an essentially popular one, they would have nothing to say to it; but as soon as the troops began to move, they announced that if there was to be any fighting done, they would do it themselves, and would not allow the smaller states to interfere. By this time Denmark had yielded Holstein to the federal army; but Prussia now came in, and demanded Schleswig also, and sent the federal army about its business. Austria then sent troops to the scene of action also. Denmark prepared for resistance, Lord Russell swore by the nine gods that Denmark should not be harmed; but the Prussians kept marching. Düppel was taken in due course, and then a conference was hastily called in London, in May, 1864; but Prussia refused to suspend operations during its sittings. After a fortnight's wrangling it accomplished nothing, and it had hardly broken up when Alsen was taken, the war was over, and Denmark was prostrate at the feet of the invader. A treaty was made at Vienna in October of the same year, by which Denmark ceded Schleswig, Holstein, and Lauenburg to Prussia and Austria jointly, but Prussia bought out Austria's interest in Lauenburg for 2,000,000 thalers.

So far all had worked harmoniously enough. But the trouble was now to begin, as the spoil had to be divided. The two powers found themselves in the duchies what the German lawyers call *condomini*—joint rulers and proprietors. Each of them sent down a civil commissioner and a military commissioner, and these four officers speedily began to quarrel. The Austrian commissioner coquetted with the Duke of Augustenburg, and encouraged demonstrations of attachment to him on the part of the inhabitants; the Prussian commissioner forbade these demonstrations, and the bickering became so serious that an effort was made to terminate it diplomatically. The convention of Gastein was accordingly made in 1865, by which it was arranged that Prussia should hold Schleswig, the harbor of Kiel, and the federal fort of Rendsburg, and Austria Holstein. This was, however, simply a provisional arrangement; nothing was determined as to the ultimate disposition of the conquered territory.

In February of the present year, Bismark—who makes no secret of his belief that Austria has no business in Germany, that she is not a German power, that her proper capital is Pesth, and her proper mission the civilization of the barbarous countries of Eastern Europe—impudently and brusquely gave her notice that he wished her to evacuate Holstein. She was naturally somewhat taken aback by this arrogant demand, and declined compliance. About this time some disturbances broke out among the Jews in Bohemia. Austria moved troops up to restore order, and Bismark at once cried out that she was arming. She denied it; he insisted she was, and he at once began to put the Prussian army on a war footing and sent agents into Italy to stir up the Italians, and, it is strongly suspected, entered into a secret convention with Victor Emanuel. On perceiving the movement in Italy, Austria began to strengthen her forces in Venetia. Bismark affected to regard this as another threat and pushed on his preparations with greater vigor than ever, but offered to let the Austrian corps in Holstein retire unmolested. The "notes" which have been since interchanged are mere formalities. Prussia is clearly determined on trying conclusions with Austria, and the manner in which the quarrel has been begun and carried on leaves no room for an honorable exit to either party, nor does it seem that anything except Bismark's or the King's death could now avert an appeal to arms. The confident manner in which the Italians are moving to the attack leaves very little doubt that the whole programme is already made out.

It is, of course, impossible to predict with confidence the course events will take. But it is reasonable to expect that Austria will be driven from Venice and out of the duchies; that, at a later stage of the conflict, France will intervene and claim the left bank of the Rhine, permitting Prussia to compensate herself by the absorption of the smaller German states, and offering Austria the Danubian principalities to make up for her losses in Western and Southern Europe. This would make the latter less of a German and more of a Slavonic and Rouman power than ever, and would virtually convert Prussia into a German empire. But Russia may prove a disturbing element in this calculation, and, unless her domestic troubles are serious enough to tie her hands, would probably lay a strong hand on the principalities.

THE SPEECH AT AUBURN.

EVERYBODY has been for some days expecting a speech from Mr. Seward, and everybody has probably been expecting just such a speech as he has now delivered. Perhaps we ought to except that passage which attacks the civil rights bill and puts it upon an equality with the fugitive slave law, because it "unnecessarily arrays Federal courts and officers in conflict with the authorities of the States upon questions of individual property and liberty." The short answer to this statement, it is needless to say, is that the arraying spoken of was not unnecessary. And the moment the State authorities choose to make it unnecessary,

by ordaining the equality of all classes before the law, the bill itself disappears. But, although the odious comparison is a little surprising, even this attack might have been expected, for Mr. Johnson has made it over and over again, both before and since Mr. Trumbull's conclusive reply to it, and the Secretary and the President, it is pretty well known, are of one mind in the matter.

The speech naturally divides itself into three parts, of which two may be dismissed without any extended consideration. At the close, Mr. Seward defends the President from the charge of having been unfaithful to the party which elected him, and explains how he happened to send three veto messages to Congress. It is in this part that the civil rights bill comes in for attention, and here, too, we are once more told that Congress can turn out any members who, after admission, may prove to be disloyal, a statement in which this fallacy inheres, that the Congress which is to turn out will not be the same Congress which lets in. At the beginning we have a display of that cheerful good nature for which Mr. Seward is renowned. His optimism is almost as great as that of Hood's auctioneer, who poured out to his stage-coach companions as highly-colored descriptions of every parcel of real estate they passed as if he had been in the very act of deceiving people just previous to a sale at a sacrifice. His own references to his well-known hopefulness, we dare say, recalled the recollection of his ninety-day prophecies, and supplied some of his audience with an argument against perfect trust in the very rosy view which he gave them of the present. "The people of the South," he said, "have brought forward with alacrity the remains of their once-cherished institution of slavery, and cheerfully thrown them to be burned upon the constitutional altar which they had so newly restored." They "all at once renounced the principles, practices, and policy of secession; new constitutions were framed in harmonious agreement with the Constitution of the United States; everywhere throughout the South the Executive is obeyed; the various departments—among the rest the Post-office Department, by name—exercise their appropriate functions in every Southern State; the communities once rebellious have loyally sent senators and representatives to the Congress which they once despised, and their delegates are now awaiting the good pleasure of the two houses. The Union is restored, and the South is in the Union as much as it was in 1787."

Events such as these, the middle of the speech begins, have dictated a certain kind of restoration—a policy which grew out of the events themselves, a policy which the Constitution authorizes, which the President may have been the first to recognize, but which was certainly no invention of his. Nothing is needed now but to reconcile this Presidential plan of restoration with the Congressional plan; or, rather, as Mr. Seward takes pleasure in pointing out, to reconcile it with the many discordant plans which each find some favor in the eyes of some Congressmen. None of these schemes pleases Mr. Seward. The proposition to grant suffrage to the negroes, and that which bases representation on voting population, are put aside with a few words as impossible to be obtained, even if desirable. The report of the committee pleases him least of all. It is too harsh; it seeks to shuffle off the time of restoration; the delay is needless, and worse than needless, for Congress and the President differ only in respect to non-essentials, and the interests of the Union party imperatively demand that there should be no division in its councils.

But, unless he thinks himself well employed in confusing the public mind, Mr. Seward wastes his time when he argues at such length that the difference between the two plans is a difference in non-essentials merely. The Congressional plan, Mr. Seward must recollect, is not made. It is making. It will be made to suit the wish and will of the loyal people whose efforts alone made reconstruction of any sort possible. And between this plan, whatever it may be, and the plan which Mr. Seward advocates, there is at least this difference: one says to the South, Our right to impose conditions upon your return is perfect; the other, You are restored already; your right to immediate possession of all your powers in the Union is perfect. This difference in the underlying principles of the two plans Mr. Seward ignores. This is not a difference in non-essentials but in essentials, and sets the two plans wide as the poles asunder.

At the present stage of Congressional action it is easy for a clever speaker to show how little there is to choose between a scheme still under earnest discussion and not yet offered for the assent of the loyal, and another scheme which has been taken out of the region of controversy, put beyond the hope of improvement, and which, though it has obtained little support from loyal men, has called forth the enthusiasm of the disloyal. But the real wide difference is not to be explained away, and it is from this that we look to get a settlement of certain vital questions which it suits Mr. Seward to puff airily aside. Our faith in time is, like Mr. Seward's, very large, but that is not the wisest faith which trusts the centuries and lets the years and days of advantage slip.

LEGAL LITERATURE IN AMERICA.

No candid reader of treatises under both the common and the civil law has ever doubted the inferiority, in an æsthetic point of view, of law books prepared under the former system to those which are used under the latter. England and America have, even at this day, no legal treatise worthy of comparison with the works of Pothier, Merlin, or Savigny. It is even doubtful whether Kent or Blackstone deserves to be placed on a level with Bell's "Commentaries on the Law of Scotland," in spite of the quaint language frequently used in that work. In all standard treatises under the civil law there will be found a clear statement of first principles, from which the structure of the work is regularly built up, subordinate rules following vital doctrines in orderly sequence. In German treatises the subject is analyzed and arranged in a masterly way. Nothing is tucked away in corners; but every doctrine is provided with an appropriate place. In French treatises there is always manifest at least a respectable power of analysis, while the language of a French law book is as elegant, as accurate, and as lucid in style as that of any other literary production.

Contrast with this the legal treatises of England and America. One-half of them or more are mere compilations of reported cases, huddled together with but feeble efforts to reduce them to order. The rest are attempts to extract principles from the decisions, and to give the result of the authors' investigations in an original form. The latter class of books are undoubtedly founded upon the better theory of authorship; but, unfortunately, the *attempts* are many and the *successes* few. Rarely do our legal writers display much analytical power in examining or arranging their subject. Still more rarely do they venture to pursue a strictly scientific method. One author announces that his arrangement is based upon the natural sequence of events; another that he has sought to meet the expectations of the average of his readers as to where particular topics would be placed; another that he has distributed his subject with a view to accommodate the notions of nine-tenths of the bar; while one eminent writer candidly acknowledges that all he can say for his arrangement of a bulky treatise is that he has not found it extremely inconvenient, and hopes his readers will not.

A "treatise" published in Philadelphia a few years ago, and highly puffed by judicial and other critics, was made up entirely of long extracts from the published reports, cut up into sections of convenient length, and without any quotation marks to indicate where these extracts began or ended. The reader might go on for ten or fifteen pages wholly unsuspicious that he was reading borrowed matter. The cases cited in the judges' opinions are put into foot-notes, and the whole thing is managed with so much typographical ingenuity that it is almost impossible to comprehend the trick without comparing the book with the printed reports from which it is servilely copied. Another book is abridged from treatises upon the same subject, with such lack of independent thought that all their errors, typographical as well as legal, are copied into it. This book also has been made the subject of extravagant laudation. Many like examples, unfortunately, might be cited. We might mention books so manifestly made up from digests that one who reads both will find the cases cited in precisely the same order and all the errors repeated; books purporting to be new editions in which no change is really made from old editions; English books republished with American notes of the most worthless character, after entirely new editions had long been published in England with most important modifications; books with an average of half-a-dozen typographical errors per page, and what not.

Without dwelling further upon these flagrant impositions, we will illustrate our views by reference to some standard works which are too well established to be affected by criticism. Of these we may speak freely, without injuring their sale. The works of Judge Story, for example, have a value which cannot be destroyed by their defects, and are, indeed, accepted as authority worthy of respect, entirely apart from the citation of cases, upon

which most legal writers must depend. Yet every careful and intelligent student of these works freely expresses, in private, his dissatisfaction with their loose and vague statements, and with the great amount of repetition in them. The whole of these writings could be reduced to one-half their size with great advantage to all, except perhaps the publishers. Judge Story's work on notes consists mostly of the same matter as that on bills of exchange. His treatises on agency and bailments largely run into each other. His equity jurisprudence is very defectively arranged; the chapter on constructive fraud, in particular, being a perfect drag-net for all the material which he could not afford to lose, but did not know how to dispose of. Professor Parsons's work on contracts, which has been, we believe, one of the most successful American law books, is open to great objection on account of its arrangement, which cannot be explained upon any sound principle. Thus he puts the law of agency, trust, partnership, and even of commercial paper, under the head of "Parties," at the very beginning of his book, before entering upon the elementary questions of consideration and consent. The statute of frauds, and many other rules of general application, follow at the end of several hundred pages devoted to particular species of contracts. The late Mr. Sedgwick's able treatise on damages is also very ill arranged, and no one can feel any confidence, in consulting it, that he will find all the law on one topic in one place. These are among the most esteemed law books. Much more complaint might justly be made of the inferior class of treatises.

One great cause of the low condition of our legal literature is the almost entire absence of competent and fearless criticism. A law-book, so far as it receives notice in the newspapers or magazines at all, is always flattered. Few critics know much about law, and most of them think it safe to praise where they cannot possibly judge. Legal critics generally write their notices with a view to get advertisements rather than to enlighten their professional brethren. A very little candor brings down a storm of wrath from the publishers, who seldom fail to impute dishonorable motives to any unpleasant criticism. The critic's employer is often indisposed to sustain him in telling the truth, especially if it interferes with business. In the end, frank and even caustic criticism would be the best even for authors and publishers, while it would render an immense service to the profession at large; but this is a truth as hard to be received by the parties who suffer at first as the now acknowledged truth that the South will prosper more without slavery than with it.

Our ideas of the true method of preparing a law book may be stated in a few brief points:

1. A treatise should be carefully distinguished, in *fact* as well as name, from a mere digest. It should contain a statement of principles, not a mere series of applications of principle to practical affairs.

2. Every treatise should be confined to one subject. A book on sales should say nothing about the competency of parties to buy or sell. That belongs to the general subject of contracts. If it is repeated under the head of sales, it will be again under that of hiring, agency, insurance, etc., as in fact it always is, under the present system. So a certain book of practice makes a merit of including in itself a short treatise on trade-marks, which is in truth a blemish in the book.

3. The subject should be arranged in a scientific order. All general principles should be stated first. Thus, in a book on contracts, every rule which affects all kinds of contracts should be given before touching the peculiar law of sales, bailments, etc. All cognate subjects should be grouped together. Thus, in a book of practice, all the law of costs should be gathered in one chapter, and nothing should be said about costs in the chapters on motions or trials.

4. Citations of cases should be confined to the foot-notes. This is essential to elegance of style, and to preserve true originality.

5. All the reported decisions should be cited. Attention to this has been the secret of Prof. Parsons's success; neglect of it has consigned "Bouvier's Institutes" (one of the very best American law books in other respects) to comparative obscurity. English and American lawyers *must* have the reported cases. Idiocy in the text, with a full citation of cases in the notes, will carry the day against genius in the text, with a barrenness of citation.

6. Subdivision should be carried very far. A book divided into short chapters, and much shorter sections, is much more likely to be concise, clear, and pointed, than one having no divisions less than ten pages long.

7. Rules and theories should be positively stated. If, as is often the case, the authorities conflict with each other, attention should be distinctly called to the authorities on both sides; but the author ought to be able to express an opinion of his own in the text. A mere statement of the conflict of opinions, without any effort to discriminate between them, is the office of a digest, not of a treatise.

The quality of our law books is a matter of no small importance not only to lawyers but to their clients. Justice cannot be well administered where the current legal treatises are inaccurate, vague, or ill-arranged. All classes of society have a direct interest in securing a statement of the law in correct, comprehensible, and well-written books.

Fine Arts.

THE FORTY-FIRST EXHIBITION OF THE NATIONAL ACADEMY OF DESIGN.

[FOURTH NOTICE.]

In the South Gallery, near the best of Mr. McEntee's landscapes, hangs the better of Mr. S. R. Gifford's two pictures, "Hunter Mountain, Twilight." It is a very happily composed landscape. Little of the mountain itself is seen, except its *silhouette* against the twilight sky; but the bounding lines are beautiful, seemingly true to the character of the mountain mass, and the lines of the foreground slopes enforce and assist them. The strength of the picture is, however, in its color, which is harmonious and forcible. There is no landscape in the exhibition, with the exception of Mr. Vedder's smaller and very small "Monk in Tuscany," which is wholly equal in color to this very beautiful sunset piece of Mr. Gifford. Even Mr. Homer's "Bush Harrow," which we had to mention among figure pieces, good landscape though it be—although having something of that strangeness which Mr. Gifford's harmonies lack, to their loss—is not varied enough, does not contain quite enough notes, to equal wholly the "Hunter Mountain."

Mr. Gifford's other picture, No. 191, "An October Afternoon," is so inferior to its fellow that we do not care to dwell upon it.

Color is, indeed, the strongest point of our better American artists as a school, and favorably characterizes that school as compared with other schools whose training is higher and whose power of description and of drawing is incomparably greater. And yet completely successful compositions of color are as rare here as elsewhere. It is for these reasons that we greet, with a pleasure which no other success can cause, anything approaching to complete success in color. The painter whom we believe to be on the whole the greatest colorist among our landscape painters, J. H. Hill, is never represented in our public exhibitions nowadays, and several other men who can color have sent nothing this year. We are the more grateful to those who have sent us pictures which are *paintings*, indeed. It seems, though we cannot enlarge upon it here, that there are characteristics of the American landscape which may tend to make the coloring of our artists too positive and too highly toned for the highest merit. It is in a great measure because he resists this tendency that we think so highly of Mr. Hill's work. Delicacy, also, is force; delicate strength in color will not be very popular, but only this is great and true.

Mr. Vedder has two pictures, both several years old; we spell out 1859 in the corner of the larger. They are both Italian scenes, and both were presumably painted when the artist was in Italy. "Paysage Fiesolé," No. 288, is a very effective landscape, and gives with unusual fidelity interesting features of Italian scenery; it is remarkable, too, for local truth; it is the hill of Fiesolé and not another hill which has been studied. The little picture No. 238, "Monk in Tuscany," is a better picture, principally on account of the beauty of its simple bit of distance. The insufficient drawing, and especially the disregard of detail, not more characteristic of these early studies than of the painter's most recent work, seem to be *un parti pris*. Mr. Vedder is the most sensational of painters (we do not accept the newspaper meaning of words as the right one, nor abandon every good word that the newspapers spoil), seemingly content if he produces the sensation, or, perhaps, he would say the emotion, in the spectator's mind that his picture is intended to excite.

Mr. Kensett's "Lake George," No. 234, is in his best vein. No. 252, "Sunset on the Coast," belongs to a class of pictures in which he has not shown an equal skill. We think Mr. Kensett's work hitherto has been better in everything else that he attempts than in rough sea. So far as these two pictures represent him, it is certainly so. Not so faulty as are the representations of the sea by some popular American painters, this picture of the waves running up to break on the coast is very inadequate; nor does this insufficiency seem caused by the slightness of the painting, otherwise very noticeable, but by failure to seize the true character of the waves—of the electric, writhing, tossing crest, and the polished hollows below. But in No. 234 the calm lake, the mountain beyond, and the sky are invested with a peculiar charm which it is Mr. Kensett's privilege to bestow upon his pictures. Certainly it is not to be wondered at that these lake pieces of his are so popular, and popular especially among the more cultivated circles of society. And

yet it may be difficult to account satisfactorily for this favor in which they are held. Much of it is in the "breadth" of treatment which marks them. In the picture before us there are no side issues; the whole is as single and simple in aim as a sonnet ought to be, *teste* Mr. Lowell's "Phœbus." The sky is certainly a proof of great skill in the art of making pictures—no mean art and no common skill. Not even the largeness of the subject, broad lake, high hills, nearer and farther clouds, is allowed to disturb its unity. Moreover, there is a certain equalness of finish and of actual merit: the clouds not notably better than the foreground, nor this better than the lake and trees. Truth is not served with entire devotion. The picture is not carried far enough, neither in detail, nor in force, nor in gradation which would give force, for a rank among the best landscapes of America. The foreground, for instance, would not harm but help the picture if it had more in it. The clump of trees on the right might be much more varied and more tree-like, and better for the picture, too. It is not detail for its own sake we ask for or desire in such a picture as this, but detail for the sake of general effect. But the beauty of such a picture as this cannot be overlooked, and would be only enjoyable but for the too high relative rank to which it is commonly assigned.

Mr. Cranch's landscapes are usually well hung, and as all three are well hung this year, they are among those pictures which demand notice. It is hard to say what merit of No. 340, "October View in Ulster County," caused it to be put in a good place; not the drawing, for trees, clouds, foreground detail, stone wall, even, are badly drawn. Probably not the color, for, in spite of large masses of bright colors given by autumn trees, the tone of the picture is unusually gloomy and disagreeable, and the dark cloud on the left is a wonder of harshness, as untrue as it is unbeautiful. It cannot be any of those merits which we have found Mr. Kensett's picture to possess—they are not to be found here in any noticeable degree. In these respects other pictures may, indeed, be worse. No. 341 is probably worse, and worse in color as well; and if Mr. Cranch's picture were hung as high as it, and as high as the committee have hung other pictures better than either of these, 340 and 341 would pass equally unnoticed. In the case of No. 279, "In the Harbor of Venice," much of the merit or demerit of the picture depends upon the good or bad drawing of the boats, and there are few persons whose opinion on that matter can be considered final. Mr. Cranch, however, can hardly object to the conclusion that his Venice boats are probably as his Venice buildings. Of the total inaccuracy of his renderings of Venetian architecture we spoke last year. The failure to seize any of the essential characteristics of Venetian architecture, which is capable of positive demonstration, shakes the trustworthiness of all other reports of Venetian or Italian things. Mr. Alfred Fredericks in his romantic pictures rather misuses the beautiful art of Verona, but his work shows feeling for some of its beauties, and a student of Italian art is rather pleasantly reminded by the pictures before him of the architecture he has left behind. With Mr. Cranch's Venice it is very different.

Of No. 208, "The Frost King," there is little that need be said. If any one thinks it imaginative, we cannot prove that it is not. In respect to execution it is very feeble, but not more so than most of the work this artist exhibits.

Mr. Benson's cloud-painting is not better than in former seasons. There was a little picture at Mr. Avery's gallery during the winter which seemed to us better than other work of this painter's; but in the new "Cloud Towers," No. 40, there is no advance over the former picture of the same name, nor is the cloud and wave drawing other than very coarse and very formal—untrue, therefore, from several points of regard.

Mr. Frank Anderson's little picture, No. 482, "Peekskill Village," contains delicate and careful foreground and tree drawing, but is not what we have hoped for since last autumn's study. The sky, however, seems to hurt the picture, which would be more beautiful, at least, if this were purer and brighter and had clouds of somewhat more decided character.

Miss McDonald's pencil-drawing of a cat, No. 83, is very minutely and very truthfully drawn, up to a certain point; it lacks in force and is "flat"—that being the almost uniform fault of those who are trying in earnest to draw what they see exactly as they see it. In the little water-color landscape, No. 78, there is an approach toward mastery of the material and of the subject, and the pure tones of the drawing make it very pleasant to look at. The rather uninteresting house and fences are made picturesque by the careful treatment of the shadows. But the tree-branches ramify in a very meaningless way, are very insufficiently drawn, indeed, and the clouds are a serious injury to the picture, being very much like flakes of cotton.

Mr. R. J. Pattison's pictures, six in number, are all small studies of foreground detail on rather a larger scale than usual. Of these the best seems to be "The Young Mullein," No. 43, in which the mullein itself is painted with remarkable success. The bird in No. 437 and the tortoise in No. 448 are excellent, and very faithful portraits there can be no doubt. But, as pictures, all these are hurt by the absence of any distinctive brilliancy of light. An uniform daylight seems to have been everywhere diffused when they were painted. The color is but poorly harmonized, and is not brilliant. This indeed seems to us Mr. Pattison's least strong side.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday Evening,
May 24, 1866.

THE past day or two have been a period of unusual excitement in Wall Street. The financial panic in Europe, which has brought down the house of Peto & Betts, and, it is feared, other houses and institutions more or less connected with this country, has had the effect of stimulating specie exports from this side at a rate wholly unprecedented. Five millions were shipped yesterday, making fourteen millions in ten days; and on Saturday a further amount of from three to five millions will probably go out. These arrivals will, of course, relieve the pressure in England, if it has not subsided by the time they reach their destination. On receipt of the *Cuba's* news by telegraph, on Monday last, at 4.30 P. M., a rush was made for the gold-room, and in about half an hour the Government broker sold not less than fifteen millions of gold at 130⅛ and 130¼. On the following morning he appeared in the room. The price was then 132. It fell, on his appearance, to 131¼, at which price he sold a million. He was then called away by orders from Washington, and he has not been a seller since. His total sales, in the past ten days, have been about $32,000,000. When it was ascertained that the Government would sell no more, the speculators quickly bid up the premium. Yesterday, 139 was touched. To-day, at 3 P. M., the price stands at 139¼.

These heavy sales of gold by the Treasury have led to an active demand for money. On Tuesday the market was active at 7; yesterday it was stringent, and there are no signs of an abatement of the pressure to-day. Of course, a stringency caused by a temporary enquiry for greenbacks, which are to be disbursed almost as soon as they are received, cannot last long. But it has already lasted long enough to cause great inconvenience in Wall Street and a pretty general decline in stocks. Prices of produce are generally higher on the advance in gold, but their upward tendency is checked by the difficulty of negotiating paper. The best names, on short paper, are not readily sold even at 7 per cent. For money on call as much as 7 and a commission was paid yesterday.

In the stock market the cliques which have been carrying large loads of fancy stocks at high prices, in anticipation of a fresh speculative outburst, have been sorely tried within the past day or two. The Rock Island and the Fort Wayne cliques have both been forced to sell, and both stocks have declined materially. Should the money market be relieved, these stocks will naturally react; if the pressure continues a day or two longer, a further decline may be anticipated. Erie has sold as low as 66¾, partly on the activity of money and partly on expected arrivals of stock from England. When foreigners learn that there will be no July dividend, they will rush to sell their stock, and very low quotations will probably be made. New York Central, which is in the hands of the Prairie du Chien clique, has been held with considerable firmness, having only fallen 2 to 2½ per cent. The calculation of the bulls is that the present stringency must be followed by a return of great ease in the money market, and that if they can bridge over the next few days, they will be in a position to reap the reward of their schemes. Hence they are willing to pay a usurious rate for money rather than sacrifice their stocks. Governments are all lower, partly on forced sales by speculative holders, and partly on sales of foreign stock. The Sub-Treasurer has given notice that interest on debt certificates will be stopped on the 31st.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 17.	May 21.	May 24.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	108¾	108⅞	108¾	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds, old	101⅜	101⅝	100⅞	....	¾
5-20 Bonds of 1865	101⅞	102	101¾	....	¼
10-40 Bonds	96	96	94	....	2
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅜	102¾	101	....	1⅜
New York Central	94⅛	93¾	93¼	....	⅜
Erie Railway	73⅝	73¼	67⅜	....	5¾
Hudson River	109⅜	113	111⅛	....	1⅛
Reading Railroad	107⅛	107⅛	109⅛	2	....
Michigan Southern	79⅝	79⅛	78¾	....	¾
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	84⅛	85⅛	86¼	1⅛	....
Chicago and North-western	28⅛	28⅝	27¾	....	⅞
" " " Preferred	58¼	58¼	57	....	1¼
Chicago and Rock Island	93⅝	93¼	90¾	....	2⅜
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	98⅛	98⅜	94⅛	....	4¼
Canton	60¾	60¾	57¼	....	3½
Cumberland	47¾	46¾	44½	....	2⅜
Mariposa	12⅛	12⅛	11	....	1⅛
American Gold	130	130⅛	139⅛	9⅛	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅝	109¾	109⅞	⅛	....
Call Loans	5	6	7	1	....

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Assets, 1st Jan., 1865, - - - - 3,765,503 42
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 77,901 52

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DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - -	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - - - -	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - - -	944,042

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CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...	$11,799,414 68

RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.

For premiums and policy fees:			
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94		
Renewals	1,818,654 82		
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40	
Interest:			
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88		
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52		
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06	
Rent		55,833 34	$3,853,065 80
Total			$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:			
Paid claims by death and additions to same		$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions		20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium		58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies		190,691 40	
Paid Annuities		10,242 55	
Paid Taxes		38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses		174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums		334,255 12	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:			
Cash on hand and in Bank		$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages		7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)		4,468,921 25	
Real Estate		782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents		36,599 14	$14,112,349 85
Add:			
Interest accrued, but not due		$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid		5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received		655,844 30	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866			$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR			$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

Invested in Bonds and Mortgages in the State of New York, WORTH DOUBLE THE AMOUNT LOANED; Office Real Estate; Bonds of the State of New York; United States Stock.

No PREMIUM NOTES or Personal Securities are taken or held.

Dividends are declared ANNUALLY, and may be used as CASH in payment of premium, or to increase the amount of insurance.

Policies issued so that the premiums paid will purchase a fixed amount of insurance, non-forfeitable, without further payment of premium.

Policies are bought by the Company at fair and equitable rates.

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CASH CAPITAL, PAID IN, AND SURPLUS, $885,040 57.

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CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - - -	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - - -	275,253

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CHARTERED 1850.

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ANNUAL INCOME.....$1,000,000.

PURELY MUTUAL.

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The new business of this Society for the past year ($13,623,900) exceeds the new business of any New York Company in any previous year.—*See Superintendent Barnes's Annual Report*, 1865.

Hereafter Dividends on the first annual premium may be used as Cash in the payment of the Second Annual premium, and so on thereafter the dividend on each premium may be applied to the payment of the next succeeding premium. Policy-holders in most other Companies MUST WAIT FOUR OR FIVE YEARS before any advantage can be derived from Dividends.

The success of this Society has not been equalled by any Company either in this country or Europe, the Society's cash accumulation being over

ONE MILLION OF DOLLARS

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For the guidance of those who may feel disposed to assist us with their contributions, we may mention that the contents of THE NATION will fall nearly under four divisions—or that, at all events, these divisions would have to be kept in mind by anybody writing for it as a volunteer.

1. References to, and concise comments on, the news of the day, with the view of fixing the degree of its importance, and suggesting its bearings upon and relation to the main current of contemporary history.

2. Reviews or comments, whether in the shape of letters or articles upon important events, and upon the utterances of those who are, or are trying to be, leaders of public opinion.

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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, MAY 28, 1866. NO. 52

J. H. RICHARDS, PUBLISHER, 130 Nassau Street. ISSUED EVERY TUESDAY AND FRIDAY. FIVE DOLLARS PER ANNUM SEVEN CENTS PER COPY.

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Topics of the Day.

THE speech of Senator Stewart on Thursday, touching the reconstruction amendment, was admirable in many respects, and particularly so in its statement of the real relation of parties and its frankness in meeting the issue avoided by the Committee of Fifteen. In effect, as he says, the Union party is the party of negro suffrage, the Democratic party the opposite; and the former may count on the sympathy of mankind. To exclude the intellectual heads of the rebellion from office and a loyal population from the ballot-box is only to raise up new and baser leaders for the disloyal. Therefore the senator was in favor of abandoning disfranchisement for enfranchisement as the efficient safeguard against reaction. We believe that this is not merely the language of statesmanship, but that it only needs to be adopted by Congress to secure the general assent of the people, among whom, of course, we do not reckon the people of the States that revolted, because we do not hold their assent necessary to any constitutional amendment, and because none that would best serve the interests of the country would ever receive their voluntary adhesion.

THE bill for the equalization of bounties which passed the House on Friday obtained the enormous majority of 137 in a house of 141. This was partly owing to what has been called "the tyranny of the previous question." Still, the House would at any rate have passed a bill with the main features of this one and passed it very likely by a majority as large. Both parties voted for it, of course, even such Democrats as Mr. Le Blond and Mr. A. J. Rogers being desirous of giving bounties to the soldiers and sailors—a practical endorsement of the war which may, perhaps, give their wing of the party the right to be styled War Democrats in future. The bill gives $8 33⅓ a month to each soldier, sailor, and marine for every month between April, 1861, and April, 1865, during which he was disabled by wounds or was in active service—provided, however, that from this sum be deducted all the bounties which have been already paid, or are now payable, by the United States, or by any county, city, or town. It will probably add to the burden of the public debt the sum of $200,000,000, or even more, and we believe that the men for whose benefit the bill pretends to have been passed would themselves defeat the measure if it were submitted to them. No class of the community has been anxious for it except the politicians, and they, whether of the one party or the other, are loud in its advocacy. It is said that the fate of the bill in the Senate is by no means beyond a doubt—an assertion which is so far honorable to that body.

FEW persons have any but a vague idea of the injury directly inflicted on American commerce by the operations of rebel privateers. It is even rather surprising to learn that the Confederacy, first and last, had no less than twenty-five armed vessels engaged in these depredations. $25,546,000 is the estimated value of all the vessels of all kinds captured, and the value of vessels and cargoes not bonded and released, but actually destroyed, was $20,088,000. The total number of vessels taken in this way, by the enemy, was 283; of which 6 were steamers, 81 ships, 83 barques, and 70 were schooners. The *Alabama* was, of course, most destructive. It will interest both Englishmen and Americans to know, and we hope, eventually, Englishmen still more than Americans, that her captures numbered 69 vessels, worth $9,750,000. Next in number of victims comes the *Shenandoah*, with a list of 38 vessels, worth $2,888,000. But the captures of the *Florida*, though only 35 in number, were worth considerably more, being valued at $4,054,000. New York was the greatest loser, 41 of her vessels being captured; but New Bedford suffered more, for of her smaller marine 28 vessels were taken. Philadelphia and Boston lost 12 each. For these facts we are indebted to a statement whose accuracy is not doubtful, compiled by the acting secretary of the New York Chamber of Commerce.

THE latest legislation of Tennessee is in striking contrast with her legislation of only one year ago. She has just passed a law which re-enacts the civil rights bill and makes her black citizens equal before the law with the white. This is another not uncertain indication of the change which has been rapidly going on in the general sentiment of the country. Whether or not the improvement has already proceeded so far in Tennessee, in the region round Memphis, for instance, that Assistant Commissioner Fisk was quite justified in forthwith abolishing the Freedmen's Courts throughout the State, is a question which, in view of that officer's past course, we are not entirely unwilling to leave him to answer. He will be ready to rectify his action if it proves mistaken.

A PART at least of the people of North Carolina admit that their present assembling in adjourned convention is due to the belief entertained in October last that "by possibility, in the course of events, further action in the premises might be required or demanded by the President of the United States." But whereas these expected demands have not been made; and whereas, therefore, the October convention, it seems, did satisfactorily accomplish the purpose for which it was called; and whereas, by consequence, civil law is, as it ought to be, paramount; therefore, it was moved that the convention should at once adjourn. But this, by a vote of two-thirds of its members, it refused to do, either the premises or the conclusion failing to command assent. The conclusion, probably, for the message of Governor Worth, the choice of a majority of North Carolinians, asserts principles not much different from those of the resolutions, and demands immediate admission for North Carolina senators and representatives. Having made very good terms, this State naturally feels disposed to insist on them.

A FORTNIGHT ago we gave a description of Dr. Andrews's latest and perhaps greatest invention, the flying ship. His first trial-trip has been made and the vessel is said to have behaved exceedingly well. We

have only the report of the inventor himself and his friends as to the details of the ascent, but this at least seems certain, from the testimony of observers, that the ship did not drift slavishly with the wind and was repeatedly turned in different directions—in other words, momentum was given to a balloon and its course was changed at the will of its passengers. These are great advances in the art of aerostation; they are advances so great as to open a new epoch in that art and perhaps in the whole business of travelling.

THE Washington *Intelligencer* has recently discussed the Jefferson Davis trial in an elaborate article, and, with regard to the probable result of the trial, has arrived at the conclusion that it must be one of the three things—a verdict of guilty, or a verdict of not guilty, or the disagreement of the jury. This reminds us of "the Irishman" who, on being congratulated by a friend on the birth of a child, and asked whether it was a boy or a girl, requested him to guess. He guessed a girl, and on learning that he was wrong said, "Then it was a boy." "Ah!" said the father, "somebody tould ye."

MR. RAPHAEL SEMMES—or, as some of the papers now call him, "Ex-Pirate Semmes"—has gone to Washington to qualify for the office of probate judge at Mobile, by getting himself pardoned. He and his friends seem to have forgotten that this little formality is a necessary preliminary to the assumption of all offices of honor and profit at the South. It costs so little both in money and time that there is no excuse for omitting it, even in the case of the most hardened rebel.

OUR list of exchanges having become inconveniently large, we have with considerable reluctance reduced it.

THE military movements in Europe are beginning to assume a strategic character. At last accounts bodies of Austrian troops occupied the northern—Bohemian and Silesian—frontiers of the empire; a Bavarian army was approaching the confines of Bohemia, probably for co-operation with the Austrians; the Prussians were massed on the borders of Saxony, threatening an invasion of that kingdom; considerable transfers of troops were taking place in Venetia, and the Italian naval squadron was reported to have taken up a position between Ancona and Grossa, an island near the Dalmatian coast, thus blocking up the entrance to the northern part of the Adriatic, and, so to say, beginning the blockade of Trieste, Venice, and Fiume. Garibaldi had accepted the command of the Italian volunteers, the Senate had concurred with the Chamber in granting extraordinary powers to the King, and the enthusiasm of the people was still on the rise. Parts of the Austrian empire, Bohemia and Galicia, also evinced great alacrity for the war, while public opinion in Hungary seemed to be in suspense, to be decided by the Emperor's determination to restore or not to restore the liberties of the country. The impression was that Francis Joseph was about granting Hungary a responsible government in accordance with the laws of 1848, and placing it under the regency of the Empress. The armaments and works of fortification were pushed forward with increased energy. The Prussian ambassador was on the eve of leaving Vienna. A conditional treaty had been concluded between Prussia and Italy, and a threatening note addressed by the latter power to Hanover, demanding disarmament and a strict neutrality. The military occupation of both Hanover and Electoral Hesse by the Prussians was expected. Public opinion in Prussia, however, seemed to be little in accordance with the warlike efforts of the Government, and earnest demonstrations in favor of peace were not wanting. The Rhenish province was particularly alarmed on account of the war, threatened as it is by French invasion. To gain the favor of the majority of the people, Bismark, it was stated, intended modifying his cabinet on the basis of a coalition with the Liberals. Demands for the convocation of a German parliament were loud throughout Germany; in Vienna the re-assembling of the Reichsrath was urged by the independent press. A conference of ministers from the minor German States was assembled at Bamberg.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 26, 1866.

THE slow progress of debate in the Senate upon the problem of reconstruction, as presented in the report of the Joint Committee, is impatiently criticised by many. All of this week was to have been devoted to this measure, instead of which but three speeches have yet been made, and the vote upon it seems very remote indeed. Two prolonged caucuses of Republican senators have failed to agree upon united action, and another is to be held, the object of course being to avoid the semblance of division in their public action in the Senate. It appears to be nearly certain, however, that the third section, embodying the futile disfranchisement until 1870 of the participants in rebellion, will be abandoned.

The House has made fine progress with practical legislation, having about finished the tax bill. Nearly all the amendments hitherto made having been in the direction of a reduced revenue, a step in the opposite direction was yesterday taken by restoring to the bill the ten per cent. tax upon all incomes over $5,000 per annum. The publication of the income returns in the newspapers has been put an end to, the argument being that it is inquisitorial.

DIARY.

May 23.—In the Senate, the constitutional amendment reported by the Joint Committee on Reconstruction was taken up. Mr. Sumner favored postponing action upon it until July 1. The Senate determined to proceed with the discussion, and Messrs. Howard and Wade made speeches. Mr. Clark moved as a substitute for the disfranchisement clause, that no person who aided the rebellion shall ever hold office under the United States. Mr. Wade offered a substitute for the whole bill, providing that no State shall abridge the rights of any person born within the United States, and that no class of persons as to whose right to suffrage discrimination shall be made by any State except on the ground of intelligence, property, or rebellion, shall be included in the basis of representation.

In the House, the tax bill occupied the day and evening. It was amended so as to exact an income tax of 10 per cent. on all sums over $5,000, leaving those below $1,000 free from tax, and taxing incomes from $1,000 to $5,000 5 per cent.

May 24.—In the Senate, a special committee was ordered to report upon Government deposits in national banks. The House bill relating to appointments to the West Point Military Academy was amended so as to require the nomination by each Congressman authorized to appoint cadets of not less than five persons, out of whom the selection of one shall be made according to merit and qualifications, under rules prescribed by the Secretary of War. Mr. Stewart spoke three hours on the constitutional amendment favoring the extension to the States lately engaged in rebellion of all civil and political rights, on condition of their extending impartial suffrage to all their people. Mr. Johnson moved to strike out the third section. Mr. Sherman offered a substitute for the second and third sections, apportioning representation according to the number of male citizens qualified to vote by State laws, and apportioning direct taxes according to the value of real and personal property.

In the House, the Senate amendments to House joint resolution to prevent the introduction of cholera were concurred in. The bill to amend and continue in force the Freedmen's Bureau act was taken up. Mr. Stevens moved to strike out a provision authorizing the purchase of land at $25 an acre to supply homes in lieu of the freedmen's lands now occupied under Gen. Sherman's field orders, and to insert a provision that no such lands shall be surrendered. Adopted—yeas, 79; nays, 46.

May 25.—In the Senate, the House joint resolution relative to appointments to the U. S. Military Academy was passed.

In the House, the bill for equalization of bounties, by paying to every soldier of the United States at the rate of $100 per year of actual service, deducting therefrom what has already been received from local or national bounties, was passed—yeas, 139; nays, 2. The tax bill was discussed and amended, the House rejecting an amendment to reduce the tax on spirits from $2 to $1 per gallon.

May 26.—The Senate did not sit. The House spent the day on the tax bill.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE colored people of Wilmington, N. C., have forwarded through Gen. Howard to the President a petition, signed by upwards of one hundred and twenty-five colored men, praying the President that he "will scrutinize well the accusations which are made against" the officers of the Bureau in North Carolina "by our enemies, and withhold condemnation until the truth can be developed. We pray you not to let *our stronghold of defence* be stricken down." They moreover state that they have learned with regret and pain that those officers have been placed in arrest who were engaged in the cultivation of the land; that these agents were earnestly solicited to this work by the planters and by the freed people, in order that the free labor system might have an opportunity of development. They speak with great praise of Majors Wickersham and Mann. This petition was prepared and forwarded without the knowledge of the Bureau. Gen. Whittlesey has been relieved and Gen. Ruger ordered to perform the duties of assistant commissioner in addition to those of military commander.

Notes.

LITERARY.

THE recent fire at the Academy of Music was disastrous to science as well as to music. In the Academy itself the orchestral scores of many operas were burned, as well as a large amount of costumes and scenery whose loss will be felt by no one but the owners, as they were very shabby. But there were destroyed in the University Medical College the valuable museum of anatomical and surgical preparations prepared by the late Dr. Mott; anatomical and medical collections belonging to Drs. Post, Bedford, and Van Buren; a very large herbarium made by Dr. Paine; and the mineralogical, geological, and botanical museum of the Lyceum of Natural History. The loss of Dr. Draper is still more severe. His library and his chemical apparatus, his delicate and costly instruments, are all gone; and, worse than all, his unpublished notes containing the results of researches and experiments for thirty years. The glasses of the large telescope of Dr. Henry Draper, with which he took his beautiful photographs of the moon, were also destroyed. By another fire last Thursday night, at 654 Broadway, Mr. Scribner's book-store was very greatly damaged by water. Mr. Scribner had recently removed his establishment to Broadway and was about getting settled. A large number of beautiful editions of English books had been just sent over by Mr. Welford, but many of them, we are glad to learn, were still in the Custom House. His loss on books can hardly fall short of $30,000.

—Mr. Payne Collier has lately discovered a very interesting manuscript, once the property of Sir Christopher Hatton, as his signature attests. It consists of the instructions given by Thomas Norton (who, conjointly with Sackville, wrote the tragedy of "Gorboduc"), then Remembrancer of the city of London, to the Lord Mayor of that time (1573), for the proper discharge of the duties of his office. Several new facts in Norton's biography are elicited by this document—that he was Remembrancer, that he sat in Parliament for the city, and that he was born in London, and not at Sharpenhoe, Bedfordshire, as commonly supposed. It is a valuable illustration of the state of London at that time, for it goes carefully over the whole city and shows the abuses that needed reforming. One singular point is that the author of the first blank-verse tragedy condemns without reserve all public dramatic exhibitions, and inveighs especially against the performances of a set of Italian women-tumblers. The document will be printed by Mr. Collier. He has just issued Nos. 19 and 20 of his specimens of "Old English Literature," consisting of Hubbard's unique poem "Ceyx and Alcione," and the earliest English prose autobiography, Venard's "Apology for his Life" and for his early dramatic entertainment produced in 1602, called "England's Joy."

—The success of the explanations of the Grecian and Eastern myths by the comparative mythologists has led enquirers to investigate with more care the mythical and romantic stories that are floating everywhere, and are applied now to one person and now to another. We know that anecdotes circulate around the world with blanks ready to be filled in with names and dates, and we often hear as of recent occurrence stories that were told by Greeks and Indians. The story of William Tell is the story of Palnatoki, though the Swiss romancer probably never heard of the Sanskrit legend. Both belong to the common story-fund of the world. The romantic histories of the Saxon kings which we find in William of Malmesbury and Roger of Wendover, so amplified from the meagre accounts of the Saxon Chronicles, are now being studied and the kernels of fact are being eliminated. Mr. Edward A. Freeman, in a late number of the "Fortnightly Review," performs this unshelling process on two English tales, the supposed murder of Ædwine by his brother Æthelstan, and the legend of Eadgar, Æthelwold, and Ælfthryth. The first took its rise from the mere circumstance that Ædwine was drowned at sea, and the second from the probable fact that Eadgar married the widow of Æthelwold soon after his death, and probably against some canonical rule. These stories were founded on early ballads. It is interesting to see how in the legend of "Ædwine" there is introduced the stock story of an accusation by an unfaithful servant, the finding out of the truth, and the subsequent punishment of the traitor. The same story is repeated about King Ædward and the murder of his brother Ælfred on the accusation of Earl Godwine, and the subsequent death of the earl. It is of great advantage to compare these stories, as well as those of Wallace and the Bruce, and the legends of Charlemagne, with what we know to be real historical facts. In this way hints are given us as to the method of dissection of those classical myths that rest on a quasi-historical basis.

—After the revolution of 1848, the provisional government published a large quarto volume, with M. Taschereau as editor, entitled "Revue Rétrospective ou Archives Secrètes du Dernier Gouvernement." In this was included all the most confidential correspondence of the ex-king, his family, ministers, and ambassadors, that the government could find in the royal palaces. M. Guizot, in his "Mémoires," gives many particulars of the domestic life and personal character of Louis Philippe. Since the death of the ex-Queen Marie-Amélie there have been published portions of a series of letters from the king to his sister, Madame Adélaïde, which escaped the grasp of M. Taschereau in 1848. They extend from 1839 to 1845, and embrace all sorts of topics, from his first impressions of Lord Palmerston's Eastern policy to the minutest particulars of his domestic life. They are written without any constraint to this sister, who exercised such a powerful influence on him, and are mere off-hand and familiar talk. We see here all the anxiety of this citizen-king, this "commis-voyageur de la maison Orléans," as Heine called him, for the welfare and safety of his children and grandchildren; his troubles during the illness of the Comte de Paris, who would be very hungry and cry for "soufflé;" his annoyances caused by the gardeners at St. Cloud and the architects at Fontainebleau. He tells of his arrangements for a review, in which he speaks of his desire of pleasing "ce bon Cass," as he styles the American minister; and of the suitors who come for the hand of the Princesse Clémentine, whom he nicknames Clem. We hope the whole of the letters will be published, as they are valuable illustrations of the peculiarities and foibles of a king whose motto was "Never mind."

—The great work of Dr. Bastian, "The Nations of Eastern Asia—Studies and Travels," will soon be published in five volumes. The first volume will bear the title of "The History of the Indo-Chinese," and is based on their historical books and oral traditions. The author is trying to fill a void that has existed already too long, and has availed himself of a long stay in Further India to collect materials, both written and oral. The second, third, and fourth volumes will contain the journal of his travels in Burma in 1861, his residence in Siam and travels in Cambodia and Cochin China in 1863, and his journey through the Archipelago to Japan and China, and by the overland route from Pekin through Mongolia and Siberia to the Caucasus in 1864–5. To illustrate the literature of the nations of Eastern Asia, translations of their poems, romances, and fables will be given. In the last volume the author purposes to show the present state of Buddhism as it exists in South-eastern Asia, and as he saw it in his intercourse with the monks, and a comparison of it with Foism and Lamaism.

—One of the best Hebrew scholars of Europe has just died, Dr. Hupfeld, professor in the University of Halle. He was born at Marburg, in 1796, and early devoted himself to the study of philosophy and theology. In 1819 he became professor in the Gymnasium at Hanau. Having resigned this office in consequence of ill-health, he went to Halle and became a pupil of Gesenius. After a professorate at Marburg, on the death of Gesenius he was chosen his successor. He was the author of a Hebrew grammar, a work on the authorship of Genesis, and a commentary on the Psalms, besides minor works on topics relating to the Oriental languages and to Biblical criticism. His death, which took place suddenly on the 24th of April, leaves a place hard to be filled, as Hebraists are becoming every day rarer.

—At the city of Etchmiadzin, near Mt. Ararat, the seat of the Armenian Patriarch, there exists a splendid library of about 3,000 Armenian manuscripts, which has hitherto been inaccessible to scholars. A catalogue of the library has been prepared, the MSS. are thrown open to scholars, and notice has been given that extracts will be sent to the learned in all parts of the world who will pay the expense of copying them out. Among the works in the library are unpublished books of the Fathers, and unpublished fragments of Aristotle and Diodorus Siculus.

—Members of the Health Commission and others interested in the utilization of the sewage, a subject which is rightfully attracting much attention abroad, will be glad to learn that an exhaustive treatise on the subject has just been published at Zurich by the city engineer, A. Bürkli, with the title, "Ueber Anlage städtischer Abzugskanäle und Behandlung der Abfallstoffe aus Städten."

—Messrs. D. Appleton & Co. announce reprints of David Masson's "Recent British Philosophy;" "The Conversion of the Northern Nations," by Charles Merivale; Dr. William Smith's "Old Testament History," and Miss Yonge's "Dove in the Eagle's Nest;" also a translation of Carl Ritter's "Geography of the Holy Land," an edition of Bain's "Manual of Composition and Rhetoric," by G. P. Quackenbos, a "Life of President Johnson, by a Southerner," and the "Annual Cyclopædia" for 1865.

SCIENTIFIC.

UTILIZATION OF THE SUN'S HEAT.—As bearing upon the question of the ultimate exhaustion of the coal fields, which was discussed in a recent number of THE NATION, and the possibility of substituting other sources of power for the fossil fuel which is now so important an element in the existing order of human society, it is of interest to recall a series of experiments made some years since by Sir John Herschel, at the Cape of Good Hope. Near the extremity of the cape, between Table Bay on the one side and False Bay upon the other, is a sandy region known as the Cape Flats, upon which the sun pours down its rays without hindrance. Herschel's attention having been attracted by the very high temperature which the surface soil of these flats acquires under exposure to sunshine, he proceeded to make careful thermometrical observations in the spring of 1837 (October and December), and determined that the temperature of the sand and vegetable mould was often as high as 140° to 150°, and this in the open field. "When, however, the heat communicated from the sun is confined and prevented from escape, and so forced to accumulate, very high temperatures are attained. Thus, in a small mahogany box, blackened inside, covered with window-glass fitted to the size, but without putty, and simply exposed perpendicularly to the sun's rays, an enclosed thermometer marked, on November 23, 1837, 149°; on November 24, 146°, 150°, 152°, etc., etc. When sand was heaped round the box, to cut off the contact of cold air, the temperature rose, on December 3, to 177°; and when the same box, with its enclosed thermometer, was established under an external frame of wood well sanded up at the sides, and protected by a sheet of window-glass (in addition to that of the box within), the temperatures attained on December 3 were, at 1.30 P.M., 207°; at 1.50 P.M., 217·5°; and at 2.44 P.M., 218°; and that with a steady breeze sweeping over the spot of exposure. Again, on December 5, under a similar form of exposure, temperatures were observed, at 0.19 P.M., of 224°; at 0.29 P.M., 230°; at 1.15 P.M., 239°; at 1.57 P.M., 248°; and at 2.57 P.M., 240.5°. As these temperatures far surpass that of boiling water, some amusing experiments were made by exposing eggs, fruit, meat, etc., in the same manner (December 21, 1837, *et seq.*), all of which, after a moderate length of exposure, were found perfectly cooked—the eggs being rendered hard and powdery to the centre; and on one occasion a very respectable stew of meat and vegetables was prepared, and eaten with no small relish by the entertained bystanders. I doubt not that by multiplying the enclosing vessels, constructing them of copper blackened inside, insulating them from contact with each other by charcoal supports, surrounding the exterior one with cotton, and burying it so surrounded in dry sand, a temperature approaching to ignition might readily be commanded without the use of lenses."

In the same connection should be remembered the suggestion, often made, that the sun's heat could be converted into mechanical force through the intervention of thermo-electricity. A thermo-electric battery, of proper construction, upon being placed in Herschel's box, for example, would surely be thrown into energetic action, and the power thus generated would be susceptible of direct application.

EFFECT OF SUNLIGHT ON WINDOW-GLASS.—It is a familiar observation that window-glass shows a tinge of color—purple, blue, green, or yellow—when looked at from outside against a white shade or shutter within. The very best qualities of glass, even the best French plate, although white when placed in the windows, often become colored after exposure to air and light for months or years. We find in a volume of the "Proceedings of the Boston Natural History Society," lately published, some observations by Mr. Thomas Gaffield, which add something to our knowledge of this obscure subject. Mr. Gaffield exposed some thirty specimens of plate, crown, and sheet glass, coming from various factories in England, France, Belgium, Germany, and the United States, to the full action of the sun during the month of July, in such a manner that the specimens were exposed to reflected light and heat as well as to that which fell directly upon them. The glass, which already had a decided green or blue tinge, though called colorless, was not affected; but all the white glass, and all the glass which was nearly white, whatever its precise hue, turned to a yellowish color. Very light-colored glass was, in some instances, perceptibly affected by even a single day's exposure. Mr. Gaffield exhibited ten pieces of French white plate-glass, one of which showed the original colorless glass, while the others demonstrated the change of hue towards yellow, after an exposure respectively of one, two, and four days; one, two, and three weeks; one, two, and three months. The changes in the first four days were slight; but the last specimens were so yellow as to exhibit a very marked contrast with the original glass. That the color permeates the body of the glass, and is not confined to the surface, or produced by reflection therefrom, was proved by grinding off about one-sixteenth of an inch from both surfaces and the four edges of one of the specimens, which, notwithstanding, after re-polishing still exhibited the same yellow color.

It is to be noticed that in these experiments only the light-colored glasses were perceptibly affected, but it is quite possible that a longer exposure, for years instead of months, would alter every color in some degree. Theories to account for these changes of color under the influence of the sun's rays are not lacking, but a large multiplication of experiments and a greater accumulation of similar facts are necessary before any satisfactory explanation of these curious phenomena can well be given.

NITRATE OF POTASH.—In the manufacture of saltpetre from the nitrate of soda of Peru, as effected with carbonate of potash in the usual way, several difficulties are encountered. It is by no means easy, for example, to get rid of the last traces of the carbonate of soda which is formed at the same time with the saltpetre, and which is apt to remain adhering to it. Hence the finished nitrate of potash which has been prepared in this way is rarely, if ever, perfectly pure. But by using caustic potash in place of the carbonate of potash, it is asserted that very satisfactory results can be obtained. For, since the soda, which is set free in this case, is very much more soluble in water than the saltpetre, the greater part of the latter can readily be separated by crystallization.

The details of the process, which is that of Dr. Graeger, are as follows: One part of carbonate of potash having been dissolved in twelve parts of water, the solution is boiled with the amount of lime necessary to convert it into caustic potash; the lye being then decanted, after repose, there is added to it an equivalent quantity of nitrate of soda (Chili saltpetre), and the whole is evaporated down to a strength of about 40° or 42° Baumé. On now cooling the liquor, the nitrate of potash will crystallize out.

WHITENING OF PAPER.—That some paper manufacturers are accustomed to increase the weight of their products by the introduction of pipe-clay, plaster of Paris, and other heavy colorless substances, is notorious, though the act is not usually spoken of in terms of commendation. But a technical chemist in Europe now proposes, without any reserve, to do away with the usual processes of bleaching with sulphurous acid or chlorine, and to whiten the paper simply by addition of white substances. He proposes, in short, to introduce by chemical means a quantity of sulphate of baryta (barytes) directly into the texture of the paper. This is effected by adding to the paper pulp solutions of alum and of chloride of barium, together with a quantity of slaked lime. By these means sulphate of baryta, together with a quantity of hydrate of alumina, is precipitated in and upon the fibres which, in the subsequent process of felting, are converted into paper. The sulphate of baryta, being of a brilliant white color, will, of course, tend to conceal the coloring matters of the original fibre. As the sulphate of baryta is very heavy, and as paper is sold by the pound, the method in question will, no doubt, have a fair trial.

EDUCATIONAL.

THE Legislature of the State of New York has just made provision for four new normal schools, and various towns and cities are getting ready to bid, as they would at an auction, for the privilege of receiving these projected institutions. There is something laughable in this contest of the towns, reminding us that seven cities of old were claimants for the honor of producing Homer. On the other hand, the readiness with which large places are willing to offer one or two hundred thousand dollars for the prize of a teacher's seminary is refreshing. It shows that the people believe in education. We wish that this popular interest in normal schools was shared by our thinking men, our scholars, and our statesmen; or rather, we wish that able men would take up and discuss with vigor the proper characteristics of a training school for teachers. Can the art of teaching be taught, like the art of music, or is teaching a gift? Will the scholars of a normal school learn best by observing good teachers, or by practising themselves on a class of children? If by the latter course, how will the children fare? Are teachers for all classes of children, the young and the advanced, to be trained in the same way, or is there an appropriate discipline for different grades of schools? Is teaching a knack, or is it a science? Have we not erred in this country by adopting too many of the features of the Prussian normal schools? These are only a few of the enquiries which must suggest themselves to all who study the workings of our existing seminaries for teachers.

—One of the best phases of modern philanthropy is seen in the case of destitute and neglected children—those who would become the outcast and dangerous classes of society if protection were not extended to them by the

law of the state and the law of Christian charity. Benevolent men in various parts of our country and abroad have been working on different plans and theories to promote the same end, the reformation of juvenile delinquents and the prevention of youthful crime. Twice in New York within a few years conventions have been held for the discussion of this subject in its manifold relations, and two pamphlets have been printed containing the result of these deliberations.

—A third convention will be held in Boston, on the 5th of June next, under the auspices of the national and local "Social Science Associations." The topics to be discussed are mainly those of the New York convention of 1859, namely: 1. The distinction between vagrancy and destitution, on the one hand, and crime on the other; 2. The comparative value of the family and congregate systems in reformatory institutions; 3. The work to be done by public as contrasted with private institutions, and the true principle of distributing these institutions in the community; 4. The true principles of legislation in respect of vagrant and criminal children; 5. The best system of education in reformatories—including manual, intellectual, moral, and religious education; 6. The best system of discipline, and how to train officers to administer such a system; 7. The length of time during which children should remain in reformatories, and the best method of providing for them when discharged.

—Our allusion to the number of educated young men who took part in the war has drawn out the following statement in respect to the graduates of the Wesleyan University at Middletown:

"The whole number of alumni and students that entered the United States military and naval service during the war was 134; of these, 68 were graduates. The number of alumni living is 724. The estimated number of those who are within the military age is 610. Of the classes that were connected with the college from 1860 to 1866, inclusive, about 30 per cent. joined the army. The four classes which graduated during the war, 1861–64, sent 33 per cent. of their number into the service. Ten died in battle or from wounds, and eight from sickness contracted in the army."

From Trinity College, in Hartford, we learn that not less than fifty of their former pupils served in the recent war. Though this number is not large in itself, it compares well with the number of laymen who have been trained in the college. It is estimated that forty per cent. of the entire number of graduates between eighteen and forty years of age, engaged in secular pursuits in the Northern States, entered the national army.

—The city of Cleveland, if we may judge from a recent pamphlet, is deep in the discussion of the "High School" question. At any rate, some objections made against this member of the system of the public schools have drawn from the superintendent in that city a very clear statement of the principles on which the high school should be maintained. He argues that the high school is of great benefit to the lower schools, by inciting the ambition and industry of all young scholars; that it gives respectability and attractiveness to the public school system; that without its facilities hundreds of young men and women would fail to receive such a training as they need for useful stations in life; and finally that the high school furnishes a large number of good teachers for the other city schools. He also shows how it happens that, from absolute poverty and the necessity of entering upon lucrative occupations, many who begin fail to complete the high school course. The document in which these views are brought out is the Twenty-ninth Annual Report on the Cleveland schools. It will be found useful in the many places where this topic is now under discussion.

DEAN STANLEY'S JEWISH CHURCH.*

To appreciate and criticise properly the great work whose title we have placed at the head of this article demands more space than we can give to it. All we can do, therefore, is to point out its place in literature, its good fruits, and its defects. It yet wants another volume for its completion—the history from the Captivity to the formation of the Christian Church; but it is even complete as it is, since it contains the chief sections of interest in the history of Israel.

As to its place in literature, this work stands alone in the English language. Dean Milman's work is but an outline of Jewish history compared to it; but then in the history of the Jews the author's object is different. He presents the whole history of that people down to the present time, while Dean Stanley, even when his work is entirely completed, will not go beyond the time of Christ. So that the works do not at all conflict, the one being so much more comprehensive in subject than the other, and therefore briefer in its analysis of the Jewish Church; and these are the only two works, outside Biblical criticism, of any authority on these subjects in the language. Nor is Dean Stanley's a full history. It is the history of the Jewish *Church*, not of the race, its language, or antiquities; it has an ecclesiastical tone and spirit, though it has even less of this than any other work we have ever read in this line of study. It is a history written freely; it has the spirit, fashion, style, air of any other great history, and though the treatment is in the form of lectures, they serve an important purpose in enabling the author to mass his materials at certain points with great effect. He has done for Jewish history what Mr. Grote has done for that of Greece. He has stripped off the unsecular bands which have withheld the facts of the sacred narrative from the common and free examination of scholars, and presented the facts of Divine dealing with mankind in their simple nakedness, with too much nakedness, too great a leaning to the uncertain results of recent criticism, we think, in his first volume—a freedom which is far less noticeable in the second. This gives you the point of view from which the author writes, and to a degree determines the place and value of the book. It has underrated the work in the eyes of some narrow theologians; it has exalted it in the view of others. We should judge that Dean Stanley himself (the notes at the close of the recent volume are in evidence) has come to more settled opinion since 1862. It is never safe in a great work to lean too much to contemporary criticism, though you may wisely follow its perfectly established methods; yet this is what to our great regret the dean very evidently did, through his great interest in the Essay-and-Review controversy, which has now gone to a blessed oblivion. The good results of that burst of new learning are manifest in this recent volume; the yeastiness is abundantly evident in the former; and yet, perhaps, not every one will discriminate between the two. Any one who has read carefully the dean's articles in the "Edinburgh Review" will be able to trace the changes which have come over his tone of thought. For ourselves, we believe one need fear nothing from the careful criticism whose true results Dean Stanley has embodied in his work; for there is a conservative element in Biblical criticism (and, indeed, in nearly every great department of thought) which tends always to correct its worst manifestations. We have mentioned this element here because it has much to do in the assigning of this history to its true place in literature. And its place is without doubt this: it is the only standard, popular, and authoritative history of the Jewish Church which we have or shall have for half a century. It is an attempt to apply the result of critioism to a popular statement and illustration of the Bible history. It is the attempt to do in prose for the Hebrew characters and life what the lamented Keble did in "The Christian Year" and "Lyra Innocentium;" and as the religious public pass through the change in the treatment and way of looking at sacred subjects which an intelligent observer can trace even in our current literature, can very broadly trace in the reception, warm and fervent, given to Keble and the writers in "Lyra Apostolica" (of whom Keble himself was one), we think Dean Stanley's labors will be even more highly estimated than they are now. He has successfully accomplished a great work, and one whose labor strikes you as much lighter than it really is; for the very familiarity of our minds with the subject-matter of his volumes makes us all the more exacting in our demands upon the author himself. To us, with all the helps which he has unquestionably obtained from others and in a sense made his own, there is a colossal labor implied in his compact and brilliantly learned pages.

An objection has been made to this work on the ground that it is not a philosophical history in the fashion of much which passes for history at the present day, that it is less a succession of speculations than a statement of facts. But this we have always considered a merit. The methods of arriving at truth are not given; the facts themselves are pointedly and brilliantly put. And then the narrative is filled in with much which is diligently gleaned from sources foreign to the Bible—Jewish and Moslem traditions—of course only authentic for purposes of illustration, but here invaluable. This makes the dean's pages living photographs. He is evidently an ardent admirer of Macaulay; but his brilliancy is not mere rhetoric; it is the result, just as with Macaulay, of a vast and ever-present wealth of learning, and, for ourselves, we would far rather read such a brilliant work than the languid pages of unimaginative historians, even if we cannot read long at a time. Now this brilliancy, this apt illustration from a mosaic of facts, is apt to lead one to undervalue the real depth of Dean Stanley's perception of the seminal truths of history; and yet we have always found in him a healthy philosophy, and his deductions are always clearly made. Looking through the twelve hundred pages of Jewish history which he has written, one can hardly find the great crisis or change, and the truth which was beneath it, not fully and adequately presented.

* "Lectures on the History of the Jewish Church. Part I. Abraham to Samuel. By Arthur Penrhyn Stanley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. Pp. xl., 572. Part II. Samuel to the Captivity. By the same. Pp. xxx., 656. Two volumes. 8vo." New York: Charles Scribner. 1866.

Part of his success is due to his first-class literary abilities. The men who do a real honor to literature, whose minds are deeply imbued with the literary spirit, are very few; and Dean Stanley is one of them. He shows this skill and excellence in the construction of his narrative, in the disposal of its light and shade, in his illustration of his subject from literature and life, in his frequent comprehensive connection of all great epochs in history, in the command of an apt and choice vocabulary, in the management of his very sentences, in the lighter and even the deeper imaginative coloring which gives to some of his descriptions the charm and power of poetry.

Then there is to be added the special fitness which comes from the peculiar turn which his studies have taken for many years. His "Sinai and Palestine" has long since become an authority in Biblical study, and his two visits among the very scenes of sacred story have prepared him to present with almost the fidelity of an eye-witness the great events which he describes. And some portions of his work, as the battles of Joshua and the Judges, the career of Elijah, the rise of the Hebrew Monarchy and its splendid culmination in the reign of Solomon, are among the finest specimens of vivid, clear, brilliant narrative that we have ever seen. Whoever has read the chapter on Samuel can never forget its pathos and tender beauty, and whenever the author comes to the great humanities of his history the tone of the narrative blends in indescribable sympathy with the event itself, and some of these scenes are so brilliantly painted that to the mind's eye they will ever seem living realities and moving forms. Is not this the true method of writing history? The author ever remembers that he is not only a priest but a man, and that the characters whom he paints were once clothed with flesh and blood. And besides, there are some chapters which are priceless in their popular value. These are, "The History of the Prophetical Order," "The Nature of the Prophetic Teaching," and "The Jewish Priesthood," to which may be added "The Psalter of David" and "The Wisdom of Solomon." We know not where else to find in the language what these contain, and every student in divinity as well as every general reader knows how wrapped in mystery these subjects have long been from the want of clear teaching. Here Dean Stanley has supplied a great need. He has not written entirely as a theologian, but he has supplied what even theologians do not always teach. There are, of course, many who will go to the original sources for their information on such topics; but there are no sequestered bands of priests in this country to cherish these studies, and the hard-working parish clergyman is only too grateful for such popular exhibitions of important topics, since if he has any learning on many subjects it must be entirely derived at second hand.

We think the completion of this work so far an ominous sign. The day is passing by when commentaries are to be so generally trusted as they have been. The "Dictionary of the Bible" contains the digested knowledge for a hundred commentaries, and no work is more frequently quoted in the Jewish Church; and the dean's work itself is to a large extent to be the substitute for commentaries. It is a continual illustration of the Bible. Its brilliancy does not lead one away from the Scriptures; but it presents such a fresh and living synopsis of their great points that the reader goes to them with greater interest than ever before, and just in this particular are such works as the present to supersede commentaries. There will always be a learned criticism answering most useful ends; but for the mass of intelligent readers such books as the "Jewish Church" are to be the chief introductory works to the Bible. One cannot but regret, therefore, in this change of study (and "Ecce Homo" is a witness of this change, so far as the New Testament goes) that Dean Stanley sometimes assumes an entirely negative position, so far as the theological bearings of his subject go. It is doubtful whether he was wise in leaving out so entirely what was theological. It has always seemed to us, though here we are chiefly concerned with the literary merits of this work, that in the Jewish history theology and history go together; and if we are right, the dean's silence, which is sometimes painful in the first volume, is the great defect of his work. If this work is to be used, as it probably will be, instead of a commentary (for we have none on the Old Testament in English that are of much value), this defect will be such as to interfere largely with the usefulness of one of the great works of the day. The author seems to have ignored this part of his subject through a fear of that excessive typicalism which is the other extreme, and yet he has made many honest amends for it in his second volume, though he has not said all which Christian scholars will demand. This is of a piece with the unfortunate prejudice under which the whole work was written. Dean Stanley is probably learning, if we may so interpret his most recent course, that there is a catholicity, though we admire exceedingly his noble liberality of thought and his frank assertion of it, which loses sight of the truth.

We should like very much to enter more fully into the criticism of the "Jewish Church," since it both provokes it and will bear it; but there are numberless others who will do that effectually enough. Whoever will give it close study and use carefully the foot-notes, will bring very much to the elucidation of the Scriptures; and we are entirely safe in saying that no such portrayal of Jewish life and character can elsewhere be found. The literature of the subject has been exhausted. It is to be regretted that many of the references in the notes have not been adapted to the American editions of the books referred to, as the "Lectures on the Science of Language" and "Milman's History of the Jews," and some other works. It is a blunder which publishers ought not to make, and we do not know of a reprint of any good book in which it has not been made again and again. But the publisher deserves great credit for the superior style in which the work is presented to the public, and the ample apparatus, excepting this neglect in references, which makes the work useful and handy. The day has gone by when good readers wish good books in bad type and paper and binding in this country.

ALEA JACTA EST!

THE state of Europe throws my mind into the greatest perplexity. We are on the eve of a terrible crisis, similar to the Thirty Years' War or to the great Revolutionary war—of one of those convulsions the issue of which nobody can foresee. It seems as if all the nations of Europe were on the point of being thrown into a furnace, and nobody can predict what alloy will be found when the melted metals are left to cool. Millions of men are already under arms, and in a few days will probably confront each other on the battle-field. The pretext is a miserable dispute about the miserable duchies of Schleswig-Holstein. The real cause, which is visible enough to a good observer, is the singular alliance which has been formed between good and evil passions, between egotistical and national aspirations. Italy wishes to tear Venetia from the hands of Austria; Bismark, to assure the triumph of his ambition and of Prussian hegemony; the French Emperor, to silence the liberal opposition and to consolidate by new victories his tottering dynasty. From these various and almost contradictory motives these three powers have entered into a conspiracy against the peace of Europe. Bismark has spoken first, Italy has armed after him, and now Napoleon III. has thrown off the mask at Auxerre in one of his fatidic speeches. Turning his back upon Paris and on his own parliament, which a few days before had unanimously cheered a pacific speech pronounced by M. Thiers, Napoleon III. shows himself to the peasants, tells them that among them only he can breathe freely, and that with them he expects to destroy the remnants of the treaties of 1815. But who, before history and before the French people, must bear the responsibility of these treaties but his illustrious ancestor? And besides, how can a Prusso-French alliance be reconciled with an attack upon these treaties? This remains to be seen.

Three points in these famous treaties, which every Frenchman detests, were exclusively directed against France; a bastion was placed on the north, if I may say so, which was the kingdom of the Netherlands; a bastion on the south, the kingdom of Sardinia, under the guard of Austria; and between them a long line of attack was extended from Cologne to Sarrebrück. The liberal revolution of 1830 cut in two the kingdom of the Netherlands, and placed between us and the remains of it the neutral and friendly kingdom of Belgium; the Italian war has freed our frontier of the Alps; there remains then only this point of the Prussian sword which enters into our very heart. Does the Emperor hope that Bismark will voluntarily withdraw it, and that, satisfied with seeing an administrative and military despotism established all over Europe, the Prussian army and bureaucracy will gladly fall back on the right bank of the Rhine? I have my doubts on this point. Will the French Emperor be satisfied with Landau, Sarrelouis, and what is called the frontier of 1814? It would be a very trifling price for the blood which must soon be shed, and the most threatening and dangerous part of the treaties of 1815 would still be maintained, and would even be aggravated by the increase of the Prussian power. Has the Emperor no settled design? and does he only hope to profit by circumstances? We shall see.

The war is, I hear, very unpopular in Germany, and I do n't much wonder; for, in point of territory, the Germans have nothing to gain, and unity in the shape of military and bureaucratic despotism cannot be very acceptable to the German patriots. Italy may gain Venetia by this war, and I would rejoice if she did; but I cannot help thinking that this conquest will come too early or too late: too late, for if it had been made in 1859, according to the first promises of Napoleon III., Italy would have escaped many

difficulties and not have found herself nearly bankrupt; too early, for in the interest of her own independence it would be better for her if she could seize Venetia without the help of two despotic powers, or obtain it from Austria by pacific means, which sooner or later must have happened.

Nobody can have more sympathy than I have for the German people; in my work on the United States I have tried to do full justice to the conduct of the Germans during your last war, and to the growing importance of the German element in the fabric of American civilization. I have lived long and travelled much in Germany; I admire the courage, the genius, the character of the German people; I am not of those who would wish to see Germany always divided and weak. I also have sometimes remodelled in my dreams the map of Europe, and seen a new Germany, united, happy, and prosperous, under such a constitution as suits her genius, but not under one or two military despotisms. I can understand that the transformation of the German Federation is worth many sacrifices. But I cannot understand why the Germans should rush into what I can only call a civil war not to defend a vital principle, not to establish their political independence, but merely in order that the whole of Europe should be divided into a few strong military governments, always in arms and ready to throw themselves on each other. Is this the ideal for which millions of men are preparing now to die?

A. Laugel.

May 11, 1866.

PARIS GOSSIP.

Paris, May 11, 1866.

The magnificent summer weather of ten days ago has been succeeded by a most unwelcome return of winter; everything hilly in France is covered with snow, and from the north of England and Scotland come lamentable accounts of young lambs killed on the wolds by sudden frosts, communication impeded by heavy snow-storms, and all hope of pears, apples, and plums cut off for this season. In Scotland, especially, the weather is so cold that even the famous Bushman, brought home by the late world-renowned lion-hunter, Richard Gordon Cumming, to his native Inverness, would probably not object so strenuously as usual to the European clothes his master used to take so much pains to teach him to wear. The great hunter was a scion of an old family of wealth and standing, his father being a baronet, and the family seat, near Inverness, one of the finest of that part of the country. On his last return from South Africa, he brought with him a Bushman whom he had caught in one of his trips, a frightfully ugly little creature, to whom he had taken a great fancy, and whom he tried hard to draw out of his natural state of more than monkey-like obtuseness. The Bushman, on his side, adored his master to the fullest extent of his very limited faculties; followed him about with the fidelity of a dog, and did everything he bade him do, even to wearing the smart costume which Mr. Cumming had had made for him, though always manifesting his dislike for these troublesome appendages by uttering a series of plaintive, semi-articulate howls whenever he put them on. Though docile to his master, it was known that the little yellow savage, with his small eyes and lank hair, had sharp teeth and could bite like a mastiff; and he was, therefore, an object of no little terror to all the household, including Lady Cumming herself, though the poor Bushman showed almost as much fondness for her as for her son. On one occasion the latter, having left home for the day, after superintending, as usual, the toilette of his *protégé*, the little Bushman, comprehending, apparently, that he would be his own master for several hours, went up to his room, took off every bit of the obnoxious apparel, hung a small mat upon his back, and, thus lightly and airily attired, made his appearance in the drawing-room, where he at once sat down at Lady Cumming's feet, a position from which no amount of persuasion could dislodge him. No one dared to use force with the little savage, and all Lady Cumming's visitors had thus the unexpected opportunity of learning the nature and extent of a Bushman's views on the subject of clothing.

This being the great month for the administration of the rite of confirmation, the streets have been filled with young girls in dresses, caps, and veils of book-muslin, and boys with shoulder-knots of white satin ribbon, on their way to and from the various churches. At certain hours the interior of these buildings has presented a very pretty appearance, the aisles being completely filled by these children—the girls on one side, the boys on the other—all singing the psalms appropriate to the solemnity. The matter-of-fact light in which the ceremonies of their Church are regarded by Catholic populations is fully evident in their manner of referring, in after life, to the period of their individual ecclesiastical experiences. They constantly say, "About the time when I was to take my first communion," or "Soon after I took my first communion," to designate the epoch at which something or other occurred in their secular life. The children are all duly catechised, shriven, and exhorted, before being admitted to the rite; but comparatively few seem to see anything more important in the matter than the display of their little persons in the eyes of the congregation, decked out in the pretty book-muslin dresses and the white shoulder-knots.

The congregation of the French Protestant church here, presided over by M. Martin-Paschoud, has been "in hot water" for some time past, the reverend gentleman preaching doctrines which, though regarded as satisfactory by the great majority of the members of that body, are considered as heterodox by a small but very energetic minority, at whose head is the ex-prime minister M. Guizot. As there is no regular "profession of faith" in the French Protestant Church, there is no legal standard of orthodoxy; and accordingly the two parties alike appeal to the Minister of Public Worship, one party demanding that M. Martin-Paschoud shall be dismissed from his post, the other protesting against this demand and declaring their wish to retain him. The affair has been contested two or three times before the proper tribunals, the verdict going sometimes one way, sometimes the other; and a very strong memorial in favor of the incumbent, and signed by above six hundred members, having recently been sent in to the minister, that somewhat bitter partisan, M. Guizot, has solicited and obtained an audience of the Emperor for the express purpose of setting forth the views of the dissidents and enlisting the sympathy of his Majesty against the aged incumbent whom they wish to oust from his post, a proceeding which has roused the indignation of the majority to a very high pitch. Things having arrived at this amiable point, M. Martin-Paschoud took, last Sunday, for his text the twenty-fourth chapter of the Acts of the Apostles, from the first to the end of the sixteenth verse. The passage thus brought before the congregation, relating how "a certain orator named Tertullus informed the governor against Paul," and how, though hating the alien functionary, as did the rest of the Jews, the great orator yet stooped to flatter Felix, in order to influence him against Paul as "a pestilent fellow, a mover of sedition and the ringleader of a sect," is so marvellously applicable in all the details of its narrative to the facts of the pending quarrel—for M. Guizot detests the Emperor quite as heartily as the Jews detested the Roman—and the justification of himself made by Paul in the concluding verses resumes so exactly that which M. Martin-Paschoud has made in his own behalf, that the reading of his text created no little excitement throughout the audience. The majority were in raptures and looked as though they would gladly have indulged in a round of applause at each "palpable hit" of the narrative; while the dissidents, furious at an applicability whose existence they would be so unwilling to admit, did their utmost, by trying to look innocent and unconcerned, to avoid any appearance of recognizing the picture of their own tactics reflected with such curious fidelity in the ancient mirror held up to their view. How far this very clever "turning of the tables" upon his adversaries may tend to appease the dissensions of the congregation in question is, of course, another affair.

The threatening aspect of the political world is naturally pre-occupying the public mind to the exclusion of most other topics; and the general reprobation of the crooked policy that has brought us to the verge of a new war has found vent in the coining of a new verb, now in great vogue in all the card-playing and billiard saloons of the capital, in which, when a player is found out in cheating at play, he is at once accused of "Bismarking," and turned out accordingly. But the imminence of a war that threatens to convulse all Europe does not cause the Emperor to slacken in his energetic preparations for the great show of next year. The Commissioner-General goes to the Tuileries every day, and lays a minute account of the works and the measures adopted before his Majesty. The Emperor has just decided to add an exhibition of flowers and fruit to the other "attractions," and will contribute largely towards the expenses of the exhibitors. He has also determined to add the sum of 200,000 francs to the amount to be adjudged in the form of prizes: one prize of 100,000 francs to be given to the workshop or factory in which the solidarity of interests between capital and labor, master and workman, shall be most completely realized, and ten other prizes of 10,000 francs each, all to be awarded without distinction of nationality. In order that those who obtain the various awards, so generously provided, may profit by the distinctions thus conferred upon them during the remainder of the duration of the Exhibition, the distribution of rewards is to take place on the 1st of July, 1867, on which occasion a fête is to be given whose magnificence may be inferred from the fact that a sum of 800,000 francs has been set apart for this item! Rooms will be prepared in the old Palace of Industry for the various foreign commissions until the opening of the new palace in the Champ de Mars, after which those rooms will be closed, and the various commissions will be installed in the new structure, where a "Universal Club" is to be established for the convenience of all, exhibitors and visitors, who may be disposed to join it.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

FIDELITY TO PARTY.

No one can be more averse to the common subserviency of Americans to party leaders and party spirit than we are. It is to us a melancholy spectacle to see intelligent and honorable men wink at corruption merely because it seems to benefit their party, or sustain measures which they know to be disastrous to their country simply because their party has adopted them. It is to be desired that the American people may grow more and more independent of party, looking not to names and standards, but to principles and the fitness of men to carry them out.

But, on the other hand, it must be borne in mind that parties are essential instruments in the conduct of public affairs, and that useful instruments must be treated with consideration. An engineer would be mad who should prefer the safety of his engine to that of his passengers. But no engineer could secure the safety of passengers without paying close attention to the working of his engine, nor without conforming his action to the nature and necessities of his machinery. Party organizations are the machines by means of which great public ends are to be achieved. And while the end should never be sacrificed to the means, yet a man who, in his haste to attain his end, destroys the machinery properly used for that purpose, is most likely to fail of success even in the particular effort to which he devotes himself, and is certain to destroy his power for further usefulness.

Men are generally raised to public positions by the aid of organized parties. They are elected by the votes of men having certain definite opinions, in the expectation that they will carry out those opinions. If, upon attaining power, it should become common for officials to change their minds and to affiliate with the party which opposed their election, it is plain that all political confidence will be destroyed, and that an election will degenerate into a mere lottery. No one could tell for what policy he was voting, since the utmost labor spent on behalf of a candidate advocating one set of principles before election might prove to have been used practically for the support of principles directly adverse. Conversions in office, even to a better cause, are, therefore, an evil of such magnitude as to be intolerable under a democratic form of government. Whatever good may be done by such converts in special cases is more than counterbalanced by the unsettling of public confidence in the good faith and honor of aspirants to office.

But it may be asked whether a man in public life is bound to shut his ears to reason and his eyes to facts. By no means. Nor is a change of views on many points discreditable to a public man. A village politician, when first chosen to Congress, comes into contact with many men and many things whose existence he had never before taken into account. Many supposed facts upon which his political theories were based vanish in the light of superior knowledge. He ought to be open to conviction. He ought to modify old prejudices faster even than if he were in private life. But he ought not to misrepresent his constituents. He ought not to betray his trust. He has no moral right, when power has been conferred upon him in the faith that it would be used in a particular manner, to use it in an opposite direction. The course proper for an honorable man in such a case is clear: he should resign and seek to persuade his constituents to join him in his change of opinion.

Thus it might be a commendable thing for a Roman Catholic archbishop to become a Protestant, but we trust that very few Protestants would thank him for turning out the priests from all the Catholic churches in his diocese and transforming them into Protestant churches, by virtue of his power as sole trustee. So Bishop Colenso's renunciation of the Pentateuch may be creditable to his candor; but it cannot be denied that his renunciation of the bishopric, which he never could have had if his views had been known before his consecration, would have been more creditable to his sense of honor. We should be glad to see the member from "old Berks" converted to the doctrine of universal suffrage, but should be sorry to have him mar his conversion by retaining his seat after it without the consent of his district.

This is a doctrine essentially different from the well known, but very doubtful, theory of the binding force of instructions. It is one thing to hold, as do the advocates of the latter doctrine, that the legislator must follow all the caprices and changes of his constituents, and quite another to hold him bound to adhere to the policy by pledging himself to which he secured his election. The difference is that which divides democracy, in its broadest sense, from republicanism; but even republicanism cannot exist without a general adherence to the principle we have here advocated.

In 1846 the influence of Sir Robert Peel and the arguments of Mr. Cobden induced a large number of members of the British Parliament, who had been elected as protectionists, to support the repeal of protective duties on corn. Wherever their constituents manifested dissatisfaction, these members resigned and submitted themselves to a fresh vote. This was manly and honorable. So, within a few weeks past, M. de Bussierre, of Strasburg (department of Bas-Rhin), having been elected with an understanding that he would unite in requesting an extension of liberty from the Government, and deeming it impolitic to do so, resigned his seat, and was re-elected. Whatever may be suspected or said of the means used to secure this result, it is at least certain that the resignation of M. de Bussierre was a creditable action. Politicians in America should be taught to follow such examples.

The common excuse for betraying the confidence of electors is, that the particular measure or the particular policy for opposing which complaint is made was not broached at the election, and that the representative is therefore free to decide upon it at his own discretion. Where the question is absolutely new, this may generally be claimed with justice. Thus, for example, a member of Congress elected in 1856 could not have been pledged to any precise course with regard to the admission of Kansas under the Lecompton constitution, which was framed in 1857. But members *were* generally pledged to some general policy in reference to Kansas, which either justified or condemned that constitution. So members elected in 1860 were not pledged to any course in regard to war, which was not then anticipated by the North. This, however, would have been a poor excuse for any Republican who should have voted against the necessary appropriation bills.

The implied pledge under which, as it seems to us, every legislator is elected, is that he will carry out the general aims of his party in respect to matters upon which its policy is not fully developed, and that he will co-operate with that party in shaping a policy in respect to new questions, not dictating to it, but advising with it.

Applying these principles to the present state of affairs, we think it perfectly clear, *first*, that the great and victorious Republican-Union party of 1864 did not then adopt any fixed scheme of reconstruction for the sufficient reason that it had not then the power to reconstruct; and *second*, that the party fully contemplated the work of reconstruction as one that would eventually fall to its lot to accomplish, and one upon the mode of which it would agree when the proper time came. No one would have been nominated by that party who had expressed a determination to carry on this work upon a plan of his own, regardless of the wishes or advice of the party. Mr. Lincoln was the very embodiment of the idea that no plan should be fixed upon until the time came for its execution; and it was one of his favorite sayings, that the party which had been able to agree upon the means of carrying on the war would be able to agree upon the means of terminating it.

With this understanding all who now hold power through the votes of the Union party were elected. It is, therefore, a breach of faith for any of them to attempt to force through schemes to which the bulk of that party are opposed. Conceding that the party entertains wrong views upon the subject, yet the evil of an erroneous policy is not so great as the evil of a line of conduct which breaks down all confidence between men in political life, which makes representation a mockery and the ballot a snare.

We cannot, therefore, join in commending those high officials who make a virtue of having sunk party ties in assuming posts of public duty. They might as well boast of having sacrificed their honor, abandoned truth, and destroyed conscience in the service of their country. The best service is too dear at such a price. Undoubtedly there are

occasions in which a statesman may render an important service to his country by violating his conscience. But the service is temporary, and the precedent one of far-reaching injury. Statesmen are selected by a free people to serve them by honorable means. And those who, in their impatience, are not content to serve the people in the way that the people have chosen, had far better seek a land of despotism where some modern Cæsar imposes benefits upon his subjects against their will.

SPENDTHRIFTS AND PRICES.

We ascribed, in a recent number of The Nation, the general and rapid rise in prices which has taken place during the last twenty years to the extraordinary additions made by California, Australia, and other gold-bearing regions to the quantity of the precious metals in circulation. That this has been the main cause of the greatly increased cost of living which is now observable in every civilized country there can be no sort of question. But there has been another agency at work of which political economists have taken no notice, but which we think may be safely said to have borne a large part in raising the prices we will not say of all commodities—nothing but an increase in the volume of the circulating medium can do this—but of a number of commodities on which the inhabitants of towns at least are largely dependent for their comfort. We mean the reckless and lavish habits of the immense body of persons whom the industrial and commercial activity of the last thirty years has made, if not suddenly, rapidly rich. This class is perhaps larger in the United States than in any other country, but it is also very large in England and in France, and is becoming very large in Germany.

To explain in what way its existence affects prices, we must remember that down to the beginning of this century the old aristocracy—that is, persons with fixed or declining incomes which they had inherited from their fathers—were almost the only rich men in every community. But what with entails and provisions for daughters and younger sons, and charges of all kinds, inseparable from what is called "position," the aristocracy in all countries has long been a needy class. The plate and diamonds and other fine things owned by the proudest houses in Europe have, in nine cases out of ten, been handed down by some extravagant progenitor of the seventeenth or eighteenth century. Except in the few cases where estates have risen greatly in value, owing to the discovery of mines on them or the growth of cities in their neighborhood, there have really, for a century or more, been very few aristocrats in the world in a position to indulge in lavish expenditure. They have generally been obliged to regulate their expenses very strictly, to confine each item very rigidly within certain limits—to live in fact by rule, and often to deny themselves everything not absolutely essential to the maintenance of their "social position." Any aristocracy which refused to do so, such as the Irish and Prussian, has disappeared, or been reduced to poverty and insignificance. Out of this necessity there grew up, of course, habits of carefulness, of prudence, and a strong dislike of display. We are satisfied that the quietness which aristocracies now affect in dress, equipages, and furniture, though largely due to the growth of good taste, may be partly ascribed to the increasing strain on incomes. It must not be forgotten, too, that men accustomed to the possession of wealth from their youth up, are generally much more measured in their enjoyment of it, and spend it much more skilfully, than those who fall into it after their character and habits have been formed. If, therefore, the old feudal aristocracies had continued to be the only rich class, although prices would undoubtedly have risen as the quantity of gold increased, the disturbance in them would have been much less violent than it has been and is.

The feudal aristocracy has not remained the only rich class. It is, in fact, now comparatively poor. There has grown up beside it a commercial class whose aggregate wealth is enormous, and in which fortunes of which dukes only dream are becoming quite common, and which, not being burdened with the obligation, real or supposed, of handing a family "down the ages" in splendor, is now enjoying its money with all its might. There is to be found in it a very large amount of taste and culture, and, consequently, it has given a wonderful stimulus to art and literature. There is to be found in it, too, a very large amount of Christian zeal and of Christian charity, and it is, consequently, founding benevolent institutions and setting on foot enterprises for the instruction or elevation of the human race on a scale and with a munificence before unheard of. The public spirit of great merchants is, of course, nothing new, and is not peculiar to our time; but in our time there are one thousand great merchants for the one that any preceding age could boast.

But there is also in this class, in every country, a large body of persons to whom money is simply or mainly a means of personal enjoyment, and having had no experience in spending it, and having inherited no principles or rules of spending it, and being bound by no traditions about it, they rush into the markets of the world in the wildest indifference as to the value of things. What they want they buy, cost what it may, and they take a certain pride in paying lavishly for it. Nothing can be learnt from their dealings as to the value of things, because they take no pains whatever, either by chaffering or holding off, to bring sellers down to the real price. To servants they give any wages they choose to ask, and pay for everything that ministers directly to personal enjoyment—carriages, horses, clothes, houses, furniture, jewelry, food—the highest price that dealers venture to put on them. The waste wrought by this class is frightful, in sinking large sums in things essentially worthless and generally ugly; and the influence of their example on servants, on the young, and on the poor is, of course, very pernicious.

It is not with their moral influence, however, that we concern ourselves here, but their economical influence; and this, we think, is very marked. They of course all live in great cities, and the markets of great cities, owing to the railroads, now fix the prices almost over the entire country. One hundred miles from New York, or Paris, or London one can hardly get anything for less than it will bring in the city, and what it will bring in the city is what the tribe of people engaged in the enjoyment of newly-acquired fortunes are willing to pay for it. The wages of servants, for instance, is really now determined by this to a degree of which most people are not aware. There are very few great cities where servants are receiving the political economist's market price. What they get is not what their labor is worth in the existing state of the demand and supply, but what John, or Thomas, or Bridget had the impudence to ask Mr. Corner, of the Stock Exchange, or Mr. Putemthrough, of the Great Gammon and Spinach Company, and which he at once gave, partly through indifference about money and partly through pride in spending it lavishly. The same thing may be said of horses and of plate and jewelry, of houses, of hotel and restaurant prices, and even of land in desirable situations. In fact, we are witnessing, on a larger scale and clothed with somewhat greater refinement, the class of phenomena so common at "the diggings," where miners who happen to be "flush" pay a small fortune for a drink or a game of billiards.

The disturbance which this lavishness is causing in the social arrangements of the great cities is such that in nearly all of them the middle classes are being driven out or forced into a plainer style of living. And we do not see much prospect of any change for the better until the resources of all the new countries are much more nearly exhausted than they are now, a period still very remote, as it may be said that it is only since the invention of steam locomotion that those of this continent and of Australia have begun to be worked. Africa and South America, both regions of incalculable wealth, are still untouched. What the effect on modern society of the application of Northern capital and energy to them will be, it is impossible to conjecture. But we may safely look, for a century to come, for a constant upheaval to the surface of the lower strata of society, and for the possession of large fortunes by persons untrained in the use of them. The spread of education and of taste will doubtless gradually do much to correct the evils which at present flow from this state of things, and it may be that we are just now at the lowest point. But there can be no question that the manners of a portion of the "new men" of our time do constitute an economical agency of some importance.

PROTECTION TO NATURALIZED CITIZENS.

A QUESTION of international policy is now pending between the United States on the one part and most of the European powers on the other, which has not received from our Government the attention that it merits. It is the long vexed question of the status of naturalized citizens of the United States, or of the amount and kind of protection that they ought to enjoy in case they return temporarily to the place of their birth. It has even been made doubtful, by many occurrences, whether these citizens were recognized as entitled to any effectual protection whatever, when embarrassed or arrested by the Government to which they formerly owed allegiance. It is a cherished maxim of the English law that "once a subject, always a subject," and the codes of the Continent, if less emphatically announcing this doctrine, no less strenuously maintain it in practice; and it is the entire absence of any similar one in America that occasions the difficulty alluded to.

The circumstances are these: In Prussia, for instance, there is a law which holds every able-bodied youth, from the son of the king down to the son of the humblest peasant that hoes his cabbages on the banks of the Spree, from seventeen upwards, subject to be drawn in the military lottery for service in the army. After a term of actual service in the ranks or elsewhere, these conscripts are transferred to the rolls of the Landwehr, or reserve militia, but are still liable to be called upon in an emergency to take the field, and, in fact, in the present war excitement have been put for a time under drill. It is easy to see that this includes the great body of the young men of the country—the class that is most anxious to emigrate, and whose presence in the United States is most desirable. Every emigrant under the age of seventeen, though not yet fully a citizen of Prussia, is held to be such when he attains the proper age, in whatever foreign land he may have taken up his residence; and for a soldier who still has service to perform in the army or in the Landwehr to emigrate to America is, of course, nothing less than desertion. What do we see, then? When the emigrant, who has been years away from his parents and friends, after accumulating wealth in the New World, returns to spend a few months among them, he is liable to be arrested and held to service for the remainder of the term which he left incomplete. More than that, there often awaits him a judgment for the accumulated commutation of years, sometimes even to the amount of one hundred dollars, and it is only by discharging this debt that the citizen is free to return to America. That this evil is one of serious proportions is shown by the fact that between the years 1857 and 1861 over two hundred naturalized citizens of the United States were in the Prussian army against their will. There are at present not less than half a dozen who are known to be in the same condition. Others have been released through the efforts of our indefatigable minister, Mr. Wright, but only by the courtesy of the Prussian Government, which acknowledges no obligation to grant the release prayed for.

What has rendered this forced detention of American citizens in some instances more discreditable to our Government, is the fact that some of the victims had performed faithful service in the Union army throughout the war. After three or four years of arduous campaigning, in which they had almost altogether lost sight of their European relatives, through the irregularities of mails, they had returned to Prussia with their savings so honorably earned, for the purpose of taking back with them their parents, and, on arrival, were arrested as deserters. One poor fellow, who had won a cross in the Army of the Cumberland, in his simplicity supposed that in the Old World it would entitle him to high distinction, wore it in the streets of Berlin and among the wondering friends of his youth at his native place, was arrested as a deserter, and only succeeded in getting off after an outlay of over $150. We have heard of an intelligent and wealthy German from Chicago, who went out to the same country in the hope of being able to visit his parents, who reside a few miles from the capital, undisturbed. He was obliged to drive to their residence at eight o'clock in the evening and return the next morning at daylight, and did not venture to repeat the act on learning that the officers were informed of his presence and were actively on the lookout. American-Germans feel this humiliation painfully; our minister feels it; native Americans, when informed of the fact, feel it likewise.

This state of affairs has not grown out of, nor is it a necessary indication of, weakness in our Government, but is the result partly of indifference and partly of sheer remoteness. When an Englishman is arrested on the Continent or seriously impeded in his movements, a burly protest arrives at once from London, and the affair is not dropped until that citizen is released; the Atlantic does not intervene, and, besides, there are few cities on the Continent that do not retain a recollection of the presence at some time or other of the red-coats; but no one ever saw an American soldier, and the thunder of our columbiads grows faint before it travels 3,500 miles. It is undeniable, however, that not all has been done that might have been done to secure protection abroad to naturalized American citizens. As far as those are concerned who have left their country while actually in its army, we cannot undertake to intervene, since they are deserters and must abide their chances; but in relation to all others there should be a treaty which will afford them immunity against arrest. The details of such a treaty are now under advisement between Mr. Wright and Count Bismark, and there is a strong probability that it will be perfected and established. Several months ago Mr. Wright wrote to Mr. Seward for authority to arrange such a treaty, and received a reply to the effect that the rights of American citizens ought to be already sufficiently secured by international law, and that a treaty would be superfluous. Upon a full presentation of the facts, however, Mr. Wright received all necessary authority, and has already made good progress in hisnegotiations. Count Bismark first proposed that all who left Prussia before the age of seventeen, and all above that age who had been in the United States ten years, should be exempt from molestation on returning here. This was about three months ago, but it was not accepted by Mr. Wright. Within a few weeks the premier has made a second offer proposing to exempt all who have been seven years in America. With that the affair rests for the present.

It cannot be doubted that such a treaty, or any treaty that would make the American passport as potent for a naturalized as for a native citizen, which it now is not, would greatly stimulate emigration to this country. It is the sanguine letters from America and the wonderful stories they contain that keep the farmers of Germany in a ferment and crowd the decks of the emigrant ships. But above all does the presence of returned friends, who become the centres of wondering groups, promote this result, and vastly more of them would return if they were assured that they could do so with perfect safety. The influence of their simple eloquence is far more effectual than that of all commissioners of emigration and printed circulars combined. Before the evidence of a returned brother or son who can afford to wear a gold watch and drink several pints of beer every day in the week, instead of only half-a-pint on Sunday afternoon, all incredulity vanishes at once. Then, again, many young persons are deterred from leaving for America by the knowledge that if, at some future day, they shall return to take their parents with them, it will be at the hazard of much inconvenience and, possibly, of months of unwilling service in the army. In short, every consideration, as well of interest as of justice and national honor, urges our Government to the speedy arrangement of a proper treaty, not only with Prussia, but also with all those nations that supply us with emigrants and still claim their allegiance.

"OLD LAMPS FOR NEW."

OH soul! wert thou a poor maid-servant, weak
And foolish, and unknowing how the walls
Of shining stones, and silver, and fine gold,
Which made our dwelling glorious, our life
Assured, were built, that thou must spring at call
Of our most deadly foe, lured by the sound
And glitter of his hollow brass, and give
Into his treacherous hands our all!
And now,
For thee and me remaineth nothing more
But cold and hunger and the desert!
Soul,
Rise up and follow him, and tarry not,
Nor dare to call thy life thine own, until
Thou hast waylaid and slain him sitting at his feast,
And laid our talisman once more upon my breast!

THE APOSTLE BLOT.

LET us rejoice. A new dispensation is vouchsafed unto us. An apostle has come over unto our Macedonia to help us, and his name is Blot. He preaches the long-neglected Gospel of the Body, and the people receive him gladly. He counts among his disciples multitudes of honorable women, and of men not a few. He is not persecuted from city to city—contrariwise, he is entreated to visit them and impart unto them his doctrine. The only fires that are kindled for him are those which he teaches how to be the most friendly servants to man. Instead of having stones showered upon his head, his pockets are filled with rocks. And yet his beneficent mission is a reproach unto us, for it argues that we are wanting in one of the chief elements of civilization. He comes to deliver us from the bondage of barbarism and to teach us a more excellent way. He comes to prove to us that when God has sent us good meat in such abundance there is no need of getting our cooks from the devil. We rejoice to know that his ministrations were waited upon by the very flower of upper-tendom and Fifth Avenuity. It is a sign of grace for which we thank God and take courage. It is an augury of a much-needed and long-waited-for reform which we trust may soon be accomplished, and good cooking be the rule of our lives instead of the exception. This philanthropist is now fulfilling his errand of mercy in Boston, the solid women (we speak only of their financial, and not of their personal, weight) of which city throng in crowds to learn of him. We hope that he will continue to extend his beneficent labors, and establish a culinary church universal which shall be known of all men for its good work.

We may seem to speak lightly, but we are terribly in earnest. This matter of cookery reaches farther than the body to which it seems at first to belong. It is closely connected with the temper of the mind as well as the health of the body. The kitchen is the laboratory in which the materials are chemically prepared out of which we are renewing ourselves daily in the texture of our bodies, and whereby, if physiologists do not lie, we make ourselves over again afresh every seven years. Now there can be no two opinions on the point that it is of vital importance that these chemical experiments should be well performed. For such an experiment every act of cookery is, and every failure is more or less vitally damaging to us. There can be no question of the close connection between the mind and the body. The body may be "a homely nurse," since Wordsworth says so, but the temper, disposition, and happiness of the mind committed to its charge greatly depend on its conditions. Most of the ill-temper, peevishness, and bad domestic manners which make up so large a part of household misery are but the fumes arising from an ill-regulated kitchen. So are the greatest part of the diseases that shorten life and make it bitter while it lasts. Health and disease, cheerfulness and melancholy, longevity and caducity are all issues of life or death which proceed from the stewpan and the spit. Now it is not reasonable to expect that these delicate experiments should be fitly conducted by wild Irish girls, whose bare feet are hardly extracted from their native bogs, however ready they may be to undertake them. These experiments, to be rightly successful, require the greatest accuracy of sight, taste, smell, and judgment. It is as absurd to expect even that high degree of skill which is called "plain cooking" from such an untrained peasant as the successful manipulation of retorts, crucibles, and blow-pipes by an English chaw-bacon.

Now we hold that a science so nearly touching the interests of the soul as well as of the body, is one eminently worthy of the study of our American matrons and maidens. And it is an encouraging symptom that so many of them have not been disobedient to the call of the excellent Blot. If the Homeric princesses were not above the homeliest domestic cares—if Penelope defended herself with her loom against her intrusive suitors, and the Princess Nausicaa did not disdain to take part in the family washing-day, surely our queens and princesses—the sovereigns of the sovereign people—need regard it as no derogation from their royal dignity to interest themselves in an art which is but the expression and embodiment of one of the most exalted and elegant of sciences—of chemistry applied to the uses of life. We do not demand or desire that they shall all perform in their own most proper persons the chemical experiments of which their kitchens are the laboratories. But it is well becoming the loftiest ladies in the land to understand the principles and the processes of this most subtle alchemy, were it but for the protection that such knowledge affords against the tyranny of the ruler of the roast. And it is but a very small proportion of American women who are entirely exempted from the necessity of the personal superintendence, if they are from that of the entire responsibility, of preparing meat in due season for their families. And a great responsibility it is, for the connection between good living and living well is of the closest nature. It may not be true in all cases, as a French wit affirms, that happiness consists in having a good stomach and a bad heart, but the two organs are in close proximity to each other, and act reciprocally the one on the other. And if a bad digestion does not always make the heart bad, it very often produces a very excellent imitation of it. The late eccentric Lord Dudley showed a nice appreciation of the affinity between religion and alimentation, when he exclaimed, on hearing of the death of an eminent bishop: "He was a good man, an excellent man! He had the best *melted butter* in all London!"

When the virtues of our hearts are thus indissolubly connected with the dishes on our tables, it is surely a mistake, to call it by no harder name, that so little regard should be paid in building our finest houses to the size, lightsomeness, airiness, and general convenience of the kitchens. It is a part of the too common vice of our people to regard show rather than substance. It seems as if our builders think any dark, confined, unsavory den good enough for the due performance of the functions of the most important minister of the household. The sanctuary in which the priestess performs the rites the end of which is to edify the living temples in which we dwell while on earth, and on which so much of the health of the indwelling soul depends, should be in every particular of light and air and all appointments of convenience suitable to the dignity of her great office. When the cook is duly cared for and her office reverenced as it deserves to be, and the light of the higher intelligences of the household shed on her labors from time to time to raise them to a higher plane of art, we shall then have meat set before us worthy to have grace said before and after it. For we have heard blessings, and long ones, too, implored over food which could not be granted excepting through a special miracle. The true way of showing gratitude to the Giver of all good gifts is to use his bounties wisely, and not to spoil them by our negligence or folly. No form of words, however pious, can undo the heavy burden of bad cookery or make an ill-dressed dinner fit for Christian eating. Perhaps it were more germane to the matter to ask the Divine blessing in the kitchen before the process of cooking the dinner is begun; for it is too often past praying for when it comes upon the table. We trust that the preaching of the Apostle Blot may be blest to our permanent edification, both of the body and the soul. We have special schools to teach the application of all kinds of sciences to practical uses, why not establish one of culinary chemistry? Or, better yet, why not have primary instruction in this most vital of all arts made a part of our common school education? Should the missionary labors of the admirable Blot be thus followed by a permanent improvement in good living, he will leave a savory memory behind him, and the date of his advent will be an era in the history of our civilization.

HOUSE-MOTHS.

THERE is as much charming suggestion in any article of feminine attire—a knot of ribbon, a little glove, a frill, a belt-clasp, a snowy edge of petticoat—as in a line of Tennyson's; and combine the suggestions in a toilette, there is a poem; but each year has its individuality. There are fossil years in which few poems are worn or written. There are years of warm vitality, war, and struggle, like the passionate days of a century back, such as the present; and warm vitality, war, and struggle are poem-makers and poem-stuff; hence, to-day, our streets and drawing-rooms burn and dazzle with the grace of those similar days that we had sighingly thought locked away in picture-frames for ever. Miss Adams, in "Leghorn hat and gown and coat of Chambèri gauze, flounced with crape, and trimmed with point and wreaths of roses," needs no change of toilette to step from the drawing-room of 1786 into that of 1866; while Mollie, with crinkled hair piled high, with bands and curls, with dangling sequins and cameos, pendant ear-rings, waist cut square on the bosom, train, hoop, festooned skirt, and a jaunty bit of crape, derisively styled a hat, lost somewhere on the top of her head, between curls and coils, is Josephine, is Récamier, a Watteau shepherdess, a Titian, but never that meagre Mollie, whom we recall, with hair smooth on either cheek, and a poky bonnet that covered her back hair, shaded her face, and tied under her chin.

Indeed, a bonnet is no longer a reliable, steady-going, prosaic thing, but an inspiration; pity that an inspiration cannot be "made over!" A boot is a bit of coquetry; there are permitted to it satin heels and crystal buttons. There are fashions and devices for stockings, of which in the old days there was only required spotlessness. Red hair and the back of the head, with other despised things, have their day. Miss Smith wears diamond dust; Miss Brown prefers gold powder. The entire feminine world flutters and palpitates over daring jackets, ribbons, sashes, beads, and bows, for which 1865 would have never had the pluck. There is a raid through all the centuries for what is pretty and startling. The click of their little boot-heels has more than once resounded in provinces strictly masculine. They have robbed us of hat, necktie, coat-tail, vest, shirt, and boots, and we submit

without an attempt at revenge, unless it be an intrepid doctor, here and there, solemnly dissecting a poor blue veil or an innocent green gown, and determining to a grain the arsenic contained therein. Broadway is a picture gallery *en promenade*. In our drawing-rooms are revived the days of the Revolution and the Consulate. Plain girls have developed prettiness; pretty girls are beautiful; beautiful women are superb; all feminity apotheosized in a continually ascending scale of loveliness.

To every good, however, is a reverse side of evil. With this increase of beauty increases also the curious pest classed by Ruskin as the "house-moth." It is found chiefly in cities, being rarely observed in the country, unless in the months of July and August, and is the most pernicious of its family, devouring clothes, houses, upholstery, gold, and diamonds, with the voracity of a dragon-fly and the omniverous appetite of a shark. It is not a little curious about its habitation, and exhibits as much delight in any glittering substance as the bower-bird; but is as reckless as an ostrich of its young. It is also as changeable as the chameleon, and as capricious as a butterfly; but, unlike every other insect and animal, possesses a set of entirely useless organs in reasoning powers and affections, which are so manifestly an annoyance to the creature, and incompatible with its habits, that warm discussions have arisen among naturalists, many respectable authorities holding tenaciously to the belief that, just as the Bushman is a man lapsed into bestiality, so the "house-moth" is a woman lapsed wholly to bonnets and back-hair; and not without some show of reason, as so startling is the likeness of the creature to what we call a house-wife, that we have frequently seen a young man in full pursuit of one, evidently deceived by its extraordinary resemblance to a woman. Nothing can exceed the beauty of its appearance in its prime, unless it be its insignificance in the shrivelled and faded decadence to which, sooner or later, it is sure to arrive; and yet, spite of its insignificance, it is the most terrible and relentless enemy of man, devouring not only his means but, like the spider, its mate also: his tastes, comfort, and very individuality, till he is resigned at last to sink into—Mrs. House-moth's husband. Worst of all, though supposed indigenous to Europe, it is found to flourish equally well in our own hemisphere, and though a remedy has been anxiously hunted, the means of preventing its increase have not yet been discovered.

True, that eccentric logician, Fact, suggests that unused feminine energies and powers work off in ribbon and trimming outbreaks, for want of better outlet, and that women seize on fashion-plates with an intensity produced by mental starvation; but Fact, as all the world knows, is a theorist; and we ask ourselves, apprehensively, if there is no remedy—is there not, at least, a method of discerning our destroyers? We know the death's-head moth by the marks on the thorax, and can distinguish the humming-bird moth from its namesake; but by what subtle analysis or master-stroke of genius can we seize on the essential difference between a house-moth and a woman? Louis le Grand was reduced to Louis, a shivering, bald-headed nonentity, in a stroke of the pencil, when Thackeray robbed him of wig and buskins. Who will inaugurate a calico test in America—they have already a club de la Sainte Mousseline in Paris—and show us Mollie in print gown, and with hair brushed behind her ears, confronting Mollie in diamond dust and white velvet? and subtracting Metternich curls and Lamballe hats from the average Mollies, what will be the average remainder? It is an anxious question for a bachelor deeply conscious of his ignorance and defenceless condition. Who will answer it?

JEFFERSON DAVIS'S BILL-OF-FARE.

THE uproar about Jefferson Davis's health has led to the publication by the New York *Times* of his bill-of-fare at breakfast and dinner for one week, in order to show that his diet has had nothing to do with the decline of his health. The document, which the correspondent of the *Times* calls by the impressive name of a "schedule of meals," certainly proves that whatever the cause of Mr. Davis's weakness may be, it is not want of food; but we at the same time feel bound to add that it does not reveal very extraordinary resources on the part of either the caterer or cook of the fortress, according to the notions of variety current in this part of the world. He had mutton chops three times in the week; he had beef-steak four times; he had veal cutlet three times; pork steak he was only treated to once, but oysters appear to have been supplied to him at discretion. They made their appearance at every meal, either "panned" or stewed, and we notice with pleasure that that excellent anti-scorbutic, onions, was supplied to him regularly every day at his dinner. It may seem rather hard that "a scholar and a gentleman" should be condemned to such uniformity of diet, and some boarders at New York hotels will doubtless think the fate of a man so fed as little better than slow starvation. The gentleman who writes the lugubrious articles on this subject in the *World* and *Daily News* very probably draws on Mr. Cranston's larder twice a day, and therefore must shudder on reading Mr. Davis's "schedule of meals." But it must be remembered that everybody does not live in New York hotels, and the food served to the prisoner at Fortress Monroe is probably twice as varied as that which he would get on nine out of every ten plantations in the South. We shall not compare it, as the *Times* does, to the stuff served out to the unhappy men who were confined at Andersonville. No matter whether Davis was responsible for the horrors of the prison pen or not, we owe it to ourselves to treat him like a human being, not like a wild animal. But we may fairly compare it to what he would get if he were staying on most out of the way plantations, and ask him frankly whether he would get beef-steak and oysters and veal cutlets half as often as he does in prison. The fact is, that most Southern men, who are not expert with their rod and gun, are, like farmers and country gentlemen everywhere, generally less familiar with fresh meat and fish than it is desirable they should be. One high official of the Confederacy gave a dinner to a distinguished foreign traveller, some years ago, on his plantation, and the bill of fare contained ten courses, all pork, but, of course, dressed in different styles, the reason being that there was no butcher or market within thirty miles. Davis having long resided in Washington must have become used to more generous fare, but then what he gets in Fortress Monroe is so very much better than what the mass of his countrymen get that we think he cannot in common decency complain.

Correspondence.

TOWN MEETINGS FOR GREAT CITIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

AN instructive article in THE NATION of May 15 enquires why it is that our American cities are the strongholds of conservatism, while in Europe it is from the cities that all progress proceeds. To this two answers are given: first, that unmixed universal suffrage makes our cities formidable; second, that trade has played a selfish part here as everywhere. These reasons are just and, perhaps, sufficient; we may add the consideration that we are in this country free from the two influences which chiefly cause the intense conservatism of the rural districts abroad—the great estates, which rule despotically over the farming population of England, and the ignorance and stolidity which prevail in this class in all parts of Europe. There is still another view which seems to deserve consideration.

Mr. Mill says: "The spirit of a commercial people will be, we are persuaded, essentially mean and slavish, wherever public spirit is not cultivated by an extensive participation of the people in the business of government in detail." In these words, as it seems to me, the solution to this problem may be found.

It is a curious fact that while, in history, cities have been the main source and the most conspicuous theatre of popular liberty, and while municipal government, as known in history, is identical in its nature with the pure democracy of our New England town governments, the term "city," venerable from these associations, is applied by us to communities which have stripped themselves of practical political rights to almost the furthest extent possible—retaining only the right of voting for officers, and the somewhat burdensome privilege of serving on juries.

The reason that the cities have thus disfranchised themselves politically is not far to seek. It is nothing more nor less than indifference to the public welfare. As a town becomes populous and rich, and its interests become wider and more complicated, the weight of private business, too, presses more and more heavily upon its citizens, and they find that they must choose between making a little less money than they otherwise might and withdrawing their attention from the affairs of the community. So they procure a city charter, the object of which is that they may have all their time to themselves, for their own private concerns, leaving the affairs that concern all alike to the uncontrolled management of hired officials. We lament the neglect of "primary meetings," and indeed of voting at all, by the wealthy and educated among the citizens. What wonder, when they have given up the greater right, that they should neglect the lesser? that when they will not attend to public affairs in person, they should come to care very little that those to whose control they leave them are corrupt and incompetent? It will only make the difference of a mill or so on the dollar in their taxes, and they will more than make that up in the time that they thus spare from the public interests and devote to their own. It was not thus the citizens of Athens and Rome, Florence, Ghent, and London argued;

had they so done, the history of those cities would have read very differently.

It is a proud day in the annals of a New England country town when, after much waiting and longing, it counts at last the magic number of ten thousand, and obtains a city charter. It reads well in the newspaper. It puts the town up into the aristocracy of towns. There is something respectable in the name "city." "Mayor" is a more dignified title than "Selectman." So the city government is inaugurated with many speeches and much ringing of bells and much firing of salutes. The people cease to govern themselves, and only choose, once a year, those who are to govern them. Instead of perhaps twenty hours in the twelvemonth, each citizen has now to bestow only ten minutes or so on the public business. Whereas he went two or three times in the year and listened to long debates on schools, roads, and bridges, and made his decision and gave his vote on each question as it came up; now he has nothing to do but put a slip of paper in a box containing a list of names that somebody has been so good as to prepare for him, and he has done his duty as a citizen, and there is all.

No, not quite all. Soon his tax bill comes round, and he finds that he has a good round sum to pay for the privilege of living in a city and shifting his duties and responsibilities upon somebody else. He sees incompetence, waste, fraud, extravagance; costly public buildings going up, when the community is already over-burdened with taxes; costly public entertainments, municipal junketings, fat jobs. The work is paid high and not done well. In the midst of all this, the citizens are powerless. They have parted with the power of controlling their own affairs, and if they can contrive to fix the responsibility of the incompetence, waste, fraud, and extravagance upon any individual member or members of the city government—which is generally impossible—the only remedy is the tedious and insufficient one of turning him out of office, if they can, when the mischief is already done. No doubt this picture is over-drawn, or rather drawn from an example which is single in its enormity. But in all our cities the tendency is in this direction, while in the New England town governments the rule is that the work is well and cheaply done.

We may be told that all this is true, but yet that these abuses are a necessity—that the affairs of a large city cannot be transacted in the same way as those of a small town. No doubt this is so to some extent; but at any rate, the adoption of a city charter can be put off as long as possible. If Boston is too large to be governed by town meetings, Springfield and New Bedford are no larger than Florence and Paris were in their days of municipal splendor. Moreover, we must recognize the fact that the city organizations present the most perplexing and threatening aspect of all our Northern institutions. It concerns the nation—not merely this half million of men—that the first city of the continent should have a respectable and decent government; and what New York is, that, in their degree, all cities threaten to become. For all are alike characterized by almost complete abnegation of practical democracy, and by the fact that what is left of political power is to a great extent in the hands of foreign-born citizens, who have not the traditions and do not understand the usages of American democracy. The American institution of the "city" may be boldly declared a complete and (tacitly) acknowledged failure.

Already a very decided step has been taken towards the entire overthrow of democracy in these communities, in the Metropolitan Police, established in New York and other places. It is certain that there is nothing that more concerns the future success of our democratic institutions than the discovery of some means of reconciling in large cities municipal liberty with the welfare of the community. If democracy and good government cannot be reconciled, democracy must certainly go by the board, as is the case in these instances. But we should not give up the point too hastily. It is not democracy that is really in question; for democracy hardly exists in these communities. Political power resides not in the people, but in the mob; and this governs not in person, but by agents.

The practical question is, Why need the inhabitants of the cities be excluded from all actual share in government? Why should not the people of New York decide themselves upon all questions of magnitude and universal interest, instead of leaving their decision to the Board of Aldermen? Why should they not be allowed to say whether they will have a new city hall, an underground railroad, or one in the air—why leave these questions to the tender mercies of the lobby? It is as easy to drop a ballot with "yes" or "no" upon it as with the name of Hecker or Hoffman.

It will be objected that the right of voting upon these subjects would be a doubtful good if unaccompanied by free and exhaustive public discussion; and that, of course, town meetings in the New England style would be impossible in cities even much smaller than New York. This is very true. One method, however, occurs to me by which it might be possible to obtain this discussion in a different way. The Romans had an institution, the *concio*, invented to meet this precise want, the principle of which might perhaps be adopted by us. The *concio* was not a private, irresponsible meeting, like a caucus; but was held under the auspices and presidency of some magistrate, who controlled its proceedings, and by whose permission alone any citizen could address it. It was characteristic of the Romans thus to lodge excessive power in the hands of their magistrates; but this is not an essential or desirable feature of the institution. The peculiarity of the *concio* is that, while it was legal and official, it was strictly *preliminary* in its character. In the Roman *comitia*, as at our city polling booths, there was nothing done but to vote. The practical Roman mind saw that this was insufficient, and devised the *concio* as a necessary adjunct to the *comitia*. Voting was still done in the regular and established assemblies, which not only chose magistrates, but passed laws; while this preparatory meeting was called beforehand for the discussion of important measures.

Something analogous to this could easily be engrafted upon our municipal system, and would give it precisely the element it lacks, of constant and direct supervision of municipal affairs by the people. A certain class of subjects, of course, much more limited than in the New England towns, and embracing only matters of first importance, might be reserved for the vote of the citizens to decide. It should include, for instance, the levying of taxes, all extensive public works, and the general policy as regards schools, police, etc. The city authorities should draw up propositions under these various heads, and call a public meeting for their discussion. The meeting being simply for debate, not for business, of course no votes would be taken and no amendment adopted. The authorities could, if they saw fit, amend their plans after the discussion—whether convinced by the arguments advanced, or satisfied that they would not pass in the shape presented. Then let the propositions, in their final form, be printed and put in the hands of every citizen, and the vote be taken by yes and no upon an appointed day.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday, May 28, 1866.

THE money pressure has at last abated. On Saturday money was fairly abundant at 7 per cent., and to-day no increased demand is apparent. Owing to the willingness of the Treasury Department to receive, in payment for gold, deposit and debt certificates and compound interest notes, the last payments were made without difficulty. Some ten millions of these securities were sent into the Sub-Treasury by the banks. The prospect is now fair for a return to ease in the money market, and as the Secretary of the Treasury, by throwing away thirty odd millions of gold at 8 to 10 per cent. below the present price, has deprived himself of his control of the gold market and placed it out of his power to inaugurate any vigorous measures of contraction, the general belief is that we may see this summer renewed speculation in the currency and in stocks, and in all articles which are represented by money. This is just the opposite of what was expected by sound men at the commencement of the session of Congress. But it is idle to resist the logic of facts or to rely upon secretaries of the Treasury.

A better feeling prevails in commercial circles. The advance in gold has led to a nearly corresponding advance in produce, and, though prices here are far too high to admit of shipments at a profit, holders seem to think that the home market will absorb the surplus. Accounts from the South continue to vary, but we see as yet no reason for altering our estimate of the growing crop—2,000,000 bales.

The panic in England has unsettled the exchange market here. Sixty day bills are difficult of sale. Short sight bills on the best houses are current at 110¾ to 111. The shipment of specie last week was $9,350,000, and the present estimate is that six to seven millions will go out this week.

The Sub-Treasury balance after being $115,000,000 is down to $111,000,000, of which probably not over $30,000,000 is gold. On Thursday next the interest on $35,000,000 of debt certificates will cease, and it is likely that by that day the bulk of them will be presented for payment, thus dislodging a corresponding amount of currency now lying idle in the Sub-Treasury.

Stocks are rather disposed to react from the depression of the early part of last week. The cliques which paid a commission for the use of money more than once last week, and which would have been forced to disgorge had the pressure continued a few days longer, are now very anxious to get up a speculative furore in order to dispose of their load. Active movements have been inaugurated in New York Central, which sold on Saturday at 95¾, and to-day at 96½; in Pittsburgh, which sold as high as 96; in Reading, which sold on Saturday at 111½, and to-day at 112; etc., etc. Erie is neglected, and the tendency downward. Large lots of Government bonds arrived here from Europe, for sale, by the steamers last week, but the rise in

gold prevented their being sold at a profit, and some of them were reshipped on Saturday. Considering the sharpness of the money pinch and the steady receipts of bonds from abroad, our market for Governments has been remarkably steady.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 21.	May 24.	May 28.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	108⅞	108¾	109	¾	....
5-20 Bonds, old	101⅝	100⅞	102	1⅛	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	101¾	102	¾	....
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7.30 Notes, second series	102¾	101	102	1	....
New York Central	93¾	93¾	96	2¼	....
Erie Railway	73¼	67⅝	62⅝	....	5
Hudson River	113	111⅝	113⅜	2	....
Reading Railroad	107⅝	109¾	111⅝	2	....
Michigan Southern	79⅛	78¾	78¾	....	....
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Mariposa	12⅜	11	12	1	....
American Gold	130⅛	139⅛	137⅜	....	2
Bankers' Bills on London	109¾	109⅞	109¾	....	⅛
Call Loans	6	7	7	....	....

The financial panic which broke out in London on 10th inst. and culminated on the following day in the practical suspension of the Bank of England, was one of the most curious events of modern times. It would seem that even as late as 9th May well-informed persons apprehended no danger. For some time past the financial horizon on the Continent had been dark and lowering. An imminent prospect of a general European war had led to bank suspensions in Prussia and Italy, a decline of 15 per cent. in the public securities of these kingdoms, a sympathetic fall of 6 to 8 per cent. in the French rentes, a still heavier fall in railroad and other speculative stocks, and a general paralysis of mercantile credit and commercial operations. It should have been expected that these disturbances would react upon England, which is closely allied in a mercantile sense with the leading Continental nations. And it might safely have been inferred that such English banking institutions as had been doing business on too expanded a scale might find it difficult to weather the storm. Nothing of the kind, however, it would seem, was generally suspected even so late as Wednesday, 9th May. On the morning of Thursday the trouble began with unusually heavy demands for money by depositors in joint-stock banks and limited liability companies. Within the past five or six years a very large number of these concerns have been established in London. Many of them have enjoyed such high credit and offered such liberal terms to depositors that vast sums have been lodged with them. These moneys have been re-invested by the companies in mercantile paper, advances on produce, foreign securities, etc.; and the rivalry among the banks being keen, each institution has striven to make larger dividends than its neighbor, and, to do so, has stripped itself bare of cash. Such a system was well enough for fair weather. The first storm would, of course, develop its unsoundness. On Thursday, 10th May, depositors in various joint-stock banks in London demanded their money. The banks did not have it to give. In dismay, they rushed to the Bank of England for assistance, and besought the directors to re-discount their bills. In many instances the bank did so. But in the case of Overend, Gurney & Co., one of the oldest banks in England, it refused, and the house (a limited liability concern) went by the board. This precipitated the panic. On Friday, 11th, every joint-stock bank was suspected, and every depositor wanted his money. The Bank of England, in the course of the day, lent $20,000,000 to its embarrassed friends; but this was insufficient to supply the demand. On Friday night the bank's reserve was down to $15,000,000, and to save it next day Government authorized an over-issue of notes—what we should call in this country a suspension of specie payments. This, according to the latest accounts, seems to have allayed the panic. A similar step in 1847 and 1857 checked the alarm, and the bank experienced no difficulty in restoring itself to a safe position under the law.

This English panic was not unlike our panic of 1857. Then in this country, as now in England, overtrading had been the rule. Our banks and moneyed institutions had been lending money too freely; a sudden increase in the demand for specie for export diminished the bank reserve, alarm arose among depositors, a run upon the banks was the result, suspension became inevitable, and every one whose position depended upon the negotiability of mercantile paper or the sale of securities became insolvent. This is precisely what has just happened in England—though there events appear to have followed each other with unprecedented rapidity. The ultimate result in such cases depends upon the liquidation which follows panic. In this country it was bad, the assets of the wrecked institutions proving generally unavailable. How it will turn out in England remains to be seen. If the joint-stock banks and limited liability concerns have made many more such investments as the rebel cotton bonds, the liquidation will be unsatisfactory and a long period of distress may ensue.

In this country the British panic has had the effect of causing a specie shipment of nearly twenty millions in two weeks, and of putting up the price of gold ten per cent., in spite of the unskilful opposition of the Treasury Department. It has not directly affected our money market, nor has it exercised any material influence upon the price of our staple exports or our securities. So long as we remain satisfied with a depreciated paper currency, we shall have panics and revulsions of our own, but we shall not be liable to participate in the crises of nations which trade upon a specie basis. Some bonds and stocks have come here from Europe, but the sudden advance in gold has counterbalanced the foreign decline in our securities, and most of them have been reshipped, on the calculation that our heavy shipments of gold will secure for them a better market in London than they can find here at present.

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OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

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With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

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STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1865.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.

CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., GEORGE WILKES, M.D., } Medical Examiners.

CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

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LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.

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CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

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New York, January 1, 1866.

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Spring Clothing!!

FOR

MEN AND BOYS.

Garments made to order.

GENTS' FURNISHING GOODS,

Etc., Etc.,

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One Price Clothing Warehouse,

124 Fulton and 90 Nassau Streets,

Opposite the Sun Building, New York.

We are now selling a large and complete stock of Ready-made Clothing for Gents' and Boys' wear, at from 10 to 40 per cent. below former prices.

Light Biscuit made in fifteen minutes with T. B. BABBITT'S STAR YEAST POWDERS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y.

Just Received

FROM OUR E. J. OVINGTON, NOW IN PARIS,

ELEGANT MANTEL VASES,

FINE BISQUE STATUETTES,

BRONZE AND PARIAN STATUETTES AND GROUPS,

DECORATED DINNER SETS,

DECORATED TEA SETS,

ETC., ETC., ETC.

IMPORTED AT THE PRESENT RATE OF GOLD,

WE ARE ENABLED TO SELL THEM

AT

VERY LOW PRICES.

OVINGTON BROTHERS,

FULTON STREET, NEAR CLINTON.

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PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

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Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

Estey's Cottage Organ,

With the Celebrated VOX HUMANA TREMOLO. An extraordinary instrument, far excelling all others of the class.

G. G. SAXE & CO.,
417 Broome St., N. Y.

The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, THURSDAY EVENING, MAY 31, 1866. NO. 53

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Topics of the Day.

THADDEUS STEVENS has introduced a reconstruction bill which is so remarkable for moderation and good sense and practicalness that it stands in very striking contrast to some of his speeches, and we wish most sincerely that he had thought of it eight months ago, when he was talking a great deal of "sad stuff" about confiscating the whole land of the South and dividing it among the negroes. The bill is in fact precisely the plan of reconstruction which Mr. Johnson ought not to have carried out, for that is not his business, but to have recommended for adoption to Congress at the outset. We do not know whether it is not now too late to have it acted upon, but we do know that it ought not to be too late. No mode of re-organizing the States lately in rebellion will ever be permanently successful, either satisfy the conscience of the country or be found expedient, that does not extinguish for ever legal distinctions grounded on difference of race. This Mr. Stevens's bill would do for the present, if enacted; its only fault, to our mind, is that it is a *bill* and not a constitutional amendment, and therefore would not place equality before the law beyond all question or debate hereafter.

SECRETARY SEWARD has sent in to the House of Representatives, and one would suppose sent it in with some reluctance, a report of the provisions recently made in the various Southern State constitutions and codes in reference to the freedmen. None of all these States allow negroes, or mulattoes, or any persons of color to testify in any cases where their own rights of person or property are not in issue. Aside from this discrimination, the action of several of the States seems to have been not unfair. Georgia, for instance, has passed a civil rights bill which almost exactly repeats the phraseology of the Congressional civil rights bill, and, curiously enough, repeats with literal exactness the phraseology of a certain inaccurate quotation from that bill which the President made in his veto message. We are not, however, disposed to quarrel with Northern inspiration of Southern laws for freedmen. There is need of more of it. Florida deliberately disarms her black inhabitants, and makes it a misdemeanor for a colored person to have in his possession any weapon or powder or shot enough to kill a crow in the corn, without having first got license from a judge of probate. Such misdemeanor is to be punished by whipping and exposure in the pillory. South Carolina does the same thing, and in South Carolina "rebellion" is hereafter to be a felony without benefit of clergy. Teachers of freedmen shall procure a license. A black man convicted and fined shall pay his fine immediately, and if he cannot shall be whipped. Black children are to be brought up in habits of sobriety and industry, or the magistrate may take them from the parent and bind them as apprentices—a provision which, if made generally applicable, would be very annoying to white parents. Bad white boys will now have nothing better to do than inform against bad black boys. Mississippi allows no negro not living in a corporate town to lease or rent lands or tenements. Any white Mississippian may arrest any black one who has deserted his master's service. There are other such provisions in these and other States, and the joy in the North over the passage of the civil rights bill was not causeless, nor, great as it was, exaggerated.

THE bill which continues the Freedmen's Bureau act in force for two years after next April will undoubtedly pass the Senate. That it will not be vetoed is hardly to be expected, although those features of the former bill which provoked most opposition have been considerably softened. Thus, in providing for the education of freedmen, the commissioner is restricted to co-operating so far with the charitable people of the country as to furnish rooms for school-houses and protection to teachers. But the freedmen's courts are to be kept in existence till State legislation conforms itself to the civil rights bill and the disturbed relations of the States to the Union are restored. This section of the bill probably secures it a veto. We could wish its passage placed beyond doubt for the sake of one excellent provision: the President shall reserve from sale public lands not exceeding in all one million of acres in Arkansas, Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, and Louisiana, and these tracts shall be assigned in parcels of forty acres and less to loyal refugees and freedmen. There are certain freedmen to whom the public faith is pledged, if a secretary of war and two generals by official act can pledge it, and furthermore it is hoped that the rents from this source may make the Bureau self-sustaining. Judiciously managed, the power thus lodged in the hands of the commissioners might be made not only to confer a benefit on the recipient of land, but also to have a great and salutary effect on the prospects of the whole laboring class of the South.

GENERAL SCOTT has died full of years and honors. The gradual decline in his physical condition since his retirement, and the gigantic scale on which the public has seen military operations conducted by younger men, have done something to dwarf the proportions of his exploits, and to lessen the sensation caused by his death. He was one of the great famous men of this country, one of the most skilful, daring, fortunate of soldiers, and one who had, perhaps, accomplished more with smaller means than any officer of his day and generation. He was inseparably associated with the very earliest triumphs of the arms of the Union, and his campaigns in Mexico, brilliant before, have derived fresh illustration from the recent French operations in that country.

THE advocates of an eight hour law have certainly undertaken to drive their wedge butt end foremost in fomenting the present formidable strike among the ship-carpenters, joiners, and caulkers, whose grievances are slighter than those of any other mechanics. It will be remembered that their organizations in this city resolved, 1, to regulate the number and wages of apprentices in the ship-yards; 2, to exact equal wages for all rates of workmen; 3, to regulate the dis-

charge of workmen; 4, to consider the least overwork at least a quarter day; 5, to hold the employer to these rules, and, in case of non-compliance, to "suspend" him; 6, to prevent the employment of workmen not members of the association, and to put an end to the custom of using the aid of ordinary carpenters. We shall not stop here to denounce the folly and the injustice of such pretensions and such a spirit. We notice that the infection, worse than the cholera, has spread to Boston, and that the caulkers there, even in yards where there has as yet been no difficulty, have refused to work on vessels towed thither from this city. The ship-owners and merchants have taken counsel together, and, being determined like those of New York *obstare principiis*, have given warning that they will make a test case of the *Archer*. The struggle promises to be interesting, as the caulkers have been able to make good savings, and are receiving material support from all parts of the country, including that of associations not embracing their craft.

THE cholera has again appeared in the lower bay, the steamships *Peruvian* and *Union* bringing it from Liverpool. The passenger-list of each vessel is a full one, and so, unhappily, is that of the victims of the disease. The almost superstitious inhumanity of the residents near quarantine, both on Long Island and on Staten Island, forbids the landing alike of the well and of the sick, and even the interment of the dead. New Jersey is as inhospitable as New York, and so the treatment is confined to the infected vessels themselves or to cholera-hulks, with an inevitable sacrifice of many lives that might have been preserved, and *ought* to have been, however harsh a judgment be contained in the word. It is shamefully discreditable to our sympathies and our foresight that after years of experience of imported pestilences we have still no permanent and adequate provision for them, and always find ourselves as it were unprepared.

THE slow-acting Senate have at last reached and passed the bill to free the railroads of the country from State monopolies. They have added two amendments in which it is hardly likely the House will refuse to concur. The President, for his part, is fairly pledged to endorse the measure.

BY the latest advices the preservation of peace in Europe was still regarded as possible, but barely so. Diplomatists were busy concerting, and others probably disconcerting, projects for a general European congress, before which the questions of Schleswig-Holstein, Venetia, and Federal reform in Germany were to be brought. No formal propositions had as yet been addressed to the courts of Vienna, Berlin, and Florence. The war movements continued uninterrupted. Gen. Benedek, the commander-in-chief of the northern army of Austria, had issued the first order of the day to his army, dated May 12, from "temporary headquarters" at Vienna, and firm but defensive in tone throughout. It was regarded as doubtful whether the middle States would enter into a defensive and offensive alliance with Austria. As yet, military men regarded the preparations as not sufficiently mature for the opening of a campaign on either side, but vague rumors of an approaching collision were current. Already the Prussian Government had demanded of the Austrian satisfaction for a trivial violation of the frontier committed by a patrol. On the other hand, the popular demonstrations in Prussia in favor of peace were daily growing more serious, and numerous riots, caused by the calling out of men for service, were reported. The citizens of Cologne, Bonn, Königsberg, and Berlin were the loudest in denouncing the war. Opposite manifestations were numerous on the part of Austrian communities, and Italy was all ablaze with warlike enthusiasm. The Italian ministry, however, had suffered a parliamentary defeat, in consequence of which the Minister of Finances resigned. The national assembly of the Danubian Principalities has persisted in conferring the throne upon Prince Charles of Hohenzollern, the objections of the Paris conference notwithstanding. The Provisional Government had submitted a project for a liberal constitution. A bloody conflict which took place on the 16th of this month, between some Roumans and Turkish soldiers in Giurgevo, will undoubtedly serve to complicate the situation.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, May 30, 1866.

THE wholesome result of the protracted private conferences held by the Union senators was first exhibited in the vote yesterday by which the disfranchisement clause was unanimously rejected from the constitutional amendment. Its further good effects may be expected in greatly abridging the speeches which honorable senators may feel themselves called upon to make in defining their positions on the whole measure.

The feeling gains strength that the amendment of the Constitution, as finally agreed to in substance by the senatorial conference, will command the support of the loyal people of the country. So much expression of confidence and good feeling has not been manifested for weeks, and the prospect now is that Congress will harmoniously settle every important question before them involving the political rights of the States late in rebellion, and be prepared to go home in six weeks from the present time.

DIARY.

May 28.—In the Senate, the House bill to facilitate railroad communication between the States was discussed at length by Mr. Morrill in opposition.

In the House, the Committee on Pensions was instructed, on motion of Mr. Stevens, to bring in a bill to double the pensions caused by casualties of war with the rebel States. A resolution looking towards limiting the period of labor in the Government printing-office to eight hours per day was lost—yeas, 8; nays not counted. The tax bill was taken up, and the House, by a vote of 66 to 55, reversed its former decision to prohibit the publication of the income tax-lists in the newspapers. Mr. Farnsworth moved an amendment requiring the advice and consent of the Senate before any removals from office are made by the President. Rejected—yeas, 57; nays, 66. The tax bill was then passed—yeas, 110; nays, 11.

May 29.—In the Senate, the vote was taken on Mr. Johnson's motion to strike out the third section of the proposed constitutional amendment, being that disfranchising rebels until 1870. The motion was adopted—yeas, 43; nays, 0. Mr. Howard then offered as a substitute for the section stricken out, a disqualification of all persons who engaged in rebellion from serving as officers of the United States. Also, sundry other amendments. Mr. Sumner offered an amendment embodying the principle of universal suffrage. The various amendments were postponed. The House bill to promote inter-State intercourse by granting equal privileges to all railroads to carry freight and passengers from one State to another, was discussed, amended, and passed—yeas, 22; nays, 19.

In the House, the bill to amend and continue in force for two years the act establishing the Freedmen's Bureau was passed—yeas, 96; nays, 32. The bill reported by the Reconstruction Committee, to restore to the States late in insurrection their full political rights, was debated by Mr. Ashley in its favor and Mr. Latham against it.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE assistant commissioner of South Carolina reports that the inspection tour of Gens. Steedman and Fullerton was a satisfactory one to them; that they found no flaws in the management of Bureau affairs in that State. The planters came forward in a body and prayed that the Bureau might remain. There is much suffering for food amongst the poor, both white and black, in South Carolina. The Bureau is doing what it can to alleviate it. Gen. Sewall, Inspector General of the Bureau, reports that he found the condition of freedmen's affairs in North Carolina quite different from the representations of the President's emissaries. Gen. Whittlesey, too, has made a very complete defence of himself to Gen. Howard. Whether influenced or not by these replications in their rear, Gens. Steedman and Fullerton are said to intend reporting favorably on Gen. Tillson's administration in Georgia.

—Gen. Stoneman's report on the Memphis riots implicates strongly the police, who are principally Irish, and "who consider the negro as their competitor and natural enemy." Many of the victims were discharged soldiers, and bad feeling seems to have been excited by the employment of colored troops (by the provost-marshals) in arresting white civilians, and of the police in arresting colored soldiers for real or assumed breaches of the peace. Twenty-four negroes were killed outright. The city recorder is known to have incited the rioters to "clean out" the colored population. "Very few paroled Confederates were mixed up with the rioters on Tuesday and Wednesday, *the large proportion of the rioters being registered voters.*" The Congressional Committee have not yet finished their investigation, though they have examined more than one hundred witnesses. The "Phœnix Educational Institute," a building that will accommodate 500 scholars, has arisen out of the ashes of the burnt school-houses, and was opened yesterday with marked ceremonies by Gen. Fisk and others.

Notes.

LITERARY.

ONE of Thackeray's kindly suggestions is just now being carried into effect in England. "Before the century was actually in its teens," said he, "we believe that George Cruikshank was amusing the public. Is there no way in which the country could acknowledge the long services and brave career of such a friend and benefactor?" A committee has been formed in London, with Mr. Ruskin at its head, for the purpose of collecting a sum of money to be presented to Mr. Cruikshank as a testimonial not only "of admiration for his genius, but of the universal respect in which his exercise of it and his personal character are held." Mr. Cruikshank is now seventy-three years old, and it is hoped that the sum raised may be sufficient to make comfortable provision for his old age. Many of the most distinguished artists and men of letters not only of England but also of France have joined in the subscription. There must be many also of our own readers who would take pleasure in showing their gratitude to the old man for the entertainment which his drawings have often given them, and for the pleasant memories of childhood with which they are associated. A subscription toward the fund has already been begun in this country, with the names of Longfellow and Lowell at its head, and we learn that the names of those desiring to subscribe may be sent, with the amount of their subscriptions, to Mr. Charles E. Norton, of Cambridge, Mass., who has been asked to take charge of subscriptions in this country.

—It is to be hoped that before Messrs. Leypoldt & Holt republish the translation of Beethoven's letters by Lady Wallace, they will have them revised by some competent person. Mistakes of translation and of apprehension are very frequent. Lady Wallace translated Mendelssohn and Mozart very carelessly, and the fatal facility of error seems to have grown with her. It is regrettable to have such books for ever spoiled for English readers, for they will probably never be retranslated. The letters of Beethoven are interesting in themselves, but when from Mr. Thayer's expected biography we learn the pitiful story of his life, they will be doubly so. They give us, however, an idea of the moroseness and acerbity of Beethoven's character, and of his parsimony and selfishness. This correspondence has none of the charm of Mendelssohn's. It might all have been written from behind a banker's counter. The letters are principally about himself, his trials, his straitened circumstances, and his need for money. There are few allusions to other persons or things, no reflections of love for nature, no signs of reading or reflection. The expressions of passionate attachment to the Countess Guicciardi are almost the only relief.

—The French as well as the English are publishing the romances and *fabliaux* relating to their early history. Several volumes have been printed at the expense of the Government, and many more have been issued by the enterprise of private individuals and publishers. "La Chanson d'Antioche" bears the same relation to the first Crusade that the biography of Eginhart does to Charlemagne, or the work of Joinville to St. Louis. It was written by Richard le Pèlerin, one of the followers of Robert, Count of Flanders. He knew all the persons of whom he speaks, and was personally present at the scenes he describes. On his return he wrote or composed the story o the adventures of the army of the cross. This in the next century was rewritten by Graindor de Douai, and soon became exceedingly popular, so that it was often thrown into the teeth of a troubadour as a mark of incapacity that he did not know a single couplet of the "Geste d'Antioche." It really is the Iliad of the first Crusade by its simplicity, its realism, and its great beauty. In 1847, M. Paulin Pâris published the text; but the language of the old Trouvère is so very archaic that it was still inaccessible to the majority of modern readers. Very recently a cultivated lady, the Marquise de Sainte-Aulaire, has rendered into modern French this record of the heroic age of French history. It is by no means a paraphrase, but adheres to the style of the original with singular fidelity and success.

—A catalogue of catalogues will be a very welcome book to booksellers and librarians as well as to persons who are hunting for the title of some particular book or edition. Mr. Julius Petzholdt, the librarian of the Royal Library at Dresden, and the editor of the well known "Anzeiger für Literatur der Bibliothekwissenschaft," has prepared such a book. It bears the title of "Bibliotheca Bibliographica; Kritisches Verzeichniss der Gesammtgebiet der Bibliographie betreffenden Literatur des In- und Auslandes in systematischer Ordnung." It is published by Engelmann, of Leipzic, and is a goodly octavo of 939 pages. The first part gives lists of the books on bibliography, libraries, and bibliographial system. The second part presents the materials for the history of general literature, of anonymous, pseudonymous, xylographic, suppressed, personal, and iconographic literature, etc. The third part contains the list of works on the national literatures of various countries, and special catalogues of books in all the sciences and arts. Copious notes and remarks occur throughout, and there is added an index of all the names and titles mentioned. It is an invaluable manual for every librarian.

—There are two serial contributions to English magazines now being published which deserve notice and repay perusal, though very different in character. Mr. Walter Bagehot's series of articles in the "Fortnightly Review" on the English constitution contain the best and clearest exposition of the actual workings of the English Government that has ever been written. Without paying much attention to the origin and theoretical uses of the different parts of the Government, he explains intelligibly their present real functions. "Chesterfield, junior: A son's letters to his father" is the title of a number of brilliant articles in *All the Year Round*. They represent the progressive part of society and are a defence of the manners and sentiments of Young England, and Young America, too, against the objections of old fogy papas, and the prejudices of those who were brought up in the old, careful way. They are humorous and sensible, abounding in light irony and pleasant banter.

—Another change has been made in the constitution of the French Institute. In 1855, by an Imperial decree, a sixth section, that of politics, administration, and finance, was added to the *Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques*. It was supposed that the Government was desirous of breaking down the majority of political opponents who governed the body. The new section consisted of ten members, while the others only had six each, and the subjects to be considered by the section were provided for by others. The change was besides distasteful to the academicians on the ground that men of political prominence, but without literary merit, might apply, and use their great influence to make themselves members. The ten members were also constituted by decree and not by election. The Government has at last seen the uselessness of this extra section, and, with the assent of the section itself and of the academy, has suppressed it, on the condition that the members shall be partitioned among the remaining sections. The word finances is also added to the title of the fourth section, formerly economy, politics, and statistics.

—The recent publication of an index by the Jesuit Father P. C. Sommervogel has revived an interest in the long unread volumes of the "Mémoires de Trévoux." In the year 1655 was begun the *Journal des Savants*, a review in our modern sense, and, as Voltaire calls it, "le père de tous les ouvrages de ce genre, dont l'Europe est aujourd'hui remplie." It soon gained great authority, and was even translated into Latin and circulated on the Continent. It still, after two hundred years, is the highest literary tribunal of France, all of its writers being members of the Institute, and presents solid, impartial, and dignified criticisms. As most of the journals which had been brought into existence by the *Journal des Savants* were edited by laymen, the clergy were desirous of having some organ of their own. The Jesuits therefore started, in 1701, at Trévoux, the capital of the little principality of Dombes, created by Louis XIV., and conferred on the Duc de Maine, the journal to which they gave the name *Mémoires de Trévoux*. Edited with ability, it soon became famous, and was a formidable rival to its great prototype. It withstood even the year 1762, and fought bravely against Voltaire and Diderot, but, after moderating its pretensions and changing its name, it was forced to succumb in 1782. Probably no paper has ever had so many intelligent correspondents all over the world as this. Intelligent and educated Jesuits, who have always made their missionary work subserve the cause of learning, were everywhere. Geographical information was received from India and Africa, astronomical observations from China and America, and the literary treasures of all countries were investigated by the patient followers of Loyola. But the journal did not confine itself to investigation. It gave itself up in great measure to controversy with Jansenism, with Protestantism, and with liberal thought everywhere. It was unscrupulous, too; treated its friends leniently and its opponents unfairly, and received plenty of abuse in return. In the ponderous volumes of this old journal can be found many interesting facts in the scientific and literary history of the last century. The patience and pains of le Père Sommervogel have rendered them accessible to students and investigators.

—The young and enthusiastic professor of archæology at the Bibliothèque Impériale, M. Beulé, has been in Rome during the early spring investigating the state of excavations there. In his lecture on that subject, on his return, he expresses his regret that the soil resting on what he supposes is the pavement of the Forum has never yet been removed. The ground is open

and without buildings, so that there will only be the expense of excavation to be met. He estimates the cost of removing the ground from the space of 150 by 60 metres to be about 300,000 francs. It is calculated that there have been 300,000 French visitors to Rome in the last thirty years, and the professor proposes a voluntary tax of two francs on each traveller, which he thinks would be collected from about half the number, to meet the expenses of the proposed excavation. M. Viollet-le-Duc strongly supports this plan in *Le Constitutionnel*.

—A favorite book in India is the collection of stories called in Hindustani "Baitâl Pachîsî," and in Tamil "Vedâla Kadai." The versions in the various Indian languages are all based on a Sanskrit work, the "Vetâlapanchavinsati," or "the five-and-twenty tales of a goblin;" part of which was printed in 1838. An English translation, made from the Tamil, had some years previously appeared in London. All the MS. Sanskrit copies differ as widely as do the modern versions current in India, but are easily traceable to one Buddhistic source. These stories are also to be met with among the Mongols under the name of "Siddhi-kür," the "corpse endowed with supernatural powers." Both the western and the eastern Mongols have their own version of the tales. A free translation into German of the former was made by B. Beymann early in this century. The Kalmük text has now been printed at the imperial printing-office, Vienna, with introduction, faithful translation, critical notes, and a glossary, by Prof. B. Jülg, of Innspruck. This is the first Kalmük text printed in Germany, and is a specimen of very beautiful workmanship. Prof. Jülg is about to publish nine supplementary tales in the Eastern Mongolian dialect. Oriental scholars and all interested in comparative mythology and the migration of tales owe many thanks to Prof. Jülg for his important labors.

SCIENTIFIC.

Measuring Steam or Water-power.—With the existing means and methods of measuring mechanical power, it is well-nigh impossible to ascertain with precision the actual power which any given engine is capable of furnishing, or which is necessary to drive any given set of machinery or tools. Steam and air engines are sold, and power is let, by very rough and uncertain rules and estimates, on whose application buyer and seller, landlord and tenant, can seldom agree. There is no good reason why power should not be sold with as much precision as gas or sugar, if only a metre to measure it or scales to weigh it could be contrived. We find in the proceedings of the American Academy of Arts and Sciences, at Boston, a description of a new dynamometer, intended for this very purpose, which has been invented by Mr. S. P. Ruggles, the curator of the museum of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. This admirable invention accomplishes two objects; first, it measures the exact amount of power which is being consumed, at any instant of time, in driving a machine or set of machines, indicating every change in the force required, as the work done varies from instant to instant; secondly, the apparatus adds up and registers the total amount of power which has been used by any machine or set of machines during a day, a week, a month, or any desired time. The instrument is at once elegant in design, simple, and therefore cheap in its construction, easily verified and proved at any moment when in operation, and of very easy application to any machine, whether the power used be variable or constant in amount. The apparatus admits of a great variety of forms. It may be applied to the end or any other part of a running shaft, and the proportions and dimensions of the several parts admit of the same variety as do common scales, which are of all sizes and qualities, from those which weigh a canal-boat with its cargo to the chemist's balances, which must not have more dust on one pan than on the other.

This valuable instrument meets a pressing want. Hereafter mechanical power can be sold by the thousand or million foot-pounds. A very fruitful source of litigation will be thus destroyed.

Nocturnal Growth of Plants.—M. Duchartre has communicated to the French Academy some interesting observations on the relative growth of plants by day and by night. It has generally been taken for granted that plants grow most rapidly during the daytime, but exact measurements have not often been made, and the results of the few botanists who have given attention to this point are contradictory and unconclusive. M. Duchartre made continuous observations during the month of August upon six plants, belonging to different families, and growing in the same soil under normal conditions, but without any special care. The plants were a grape-vine, a hollyhock, a strawberry-vine, a hop-vine, and two varieties of gladiolus. The elongation of each plant was measured three times a day—at 6 A.M., at noon, and at 6 P.M. At each time of observation the general atmospheric conditions and the state of the thermometer were noted. The result of the observations thus made upon six different plants is that, with very few exceptions, the growth between 6 P.M. and 6 A.M. was much greater than between 6 A.M. and 6 P.M. In many instances the elongation of the shoots during the night was double or triple that during the day. M. Duchartre offers at present no explanation of these phenomena, and does not venture to affirm that what was true of his six plants in the month of August is true of all plants at all seasons and in all stages of vegetation. He calls attention to facts which must be multiplied before any general conclusions can be based upon them, and he urges all persons in condition to prosecute such researches to accumulate observations for the elucidation of the law of diurnal and nocturnal growth.

Gases in Plants.—MM. Faivre and Dupré have sent to the French Academy a memoir on the gaseous mixtures contained in the roots and branches of the grape-vine and mulberry at different seasons of the year. We tabulate their results with the mulberry:

March, 1865, from branches (vegetation not begun),	Oxygen,	21	per cent.
May 15, 1865, from branches (vegetation active),	Oxygen,	13.3	"
	Carbonic acid,	3.3	"
June 16, 1865, from fresh shoots (vegetation very active),	Oxygen,	2.5	"
	Carbonic acid,	15.7	"
July 2, 1865, from shoots two years old,	Oxygen,	10.2	"
	Carbonic acid,	6.3	"
Aug. 17, 1865, from shoots of the year,	Oxygen,	10.7	"
	Carbonic acid,	9.	"
Oct. 15, 1865, from branches of the year,	Oxygen,	13.9	"
	Carbonic acid,	3.2	"
Nov. 17, 1865, from branches of the year,	Oxygen,	13.1	"
	Carbonic acid,	3.8	"
Jan. 31, 1866, from branches (no vegetation),	Oxygen,	20.9	"
	Carbonic acid,	0.01	"
July 7, 1866, from roots,	Oxygen,	1.9	"
	Carbonic acid,	14.6	"
Oct. 15, 1866, from roots,	Oxygen,	7.5	"
	Carbonic acid,	3.7	"
Nov. 24, 1866, from roots (leaves fallen),	Oxygen,	16.6	"
	Carbonic acid,	1.6	"

These and the analogous facts lead to the following conclusions: The presence of gaseous mixtures in the branches and roots of the mulberry and grape-vine is normal and constant. These mixtures consist of oxygen, carbonic acid, and nitrogen. The proportions of oxygen and carbonic acid vary greatly with the state of vegetation; when vegetation is inactive, but little carbonic acid is present, and the gaseous mixture within the plant has the same composition as the air outside of it; when vegetation is active, the proportion of carbonic acid is greatly increased and that of oxygen diminished. In the roots there is, at the same period, more carbonic acid and less oxygen than in the branches.

EDUCATIONAL.

When our fathers were in college, the public table at which all the students were required to take their meals was prolific in trouble. "Bread and Butter Rebellions" succeeded one another with almost as much regularity as the fruits in their season. Poor food, bad cooking, and no choice but Hobson's choice of horses, "Take this or go without," led to constant quarrels between the students and the faculty, in which, according to the judgment of the latter, the complainants were always wrong and the steward was always right. In time "commons" disappeared in almost every college, and for a quarter of a century private boarding-houses and dinner clubs have provided "rations" according to the taste or purse of each student. Thus the only remaining traces of that English institution, the college hall, with its well-served roasts of beef and mutton, have been the occasional public dinners at Commencement and other festive times, with the "tongue" and "pie," *horresco referens*, on which the academic appetites have been regaled. But now a curious change is in progress. "Commons" are coming back not with all the objectionable features of the old régime, but in a sensible form which gives general satisfaction. The authorities of our oldest colleges are providing halls and table furniture, making purchases of provisions and of fuel at wholesale prices, and offering board to students at prices much lower than it can be obtained for in the private clubs. A committee of those students who come to the common table is chosen to superintend its management and suggest improvements. The actual expense of the establishment is divided up in equal proportions among those who share in the advantages. None are required to come to the college table; any one may. Thus many of the benefits of a college dining hall are secured and most of the evils are avoided. Good board at low prices is secured, and a wholesome check is put upon the exorbitance of private boarding-houses. Harvard, we believe, is entitled to the credit of devising this new fashion. The experiment has there been tried so thoroughly that it is no longer an experiment. It is a success. Perhaps two hundred students voluntarily avail themselves of the proffered privilege. Not only do they receive board at a low rate, but the price of board in other places is decidedly lessened. Yale College is following the example of Harvard. A college boarding

house has just been opened on the plan we have indicated and is very popular. Other colleges are likely to pursue a similar course. By and by we expect to see the college "buttery" or "butlery" re-established—a plain refreshment room from which the students may procure their breakfast and tea at reasonable rates. Some place within the college walls from which the occasional invalids may be served, and to which the belated and the busy may resort, would be very popular. Many persons, indeed, if the fashion were once introduced, would like, as a general rule, the European way of breakfasting in one's room and dining at a public table. It is both economical and convenient.

—New Jersey has just established a State Board of Education similar to that which was organized last year in Connecticut, and to that which for a long while has worked admirably in Massachusetts. The governor and five other state officers, together with the trustees and principal of the State Normal School, constitute a board on whom devolves the superintendence of public instruction. Their agent is a secretary, elected by the board for three years. A similar arrangement will probably in time be adopted in most of the Northern States. It is a great improvement on the plan of entrusting to a single officer, unsupported by an advisory board, so grave a responsibility as the control of the public schools.

CITOYENNE JACQUELINE.*

This novel seems to us to deserve cordial praise for the good thing that it is, and, especially if the author is young, cordial encouragement for the other good things that it promises. It shows the marks of a clear and lively intellect, sound and kind feeling, the noble power of admiring and representing noble characters, much reading and, as we think, inherent mental elegance; for most of the superficial blemishes on which we are presently to have mercy tempered with justice, probably come quite as much of the presence of haste as of the absence of taste.

The story, beginning with "the early summer of 1792," and running through a period of about two years, follows pretty closely the history of the times in poor revolutionary France. But it has a private moral of its own, teaching how errors in youth—even the fearful error of a rash and ill-assorted marriage, like that of the pretty little heroine—may be lived down; and this is an excellent moral for all times, at least on this side of the millennium; for till then each new generation will fall into its young mistakes and need to be rescued from its young despairs. The plot is scarcely the strong point.

The best novelists may be divided into two classes. The first of these two is made up of the *stage-managers*. They bring before us characters which, complete in themselves, act themselves out most characteristically with and upon one another. The second is that of the *showmen*, who exhibit to us one by one fine specimens of humanity; though they may have no special aptitude at getting them together into any one cage to kiss, cuff, and kill each other consistently in a "Happy Family." In this latter class rather appears to us to be the place of our author.

Her figures, more or less minutely sketched, are apparently those of representative men and women, and distinct down to most of the smallest of them. La Sarte and her sons are each of them good in each of their ways. Bathilde de Roure is, in the main, sublime. It is hard to conceive of an embodiment of higher human heroism than is brought before us in this artless, serene, benign virgin sacrifice in the full fresh beauty of her youth, health, and holiness. We make her acquaintance, and take our leave of her, in twelve short pages; but it will be our own fault if we do not remember her for life. As we read on the other hand of Petronille de Croï, we are almost ready to go over to the modern apologetic school of historians and to declare that, if there were many aristocratic heads during the Reign of Terror so clad with baleful beauty and filled with unhallowed intelligence as hers, Robespierre and Marat were not without their excuses, and the Revolutionary guillotine was a more beneficent instrument than has commonly been supposed. *Monsieur* and *madame* are whimsical, here and there, to a degree which borders on caricature; but, perhaps, essential French nature is essentially unnatural and reached its climax at that most unnatural era.

The style can boast of that which, in the style of a work of this kind, is the merit of merits—vivacity. "C'è molto vita," as Horatio Greenough kindly said of the not otherwise altogether praiseworthy equestrian statue. In idiom, however, it is as the style of a native of Scotland and an inhabitant of France. Of course we take no exceptions at the introduction of Gallicisms into the speeches of Gallic mouths. This, judiciously managed, may have a very good effect. But, from carelessness, perhaps—perhaps from a desire to avoid the disfigurement of italics—the French words with which the pages are strewn are generally printed like English ones. Thus we read that "there was no concealing that he was a suspect." Further we have more than a little—and a very little would be too much—of what has been mildly entitled "the vile Scotticism of *would* for *should*," and its kindred vileness of *will* for *shall*. It becomes all good critics to set their faces, as so many flints, against this infectious taint of speech, which is fast creeping up over Mason and Dixon's line, and threatens to overspread our whole North. In a Celt or a Southerner it may pass for ignorance. In an English or *New English* man or woman it savors of the more unpardonable sin of affectation. At any rate, persons of sense and breeding, let them have the misfortune to be born where or what they may, *will* and *should* endeavor to avoid provincialisms. We object to the phrase "outward show," because, as well as the alas! too well-authorized one, "young girl," it implies an inconvenient antithesis. *Old* girl is impolite. Inward show is chimerical unless anatomical. "The whole three gentlemen" may perhaps be defended against the above accusation, on the ground that the complimentary idea of the three gentlemen in pieces is not, on the whole, inappropriate to the epoch; but, after all, the expression bears too strong a family likeness to that which Sir Walter Scott in his youth was taught better than to use, "the little two dogs." "Hard lines" is *slang*, and with no wit to justify its *slanginess*. "The prisoners were done with these demonstrations." People can *have* done with things; but can they possibly *be* done with them? "The messages I have been for you!" cries Citizen Pepin. He could have borne messages, done messages, told messages, or, perhaps, even made messages; but we must greatly doubt the correctness of his statement that he went messages. "Batch" is a word which belongs to a baker's shop. It is applicable properly to men only when exposed simultaneously to the very warmest weather or in a Caribbean kitchen. "Comparisons are odious," according to the proverb. Comparisons are comical, is the reflection that chiefly strikes us as we read such as that of Félicité to "a dove pouting." A dove pout! How could the creature do it? Not with its beak, surely! Perhaps like the young lady, perplexing to the infant understanding, in the nursery song, "Who pouts at her milk *with a toast of white bread*." The original sentence, notwithstanding, in its full severity is borne out by the likening twice over of the classic Adonis, Bertrand's teeth to the "kernel" of "a luscious fruit." It calls up a vision of artificial teeth of most inartificial construction—too similar, in short, to the mandibles of a parrot—surrounded by lips of the contour rather of Guinea than of Greece.

We have hardly room to add, as in candor we ought, that the author is unfortunate in the reviewer. To our mind, or order of minds, it is as difficult to lay hold, with a grasp firm and strong enough for discrimination, of anything which puts it *en rapport* with the French Revolution, as it is for our hand to lay hold in like manner of the conductor of a charged electrical machine, and difficult for the same reason: it is too shocking. Those, notwithstanding, who, not sharing our idiosyncrasy, found a feast in "A Tale of Two Cities" and the French episode of "My Lady Ludlow," may look for their dessert to this remarkably spirited new story, and not look in vain.

* "Citoyenne Jacqueline: A Woman's Lot in the Great French Revolution. By Sarah Tytler, author of 'Papers for Thoughtful Girls.'" Alexander Strahan, Publisher, London and New York. 1865.

HOLE'S BIOGRAPHICAL DICTIONARY REVISED.*

In an early number of The Nation we reviewed the original merits and defects of this useful little manual. The American editor has endeavored to enhance the former and to diminish the latter by inserting many hundreds of American names, some no less important than Arnold, Burr, or Choate, and others of less note, but desirable in a work designed for circulation in this country; by adding "a large number of European names of undoubted importance which the English editor had omitted, and which one would naturally expect to find in a work of this sort, as, for example, Abraham-a-Santa-Clara, Banim, Chlopicki, De Wette," etc.; by supplying missing dates, and correcting or verifying others; by "rectifying some grave mistakes and some hardly less grievous inconsistencies" of orthography; by supplying accents in the French, German, and other Continental names; and by incorporating the supplementary names of the second English edition. Another less useful feature of the American reprint is the omission, in the dates, of the month and day attached in the original issue to the year of death.

We are glad to find that these changes have remedied many of the defects pointed out in our review. Thus we no longer look in vain (as we

* "A Brief Biographical Dictionary. Compiled and arranged by the Rev. Charles Hole, B.A., Trinity College, Cambridge; with Additions and Corrections by William A. Wheeler, M.A., etc." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866.

complained) for such American names as "Hancock, Otis, Montgomery, Arnold, Sumpter, Marion, Mercer, Randolph, Benton, Douglas, Perry, John Brown, Foote, Kearney, or Reno;" for "Czarnecki, Kochanowski, Chlopicki, Skrzynecki, and Dembinski;" for "Damjanics, Nagy Sándor, Csányi, and Széchenyi;" "Leopardi, Colletta, Bandiera;" "Schill, Sand, Hebel, Immermann, and Lenau;" "Czerny George and Milosh;" or for "Moses, Joshua, Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezra, and Nehemiah." Foreign names, being now accented, have ceased to look so very awkward as we formerly found "D'Estrees, Fenelon, Stael, Cambaceres, Arpad, Kolcsey, Blucher, Muller," etc. Even the termination of Russian names has been corrected in some of the cases quoted by us, and thereby made more uniform. The dates which we pointed out as erroneous under "Nicholas and Frederic William IV." have been altered.

Let it not be supposed that we claim for ourselves the merit of all these useful additions and alterations. By no means. On the contrary, we have good reasons for believing that the American editor has not seen our review at all (though we know it to have been in the hands of the American publishers as early as last November), and that in most of his additions and corrections he has strictly followed the "New American Cyclopædia;" at least we infer as much by comparing the orthography of the new, and chiefly of the Christian, names, which, deviating from the general plan of his work, he in many cases gives in their foreign form, precisely as given in the "Cyclopædia," and by noticing the large number of omissions, errors, and contradictions mentioned in our review, which he has failed to supply or correct. Thus we still look in vain for the names of Bocskai, Gen. Dampierre, Decazes, Dwernicki, Fieschi (the regicide, the name of the Genoese conspirator ought to be Fiesco), King John Zápolya, Luzzato, Moses-ben-Ezra, Odysseus, Solomon-ben-Meir, Wessely, or Zolkiewski (almost all of which are to be found in the "New American Cyclopædia" only under comprehensive historical or literary heads), while, as we stated, others incomparably less important are given. French surnames attached to non-French royal names, as *Le Bégue, Le Bon, Le Chuman, Le Posthume,* are retained, while the surnames of many French kings "are given in English, as *the Bald, the Fat, the Fair, the Wise*" (see the Michaels, Ladislases, and Charleses). Most of the single errors pointed out by us remain uncorrected, and we still find repetitions as well as discrepancies under such heads as "Cosmo" and "Medici," "De Gerando" and "Gerando," "D'Herbelot" and "Herbelot," "Leonardo da Vinci" and "Vinci," "Judas Maccabæus" and "Maccabæus."

By thus comparing the work as it now is with our observations on the original edition, we believe that we have best shown what the American editor has done and what he has failed to do. As formerly, so now, we have shown but specimens. Some new errors have occurred in the revision itself. Thus we find an incorrect "Messaros, Lazarus" in the appendix, and, besides, a correct "Mészáros, Lazarus" inserted in the body of the work, after the "New American Cyclopædia;" a correct "Vörösmarty, Michael" added to the incorrect "Voeroesmarty, Michael" of the original edition; and the Christian name of the newly-added Zrinyi, the hero, in Hungarian—Miklós—as in the "Cyclopædia," while that of the poet is left as it was, in English—Nicholas. Gen. A. S. Webb, mentioned in the appendix as deceased in 1864, was not killed at the battle of the Wilderness, as at first reported.

But in spite of these and other imperfections, which are not wanting, we must regard this revised little dictionary as a very valuable addition to the list of American reprints.

Only a Woman's Heart. By Ada Clare. (M. Doolady, N. Y.)—It is impossible for the novelist so to mispaint life that something of truth will not shine from the canvas. His readers can sometimes discover all the better through his exaggerations what is the fashion of the day in sentimentalism, or heroes and heroines; what the most "telling" virtue; what the popular aim in life. And this is a knowledge that no one who desires to understand his kind can afford to forego, and the obtaining of which, withal, is the sole justification a sensible person can have in reading "Only a Woman's Heart." It is a story the most singularly absurd, theatrical, often positively coarse, and inspired by a moral sentiment better calculated to "bring down the house" than to hold up an example; and yet containing some "hits" so clever and some sketchings of character so bold and so nearly unique that the reader is perplexed with the strange inconsistency, and is ashamed to be interested where he is so frequently shocked.

The heroine of the story is the daughter of a country "hotel" keeper. She believes in muscularity, as if she were one of Kingsley's own model men. She thrashes her schoolmates, has an enormous appetite, can shoulder a piece of furniture in a way that would make her fortune in New York on the first of May, is a remarkable mathematician, and in bearing is moody and eccentric, like many another girl of fifteen. The first pictures of Laura Milsland are, on the whole, striking. The reader becomes interested and is led on to where she very naturally falls in love with a languid but talented actor who happens to be wasting his summer vacation in her neighborhood, and pays her attention to amuse himself. Here the story becomes marred by conversations that fall infinitely below the descriptions. The entire colloquial part of the book, it may be remarked in passing, is beneath criticism, vibrating as it does between the melodramatic and the painfully unrefined.

Laura loves for once and for all. Not so the handsome Victor Doria; "four he loves with all his heart, and five he casts away," as the apple-seed legend hath it. He leaves the "hotel" for New York and Europe, and achieves a success not more complete on the stage than in the drawing-room, where, as the author remarks, being accustomed to the antagonism of jealous papas, he learns to consider frigidity "the normal state of the paternal parent." Laura's father in the meantime strikes—mineral-water on his estate, makes his fortune, and is prevailed upon by his daughters to carry them to the city. Here in New York the author expands to her native air, and we feel that we are reading truth and nature at last—the nature of Fifth Avenue, Mme. Demorest, the Booth matinées, the new bonnets. Here we are forced to behold the inner life of some of those inexplicable, gorgeously-dressed promenaders, indigenous only to Broadway; to dream with them their dreams colored with Bengal lights, smelling of patchouly, feeling of kid gloves, sounding of stage elocution with a touch of mad cab driver, tasting of *recherché* suppers at the Maison Dorée. Our precious Laura is made the embodiment of such romancing. On her arrival in New York she has an interview with a long-estranged uncle. Her simplicity—modelled, say, after Maggie Mitchell's *Fanchon*—wins him at once, and he leaves her all his money at his death, which shortly after occurs. Possessing ample means, she pursues Demorest with frantic expenditures, for the sole purpose of rendering herself attractive in Victor's eyes. She attends to her physical culture in every possible way, and the "ugly duck" becomes a beautiful swan ere Victor makes his second appearance. Several minute descriptions of her toilettes are introduced in a funny parenthetical sort of way, even in the midst of some exciting scene; the very buttons on her shoes are mentioned—they are pink coral, or turquoise, or whatever matches the jewelry she happens to be wearing. On Victor's return, Laura requests an interview with him, in which she lays her heart fully open to him in a set speech. The analysis of the highly-wrought and melodramatic scene which follows is so far beyond the scene itself in merit that it seems marvellous that the person who wrote the one could perpetrate the other. Victor repels her, and now tragedy sets in in real earnest. All sorts of trials are heaped upon her. In the language of the author, "she was tossed about in whirlwinds, dragged through storms, immersed in desert seas, brought to that extreme of doubt when nothing seemed to have any reality but evil and pain and malignant exultation in pain." As the reader once found Laura like Maggie Mitchell, he will now discover in her a resemblance to Lucille Western, and also to the young lady who goes to all the Booth matinées, and who is always passing bouquets with little notes dangling to them over the footlights to the fascinating tragedian, while her name circulates among the gossipping boxes. Here the reader, who prides himself on his familiarity with polite literature, may ejaculate "yellow-covered!" "sensational bosh!" and the like. Then he will reflect that there may possibly be other phases of life than those with which he is acquainted; that the *true* experience of a woman who, like Laura, has passed her existence in the atmosphere of a false, showy, mediocre society, will be likely to be *truly* false and showy and ill-bred; that the rendition of such truth would be impossible to many a better historian than Laura's; and, finally, that it is both an instructive and interesting thing to learn how much wild force and passion and aspiration, tinged with a continually haunting consciousness of a higher life, can burn under the *émail de Paris* which blooms every night in metropolitan theatres. He will resume his reading. He will come to Laura as Miss Bateman. With a covert mortification he finds he cannot resist following the hero and heroine through their stages of convergence, in the closing chapters, till at last, happily united, they perish in each other's arms on the occasion of a shipwreck—a shipwreck got up just as real and beautiful as the one in "L'Africaine."

We close by giving the author's own analysis of her heroine, which, like all her analyses of character, is better than her development of it: "Laura's life was like the expressed juice of the grape, which begins with a sickly insipidity, ferments through all manner of harsh, violent crudities, till, with its own tumults, it casts away its impurities, and mellows itself into the rich ambrosial wine."

Patriotic Eloquence. Being Selections from One Hundred Years of National Literature. Compiled for the use of schools in reading and speaking. By Mrs. C. M. Kirkland. (Charles Scribner & Co., New York.)—It is customary for most of the "speakers" which are prepared for school-boy declamation to select from the literature of former times as well as the present, and some will be found quite exclusively American in their contents; but Mrs. Kirkland's plan is, so far as we remember, unique. Her object was first to foster the sentiment of patriotism in the young by familiarizing them with the words and great deeds of the founders of our government; next, to preserve such specimens of eloquence or national devotion as were in danger of falling into oblivion; and lastly, by giving a chronological sequence to the whole, to make it an aid in the study of our history. In carrying out her design, she had the good sense to make her selections brief, for which she ought to be gratefully remembered by all schoolmasters. With a proper feeling, also, she introduced the speeches of those Englishmen who defend the cause of the colonies in Parliament, such as Chatham, Burke, Barré, and others not unfamiliar already to the lips of our youthful orators. Many pieces, of course, are repeated in this collection which, if freshness alone had been consulted, might have been omitted. Mrs. Child's imaginary speech of James Otis, and that which Webster put into the mouth of the elder Adams, are deservedly retained. "Hail Columbia" and the "Star-Spangled Banner" look somewhat oddly; Washington's Farewell Address less so. The last eighty pages of the book have been compiled, by another

hand, from the poetry, speeches, and documents of the rebellion. The order of dates is preserved, but in other respects the choice is not striking. President Lincoln's Gettysburg speech outshines all that goes before and follows after it. President Johnson makes as good an appearance as he can, in extracts from his first annual message.

Devotions of the Ages. By Rev. N. G. Allen. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co., 1866.)—This book is prepared by an Episcopal clergyman for the use of members of that communion. Its plan is to give the collect for every Sunday and holy day in the year, and then, following the collect and harmonizing with it in sentiment, a sentence or two culled from the epistle or gospel of the day. Last comes a short passage from some one of the poets, by which it is intended to fix Scripture and collect in the reader's memory. The editor's work, we think, has been best done where his liberty of selection was least. But the book was not meant for the literary world. By those for whose use and enjoyment it was compiled, it will, no doubt, be found pleasing as well as serviceable. Certainly, though, it ought not to minister to the enjoyment of any one to find a book of *devotions* ushered in by disputatious remarks on the universal bishopric or on any subject of controversy. A rather flowery preface is furnished by Bishop Clark, of Rhode Island, and externally the volume is a very neat one.

HOW THEY WORK AT A GERMAN UNIVERSITY.

BERLIN, May 12, 1866.

THE chief pride and ornament of Berlin, next after her museum, is the university. The indefatigable industry and minuteness with which the Germans collect and dispense all the knowledges of earth receive here their best illustration. The range of subjects that are treated daily, the amount of illustrative material that has been collected in its cabinets, and the accuracy and voluminousness of the information that is given are wonderful. In the present semester—extending from April 9 to August 15—there will be given three hundred and thirty-five courses of lectures, all of them occupying the whole semester and employing one hundred and eighty-three professors. A majority of these lectures are two hours in length, some of them three, and they are given at all hours of the day, from six in the morning until ten at night. Forty-eight of these courses are given gratis.

The length of time that some of the professors occupy continuously is amazing. Professor E. R. Schneider lectures once a week on iron and its related metals from six to seven in the morning, and six days in the week he personally superintends the work in the laboratory from eight to twelve and from two to six. Professor A. Baeyer demonstrates practical chemistry six days in the week from eight to four continuously, and, what is more, does it *gratis*. Surely only the German character is equal to the labor of such a "solid day" as this.

The number of subjects treated is also remarkable. In the department of philosophy, for instance, and on the single subject of history, there are twenty-nine simultaneous courses, and a greater number on mathematics. In the theological department there are ten courses on as many different books of the Bible. There is a series of lectures given on the Arabic and Turkish languages "to those who have already attained some knowledge of them and who wish to speak them with a view to becoming ambassadors, consuls, or interpreters in the East." There are three lectures a week "on the art and implements of ploughing;" one a week on the salubrity of the climate of Italy; four on the socialistic doctrines of Fourier; and lectures on the philosophy of Buckle, on that of Lessing, Goethe, Herder, and Schiller.

The language of the Samaritans furnishes a subject for a regular course; there are three lectures weekly on the laws of syntax of the Arabic, and as many more on German, French, and English stenography. Dancing, the manual of arms, and the best modes of horseback riding have each a professor who gives them his whole attention.

The catalogue of this institution is a curious document. Never before have I seen so conclusive a demonstration that, to a German at least, *labor ipse voluptas*. Instead of giving, as we do in America, a list of the students attending the various departments, the authors of this singular book proceed to dissect the dialogues of L. Annæus Seneca, which dialogues, we are modestly informed, they have had under a course of "emendation" for the last eighteen months. This is the preface to the catalogue, and through nineteen pages of ponderous Latin they pursue the ghost of poor Seneca, demonstrating beyond a doubt that the old Roman could not write as good Latin as the rector and senate of the University of Berlin in the year of grace 1866.

Every foreigner who seeks to enter the university must bring testimonials, from natives of his own country, of an unexceptionable character. Nothing further is required except that he be of a proper age. Upon matriculation, without which he cannot hear the lectures, he pays three dollars: one for his certificate, one for the use of the library, and a third to the dean of the faculty under which he studies. A change from one faculty to another can be made only at the end or beginning of a semester, but no new matriculation fee is expected. The rules of the university strictly prohibit all students from duelling and from establishing secret societies—two tendencies which, in the German student, as the latter in the American, are very strong. Notwithstanding the laws of the university so rigidly forbid the formation of these secret fraternities, and the rector and senate keep so vigilant a lookout for them, yet I am informed that they still exist and hold weekly meetings. There is one sodality, however, that is not at all interfered with, since it has as its professed object, its fraternal cement, so to speak, the critical analysis of the text of Thucydides. This is a sort of social mortar that to American students, at least, would appear to be of the least possible cohesive power; the Germans, however, moisten the analysis well with the best quality of Happold's Bavarian beer.

The modes of punishment are various, including the *consilium abeundi* and expulsion, but it is supposed that all who come here from abroad are able to govern themselves. The government of the university is very mild and based almost entirely on the student's sense of honor; there is one species of disgrace, though, that may be incurred by a foreigner as well as a Prussian, and that is that, in case he goes away without paying his term-dues, which are very small, his name is posted on a black-board kept in a public place for that purpose.

The whole amount of the university fees is exceedingly small. At the end of each semester, every student is expected to apply to his faculty for a certificate that he has attended the full course of the lectures he selected, for which he pays a dollar and a half. Before leaving the university finally he is required to procure a like certificate as to his general conduct from the rector, for which he pays two dollars and a half. Having paid these small dues, the student may honorably leave the university. If he chooses to go higher and apply for a degree, he must incur a much larger expense. In theology and philosophy there are two degrees, licentiate and doctor; in law and medicine only the latter. A licentiate's degree costs fifty thalers in gold (about the same number of dollars in greenbacks), and the doctor's degree one hundred thalers in gold.

To obtain the licentiate's degree, it is requisite that the applicant shall have studied three years in some university, of which he must produce proper testimonials and a certificate of character. He is then thoroughly examined by a committee of the faculty, under the supervision of the dean, either by written thesis or oral disputation, and a vote is taken upon his approval or rejection. To obtain the doctor's degree the candidate must, in addition to the examination, present a printed dissertation in Latin written by himself, and defend it orally in Latin in an open disputation. If the candidate is also a candidate for a professorship in the university, then he must conduct the disputation against at least three opponents, chosen by the faculty. If successful, the doctor's oath is administered to him by the secretary of the university, and he is solemnly inducted into his degree.

Many of the professors in the university teach privately, which they are permitted by the faculty to do only after having received the licentiate's or doctor's degree, either for compensation or without, as they themselves elect. Some do this as their principal or only means of obtaining a livelihood; others gratis, from a pure love of science, having otherwise a sufficient support.

Closely allied to the university is the Academy of Art—both of them noble buildings. Let me mention the prizes that are soon to be awarded in the latter institution. It is founded on a royal endowment and has its prescribed course of study, and to all who have completed that course or one equivalent to it elsewhere the King opens the following prize: It consists of a yearly pension of seven hundred and fifty thalers for three years, to be given on condition that the successful competitor shall spend the last of the three years in Italy on an artist's tour. The only other conditions precedent are that the competitors must be under thirty years of age and that the picture shall be of a given size. In addition to this a private person named Beerisch has established two prize foundations as follows: the first prize consists of seven hundred and fifty thalers for one year, and is given on condition that the recipient spend eight months in Italy and leave his picture six months in the academy. Candidates must be over twenty-two and under thirty, and must have studied in a German academy. They are to paint one landscape of a certain size illustrating a vintage festival and several others on subjects of their own selection. Each competitor must make an affidavit that he belongs to the Jewish faith and that the pictures are wholly his own. The second prize is the same, and on the same conditions, except that pertaining to religion. The subject of the main piece is to be taken from the Book of Genesis, xlvi. 29. The time given for the execution is from January 25 to July 14. Foreigners can take only a prize of honor.

S. P.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE HOUR RULE AND THE PREVIOUS QUESTION.

In July, 1841, the House of Representatives voted by an immense majority to limit the time allowed each speaker to one hour. This rule, hitherto without a parallel in the history of legislative assemblies, was adopted at a time when the great reaction of 1840 had given to the Whig party a power in the councils of the nation which it had never had before and never after had again. Its members, impatient of discussion, or of anything which threatened the success of the measures for which they had long been struggling, were found willing or were persuaded to place upon their own debates a restriction which arbitrary authority, dreading, as it does, freedom and fulness of deliberation, has never ventured to impose upon a representative body. Party drill and the influence of Henry Clay drove through the House a measure which the great Whig leader was unable to force through the Senate. There, the opponents of the hour rule were determined, if Benton's statements are to be relied on, to resist its enforcement, if necessary, by violence; but its passage, though once or twice threatened, was never attempted. Efforts have since been put forth to abolish it in the House, but to no purpose; though at one time a motion to that effect, made by William Porcher Miles, of South Carolina, came within nine votes of being successful. But there is now little hope of its ever being changed until juster notions prevail of the nature of deliberative bodies and of the rights of constituencies; for it flatters mediocrity by placing great and mean abilities upon the same level and under the same restrictions, and it pleases majorities by enabling them to pass their measures, comparatively speaking, unchallenged and unscrutinized.

But this was not enough. The hour rule only stifled debate; it did not quite kill it. Its complement was soon found in the previous question, which, up to that time, had been but little used in the proceedings of Congress, and which, outside of the United States, is now scarcely known in any representative body in the world, and even when employed is never moved save under very peculiar circumstances or in questions of a very peculiar character. To these two parliamentary monstrosities we owe the greater part of that hasty and ill-considered legislation which has of late so often disgraced our statute-books, both state and national, and in so many cases brought discredit upon the proceedings of Congress and the minor legislatures.

Twenty-five years have gone by since the hour rule was adopted. They have been to us twenty-five years of unparalleled interest and excitement, disturbed by the agitation of some of the gravest subjects that ever stirred the heart or tasked the mind of man, and crowded with the grandest events that ever marked the progress of civilization. The press, the pulpit, and the platform have all alike been active. For the first time in its history the nation found itself divided on a sharply-defined question of morals and humanity, in which appeals were constantly made to everything that was earnest in conviction and purpose, to everything that was profound in reasoning, to everything that was generous in impulse or lofty in feeling. Rude men felt the ennobling inspiration of a great cause. Men of letters for awhile laid aside the dilettanteism of scholarship in the struggle to re-establish the government upon higher and purer principles; and forgot the deeds of Cicero and the dreams of Plato to found a second time a republic greater than Cicero ever knew and nobler than Plato ever dreamed. During that long period of unrest, of strife, of intense moral and intellectual activity, there have been many able men, many leaders of public opinion, in the House of Representatives; but its records will be searched in vain for one speech delivered there which has of itself exerted an appreciable influence in bringing about the result which we have reached. Exhaustive argument upon any subject or upon any portion of an important subject there could not be in the time allotted; and necessarily not that highest kind of eloquence, begotten of great debates, when argument heated and fused, so to speak, by passion crystallizes into words and sentences which become the enduring riches of the race. No speech can be found there which will be cherished by the men of after ages as a memorial of the great political battle their fathers fought; no speech which will thrill the hearts and rouse the efforts of the lovers of liberty in other lands and other times, when the passions that prompted it shall have been forgotten. Page after page is taken up with essays precisely alike in length, precisely alike in the total lack of interest to all save curious enquirers, and of which, except by them, not one sentence will ever be read, not one will ever be remembered, not one will ever be quoted. It is a dreary intellectual desert, stretching over a quarter of a century, in which the wearied traveller is not only never refreshed by the oasis of a great debate, but fails even to be cheated by the mirage of a possible one. It is all *vox et prœterea nihil.*

But it is not simply that in the House of Representatives debate no longer flowers into eloquence; debate itself is dead. Congressmen speak no more; they read. Discussion has given way to the prepared essay, painfully written for a painful delivery. The highest ambition of the members is to produce something which will be subscribed for and circulated as a campaign document. The people look to them no longer for those impassioned utterances which educate the public mind, for those exhaustive arguments which furnish to the rank and file of a party the material for carrying on great political contests. Under the hour rule and the gag-law of the previous question the House is every year assuming more and more the character of a body created and meeting together simply to give authority to the reports of its committees. It is in these secret bodies, whose proceedings are rarely, if ever, made known, that the arguments for and the arguments against proposed measures are urged at length, and that laws are made. And even when their conclusions are rejected, they are rejected for reasons which the public learns not from the speeches of those who opposed their adoption, but from the telegrams and correspondence of the daily papers.

The great and in fact the only argument used in defence of the hour rule and the previous question is that a man ought to be able to say in an hour all that is necessary to be said upon a given subject; that the people ask for results, not for discussions; and that even now there is still too much talk and too little action. As those who sincerely believe this argument judge their fellow-creatures by themselves, their position is not so much to be wondered at. Certain it is that if the ability of our legislators does not exceed that of the men who defend in this manner these outrages upon the freedom of debate, no conceivable amount of quiescence on their part will either injure materially their own reputation or interfere with the national well-being.

But the argument is apt to catch the unwary and unreflecting; for, though no man thinks that he himself talks too much, he is always inclined to believe that his neighbor does. Yet it is untrue in each one of its particulars. There are too many measures and too little discussion; the people do not ask for results simply, but for the results of thorough deliberation; and no man who is fit to be a member of the national legislature can express himself fully upon any subject of great national concern in the space of an hour. The action of deliberative bodies without talk causes far more mischief than their talk without action. Representatives meet to discuss, and, of the two evils, the maximum of debate with the minimum of legislation is infinitely preferable to the minimum of debate with the maximum of legislation. There is always more danger to mankind of being governed too much than of not being governed enough. It is doubtless an evil that men will persist in talking who have nothing to say; whose speeches, as Garret Davis so truly said of his own, are like an October rain, refreshing nothing, fertilizing nothing, only prophetic of the dreary storms of the same kind that are to follow; and this with us is much more an evil than elsewhere, since our assemblies, unlike those of other countries, have too little independence or too much tenderness of feeling to exercise that natural right, inherent in all deliberative bodies, of putting down the member who talks merely to take up time. But it is, unfortunately, an evil inseparable from law-making, and that is not a philosophic course which, to escape a temporary inconvenience belonging to all debate, prefers to sacrifice debate itself. It is far better that weak men should talk, should talk often, and should talk long, than that

able men should not talk at all, or should try to say in an hour what cannot be properly said in a day. It is far better that the representative should be bored by a long speech than that the constituency should suffer under a bad law. No advocate would undertake a cause where life was at stake or where great interests of property or of reputation were involved, were he to be limited in summing up his case to an hour. And yet we expect members of Congress to discuss and settle in that time grave measures of public policy, the adoption or the rejection of which will leave its impress upon the national life and character for generations. And the evil is increasing. It is not infrequently the case in our State legislatures, at the close of the session, that speeches are limited to five or ten minutes. And the national House of Representatives has, within a few days, exhibited the discreditable proceeding of allowing its members to speak but half an hour upon a constitutional amendment designed to affect the fate of eleven States, the rights, including that of suffrage, of eight millions of people, and the future character of the whole Republic. Under the pressure of the previous question, a clause was carried through, by an overwhelming vote, to which a large minority, if not an actual majority, of the members were opposed. If speedy action was the only thing aimed at, it would have been far more like it, and far less of a farce, to have moved the previous question as soon as the report was read.

It is a grave question whether any legislative body can lawfully suppress in this manner freedom of discussion, and whether irresponsible majorities can thus deprive constituencies of their natural right to have their views represented. Certainly, if the power exists to limit speeches to one hour, it also exists to limit them to one minute; and the time may yet come when minorities will be denied the privilege of debate in all cases, as they are now occasionally denied it in some. The evil will then work its own cure. For it is not by hour rules and previous questions that the people can be brought to sanction great principles of public policy. Representatives may shirk or refuse the discussion of the measures before them; but if these are not examined in their proper place they will be examined somewhere else. Mr. Stevens complains that the people are not up to his standard of abstract right; that he is forced to accept measures with which he is not satisfied, simply because they are the best he can get; yet the people read diligently the reports of Congressional proceedings, and might be led to adopt his extremest views if he ever cared to inform them of the reasons upon which they are founded. Indeed, if liberty of discussion is, as Macaulay says, the safeguard of all other liberties, the Union party can, least of any, afford to abridge it in the slightest particular; for it has been and is the very breath of its life. It can find no faster means of gaining strength than by allowing in both houses of Congress the freest and fullest debate upon all important measures it designs to pass. There the arguments in favor can be clearliest stated. There the arguments against can be best met and answered. But no legislative body can be expected to shun that besetting sin of all majorities, the passing of measures without giving time for deliberation, so long as these two gross violations of the liberty of discussion are embodied in our parliamentary law. The doctrines of human rights cannot so soon become incarnated in our institutions and our public policy while Congress denies one of their highest rights to its own members; and he would hasten forward the coming of that time when in this land all men shall be equal before the law in fact as well as in theory who should effect in our national legislature the abolition of the hour rule and the restriction of the previous question to its proper use in those matters only which affect personal character.

THE SUSPENSION OF THE BANK ACT IN ENGLAND.

The impression is very general, both in this country and in Continental Europe, that the "suspension of the Bank Act," as it is commonly called, means the suspension of specie payments by the Bank of England. If this were so, the credit of England would stand on a rather precarious footing, since the event thus construed has happened three times within twenty years, and is destined to recur periodically every ten years as long as the act remains in force. But in fact this interpretation of the occurrence is entirely false. All that is suspended is a restriction upon the issues of the bank, imposed by its new charter in 1844, and ostensibly invented by a very conceited and very wealthy banker, Jones Lloyd, who was made a peer under the title of Lord Overstone. The proposition was accepted by Sir Robert Peel, who announced it as an infallible preventive of panic and disaster for the future. It has in practice shown itself to be the very parent of commercial panics.

By the act of 1844 the Bank of England is divided into two departments, one of issue and the other of banking, each as absolutely independent of the other as if they were separate banks. The issue department may issue notes to the extent of a fixed and invariable amount of Government securities held in its vaults, in round numbers $75,000,000. Every pound beyond this must be represented by an equivalent in gold held in *that department*. As only a few private banks are allowed to issue notes at all and these issues are restricted to a fixed sum in the aggregate, which is diminished constantly by various causes, the result is that with an enormous increase of business, there has been a slight decrease in the amount of bank-notes in circulation in England, except so far as those notes have been issued on the basis of gold coin actually held by the issue department of the Bank of England to a like amount.

The banking department is conducted upon principles similar to those of any other bank of discount and deposit. But it must be observed that the issue department might have millions of gold in its vaults, and yet the banking department be unable to meet the smallest check of a depositor. Such was in fact the condition of the bank at the last advices. The cash in that department is reported to be reduced to $150,000, a sum which any one of fifty depositors could instantly draw out. The issue department at the same time held over $60,000,000 in gold, not a penny of which could, under the law, be applied to the relief of the banking department.

The suspension of this restriction will therefore be easily seen to be a measure very different from suspending specie payment, but it is also the only means of avoiding the latter contingency. In times of panic there is no other place of discount available besides the Bank of England, and if it should peremptorily refuse to discount on any terms, a majority of the bankers and merchants of England would have to suspend in a week's time. Now, if the act of 1844 were inflexibly maintained, the bank would not dare to discount a bill or lend money upon any security whatever, or at any rate, after its reserves of cash in the banking department were reduced to a certain point. For if it continued to lend as it has done this month, it would have not a shilling left to pay its depositors. But if it refused thus to discount, its private depositors, one-third of whom would be ruined, would either from necessity or revenge withdraw their deposits, and thus speedily reduce it to a suspension not merely of cash payment, but of *any* kind of payment. When this occurred in the banking department, as it infallibly would occur if the restrictions of the charter were maintained to the end, is it conceivable that the issue department could avoid a run for gold? Would the holders of its notes believe that one side of the bank was solvent when the other side had gone into the Court of Bankruptcy? It is absurd to suppose it. A run would be inevitable, and the suspension of specie payments upon the notes would be equally inevitable, since $75,000,000 of them are issued upon stocks, which at such a crisis would be utterly unsalable.

It was in consequence of these considerations that the Government acted in 1847, 1857, and 1866. All that was done was to allow the banking department to relieve itself at the expense of the issue department, by borrowing gold from the latter without diminishing the issue of notes, or, which is the same in effect, issuing more notes without getting in more gold. The mere announcement of this permission stopped the panic in 1847, and the liberty given was never really used. People who were hoarding money in the expectation that all loans would soon cease, loosed their hold as soon as they found that the fetters were removed. In 1857 the bank was forced to use its privilege to the extent of $10,000,000. In the present crisis the bank has thus far got along without availing itself of the privilege offered, but has ventured to reduce its reserves to a point which leaves it at the mercy of its depositors.

The policy of such a restriction must, of course, be the subject of

much dispute. It is a source of frequent profit to those who are enormously wealthy and uncommonly shrewd, inasmuch as it compels frequent advances in the rate of interest to high figures. The London *Times*, which is devoted to the cause of these immense money-lenders, steadfastly adheres to the act of 1844, and insists that it need not be suspended. Its arguments upon the last point are simply ludicrous. The *Daily News* is strongly opposed to the continuance of the act at all. Into this controversy, however, we shall not enter, our object being merely to explain the nature of the action taken by the British Government, and to clear up misapprehensions upon the subject.

NAPOLEON I.

TRANSLATED FROM THE FRENCH OF AUGUSTE BARBIER.

BY C. P. CRANCH.

O CORSICAN! how lovely was thy France,
When Messidor its shining days unrolled!
A steed untamed, and with rebellious glance,
Without a curb of steel or reins of gold.
A wild mare of a strong and rustic croup,
Still hot and steaming with the blood of kings:
Trampling the ancient soil—too proud to stoop—
Free for the first time as with new-found wings.
No hand had ever touched her with disgrace;
She bore no mark of insult or of blow;
On her large sides no man had dared to place
Saddle or harness of a foreign foe.
Her skin was bright—shapely her limbs and sound;
Her motions graceful—proud her eye and bright;
And when she reared aloft with sudden bound,
Her neighing filled the nations with affright.
But thou didst come, and, smitten by her grace,
Lay on her flowing mane thy hands of steel,
Impetuous Centaur! Stern was thy embrace,
Mounting upon her back with booted heel.
Then, as she loved the stirring battle-field,
The beating drum, the roaring cannon's blaze—
The whole earth for a race-course thou didst yield,
And war became the pastime of her days.
Then no more rest—no nights of slumber sweet;
Ever the open air and labor sore;
To crush down human forms with trampling feet,
And steep her legs and breast in human gore.
For fifteen years her hard hoofs in their course
Beat down the multitudes that crossed her path.
For fifteen years with foaming speed and force
She trampled on the nations in her wrath.
At last, when, weary of a vain career,
Tired of a course where in ambition's lust
The world was trod to clay, and far and near
The nations in her pathway raised like dust,—
Her limbs exhausted, panting—in her task
Ready to sink at every step, she turned,
A respite of her Corsican to ask—
Thy tyrant will her supplication spurned:
More closely thou didst press thy vigorous heel
Against her side—her piercing cries were hushed.
Within her foaming mouth the bit of steel
More fiercely set—until her teeth were crushed.
She rallied—but a day of battle came
When she could bite her curb no more, but reeled
Dying upon a bed of shot and flame,
And crushed thee with the shock upon that field!

CONCERNING DISINFECTANTS.

[FIRST ARTICLE.]

OF the composition and nature of malaria and miasms we are altogether ignorant. So far as the constitution of these malign influences is concerned, we know no more to-day than was known in the time of Aristotle. Of the real character, force, and disposition of the enemy we are uninformed; but in the matter of defence, several important items of knowledge have been gained by mankind. We are now not altogether powerless, as of old, to repel or avoid the advancing enemy. This is evinced clearly enough by the comparatively mild character of the pestilences which have occurred in Europe in modern times as contrasted with the frightful plagues of the Middle Ages.

The importance of cleanliness, both personal and civic, of temperance and tranquillity in resisting disease, is known and acknowledged, while the bad effects of filth, intemperance, excessive fatigue, and mental depression are equally well ascertained. The word cleanliness, in particular, here covers a wide ground. Holding fast the while to the dictates of common sense, every man and every citizen would do well to consider carefully the full meaning of the term. Cleanliness, once wisely comprehended, should be sought after assiduously and practised conscientiously, at whatever cost of time, trouble, or money.

If the practice of cleanliness could but be carried to its highest term; if all actual filth were immediately washed away from our houses; if all prospective or potential filth were immediately carted away; and if, thanks to some efficient system of ventilation, all foul, vitiated, or spent airs were removed from our presence at the instant of their formation, there would be comparatively little need of disinfectants—taking the word in its ordinary sense. There are no more potent destroyers of unclean matter than the great purifying agents which have been provided by nature. We are in no sense likely to improve upon the native earth, air, and water. If we could but throw all liquid impurities into the ocean, or into some great lake or river, and the gaseous impurities into the air—both in such way that the offensive matter should quickly become mixed with a great excess of the water or the air—all offence would at once cease. The same purification would be effected if the filth were buried in the earth. But we are still far from attaining either of these desiderata, and hence it is that proximate and artificial processes of disinfection are resorted to and esteemed by the public. If we ventilate—in the narrow sense which attaches to the act to-day—there must still be provided some chemical system of absolutely destroying the noxious gases, lest they re-enter upon us or afflict our neighbor, If we bury without taking heed that an adequate quantity of earth be used—then again the chemist is looked to for something which shall gloss over the slighted work. After the river or tide-way has become lined with banks of sewage-deposit, as was recently the case with the Thames, at London, then of a certainty, with the advent of a hot summer, or of any epidemic disease, the whole question of disinfectants will come up for renewed consideration.

Of late years our knowledge of disinfectants has been considerably increased, both by the discovery of new particulars—as in some of the methods of obtaining and applying ozone—and by the introduction of clearer conceptions of the import of several of the old empirical practices. Three tendencies of the later scientific work upon this subject are to be noticed: first, to classify known empirical methods; second, to give a just theoretical explanation of the efficacy and mode of action of these old, and in fact of all, methods of disinfection; third, to make widely known among the people both the theory and practice of methods which have heretofore been only locally, imperfectly, or superstitiously applied. These points may be illustrated by two or three examples.

Thus in the case of tar, the antiseptic power of this substance has been known, more or less clearly, ever since the Egyptian dead were swathed in tarred cloths; and that knowledge of this sort does not die out from among men may be seen in the accounts of pestilences in the cities of hot climates. At New Orleans, for example, the wrapping of infectious corpses in tarred sheets before burial has long been a common expedient. That the odor of tar is esteemed "healthy" by the masses need not be said, and in like manner we all agree with the popular dictum that pine forests are generally free from malaria. Even the London gas companies have a notion, in which there may be a germ of truth, that the purlieus of their works are, as a general thing, remarkably free from the ravages of epidemic disease. The preservation of fish and of flesh by smoking is another familiar practice. The antiseptic properties of some of the constituents of tar, as creosote and carbolic acid, have gradually been made out; and stress has been laid upon the disengagement of ozone which attends the oxidation of these bodies and their congeners. But it is only recently that chemists have been accustomed to group together these scattered items of knowledge, or to look upon them as related one to the other. Renewed attention was directed to the value of tar as a disinfectant, some six or eight years since, by a Frenchman named Corne, who proposed to employ a mixture of coal-tar and plaster of Paris as a universal disinfectant. This proposal occasioned much comment at the time, and was examined and criticised upon every hand. It has doubtless led to a much clearer appreciation of the purifying power of tar than had previously been had. The method of Corne, be it mentioned in passing, consisted merely in mixing tar with so much plaster of Paris, or

dry earth that the mixture could be handled as a dry, non-adhesive powder, fit to be scattered freely anywhere.

As a second illustration we take charcoal. The purifying properties of this substance have long been vaguely known. Its effect is, in fact, identical in kind, though greater in degree, with that of the soil, which as every one knows, possesses a remarkable power of absorbing offensive matters. It is only in comparatively recent times, however, that anything definite has been known of the manner in which the earth acts. The first step towards an explanation of it was the discovery of the fact that charcoal and other porous bodies have the power to suck in and absorb gases as a sponge does water. Subsequently, years after the foregoing fact had become familiar, it was noticed by the English chemist, Stenhouse, that the disinfecting power of porous materials, such as charcoal and earth, depends not merely upon the mechanical ability of these materials to absorb offensive gases, but also, and mainly, upon the fact that the absorbed gases are chemically destroyed within the pores by the condensed oxygen which has previously been sucked into these spaces from the air. Under ordinary circumstances, while in contact with the air, the pores of charcoal, of earth, and of similar porous substances, are of course always charged with oxygen, by virtue of their absorptive power. Whenever, therefore, any new gas is taken in and forced into intimate contact with this oxygen, it is precisely as if the new comer had first been carefully collected and then subjected to the action of some corrosive chemical agent. A host of foul and offensive gases can in this way be burned up and annihilated. It should be always remembered that the char coal constantly draws in to destruction the offensive matters about it; and, conversely, the volatile constituents of coal-tar seek out and attack their enemy, the noxious effluvia. Herein the charcoal and the tar manifestly possess advantages over non-volatile agents on the one hand, or those devoid of porosity on the other.

Besides explaining the *modus operandi* of the porous disinfectants, Stenhouse's discovery is interesting in that it brings this entire class of substances into harmonious relations with the chemical agents proper. That the efficiency of the latter depends, as a general rule, upon their oxidizing power, is a fact which is every day becoming clearer. As the connection between the various systems of artificial disinfection is thus gradually made out, we arrive at a more just appreciation of the processes of purification which prevail in nature. It is now more clearly apparent than ever before that oxidation is the natural method. In nature, when filth is absorbed by the earth, washed away by rain, or mixed with the atmosphere by the force of the wind, it is destroyed not by virtue of mere dilution, but by being gradually brought into contact with active oxygen. As was just now said, our artificial processes are, as a rule, valuable in proportion as they can quickly effect a similar result. We fail, however, in this—that whereas in nature the putrescible matter is carried away to meet oxygen in due course without special oversight, we are compelled in artificial disinfection to bring oxygen in comparatively large quantity to the matter which, through our negligence, has been allowed to pass into the putrescent condition.

A FRENCH LOVE-STORY.

The "Revue des Deux Mondes" has just brought to light a little book printed in Paris for private circulation, only a hundred copies in all, entitled "Histoire d'un Amour Chrétien." It contains simply the story of the loves of a young Frenchman, M. Albert de la Ferronnays, of good Legitimist and Catholic family, and Mlle. Alexandrine d'Alopeus, the daughter of a Swedish gentleman in the Russian service, and for a long time minister of that Government at Berlin, and of a French mother. It is told in their own journals, from which a sister of the lady, Mrs. Craven, has shaken the dust of thirty years, and put them into the hands of the friends of the family. The story is a real romance, in many of its features thoroughly French, but on the whole so very un-French, or rather so very unlike what we are in the habit of considering French, that it is interesting, if only as a study of manners. We are all of us so familiar, either through books or plays, or through actual experience of French life, with the ordinary course of French match-making, and so little prepared to find in it either much passion or much sentiment, that when we read of a young couple of good position, who have managed, in spite of the "*convenances*," and if not with the approval, at least without any very strong opposition on the part of their parents, to fall violently in love, and to stay in love through three or four years of trial and difficulty, and finally to marry in complete indifference to fortune, we are apt to rub our eyes incredulously. We have all heard of what happens when the French "*jeune fille*" becomes of a marriageable age, and has a *dot*; how the parents decide when the time has come to find her a husband; how the father thinks of some other father, of his acquaintance, who has a young man to marry, to whom he will give about the same amount; how he goes and sees this father, and discusses the match with him; how snugly and carefully the money matters are all arranged before the young people are brought together; how, when they are brought together, the *jeune fille* receives her *futur* with downcast eyes, and converses decorously with him, or walks in the garden with him in the presence of her mother; and how at last she goes to the *mairie* and the church with him, and takes him according to the contract for better or for worse, without ever having exchanged two syllables with him, except in the hearing of a third person. If we are to believe French novels, the mass of these matches do not turn out well; and perhaps they do not turn out what we, with our ideas of what the relation of husband and wife ought to be, would consider well. But we doubt very much whether there is as much positive domestic unhappiness in France as in either England or America. Frenchmen and Frenchwomen have a respect for the *convenances* which makes mere vulgar bickering rare, and then social usage has with them made the marriage contract so intensely *civil* that probably less is expected of the married state by both young men and young women than amongst us, and there is, consequently, less disappointment.

The courtship of M. de la Ferronnays and of Mlle. d'Alopeus is rendered still more singular and interesting from the fact that it was not only based on deep affection and the free choice of the parties, but was marked throughout by the deepest religious feeling. M. de la Ferronnays was an ardent Catholic—one of the most intimate friends of Montalembert in those early days when something very like a revival was running through the Catholic youth of France; when Lacordaire was preaching and Lamennais was writing, and when it seemed to many devoted men that progress and reform might still find in the Church their most powerful ally. The young people appear to have first met at Rome in 1830, where M. de la Ferronnays (*père*) was French ambassador, and the first indication Albert gave of his feeling towards the young lady was the earnestness with which he wished that she could be induced to turn Catholic. In fact, in his efforts for her conversion, his affection, down to the hour of his death, seems to have found its highest expression. One of the exclamations which she records in her journal, as uttered by him one day on meeting her—"I am so happy this morning; I have taken the communion, and I love you!"—is a curious indication of the vein of religious fervor which ran through the more earthly passion.

Some of the passages in his journal in which he records his own mental struggles show that the hardest and keenest of all were those in which he fought against the tendency which he naturally enough found growing in him, as time wore on, to secularize his love, if we may use the expression, and seek "the beloved object" for herself, be she Catholic or Protestant, heretic or infidel.

"Oh, how long ago it seems," he says in one passage, "since I went to the church every few minutes to pray for *her*. . . . Oh, my God, when I asked for her conversion, even at the cost of my life and of my happiness, was it at the cost of the happiness of loving thee? Lord, grant that in saving her I do not lose myself! Take from me all joys but the love of what is good. This may I never cease to feel. . . . Rekindle in my heart the fire of thy divine love! Purify the sentiment which is now my life!"

He went through a long period of privation and agony before he had the full assurance that his love was reciprocated. The lady was calm, doubtful, and somewhat analytical. The gentleman prayed, hoped in his journal, and poured forth his doubts and misgivings in long letters to his friend, Count Montalembert. One day she lent him her journal, so that he might get some idea of the kind of person she really was, but with certain pages at the end sealed, or pasted down, as forbidden ground. He broke through the barrier, read the whole, and found amongst some pages of self-examination the delightful words, "*Je crois que j'aime Albert.*" He was so transported by this that he confessed his own perfidy, and received such a look as plunged him in shame and despair. He wrote to Montalembert, telling him all, and describing his offence in terms worthy of the unpardonable sin. "The moment," he said, "that I saw my treachery was frightful. There was contempt in her eyes. Hell could not have caused me greater suffering." Montalembert had some difficulty in persuading him that crimes of this kind are not recorded in heaven and that he might still hope for peace. The lady herself forgave him before long, and he wrote to his friend with ineffable satisfaction: "At last my fault is forgiven; she no longer bears me a grudge for having discovered her secret. I say nothing of how I feel. You can guess it." We doubt if he could.

Not long after he went to still greater lengths, showing how rapidly young men who have once entered on a course of sin get hardened. He kissed Mlle. Alopeus. How this happened we must allow mademoiselle to tell, herself:

"My mother was dining at Count Stakelberg's, and Albert's parents also. I was allowed to dine with Fernand, Albert, and their four sisters. This

was amusing. After dinner Pauline and Eugenie had their toilettes to make, and went to their room. The two little sisters began to play together at the piano; so that Fernand, Albert's brother, might be said to be the only person with Albert and me. He found this a little awkward, pretended to go to sleep, and laughingly covered his face with his pocket-handkerchief. After some time (Albert and I had been talking near the mantelpiece) I wanted to go away, as I thought it hardly proper that I should remain alone with my friends' brothers and their little sisters; but I lingered, unable to make up my mind to go, when Albert slightly touched my forehead with his lips, but very rapidly. I was vexed, and, without saying a word, gravely took my shawl and went down stairs.

"Alone in my own room, I could only think, and what to think I hardly knew. I certainly was annoyed, and it seemed to me that our delightful existence had changed its aspect, and to his disadvantage. I was no longer quite sure of loving him so much, and I hoped he would not come down until mamma had come in, or until some third person was present. Malte came, and soon after Albert, with a very sorrowful air. As soon as he could, he told me that I had distressed him by my look. He appeared penitent, and did not try to excuse himself; *but his eloquence was so great, he spoke so well, that the cloud completely passed away from my mind.*"

M. Albert was evidently not only a sinner, but a specious, artful sinner.

Things had now come to such a pass that some decision had to be reached by the parents as to whether the lovers were to be married or not. These ladies and gentlemen, with true continental suspicion as to the depth of young people's love, insisted on a two years' separation as a final test of the durability of the attachment. The lovers assented, and heroically determined to make the test still severer by breaking off all communication during that period, and during the whole of it wrote but one letter each. Albert, always delicate, then fell sick and lingered for some weeks on the edge of the grave. When he recovered it was evident, no one doubted any longer, that they were meant for each other. But M. Alopeus was dead. Madame was "worldly," and was herself going to marry a Russian prince rejoicing in the euphonious name of Lapoukhyn, and was opposed to her daughter's marrying anybody who, like Albert, had neither fortune nor career, but had delicate lungs. Alexandrine, too, was one of the maids of honor to the Empress of Russia, who, it was feared, would never consent to her marrying a Frenchman, Nicholas at that time holding all Frenchmen in abomination. Then there was an old friend of the family, Mlle. Catiche, who had dreamed of very brilliant alliances for Alexandrine, and mourned daily over the prospect of seeing her thrown away on a man who was neither a general of division nor a minister plenipotentiary. While tormented in this way, Alexandrine indited in her diary the following bit of philosophy. From the pen of an American girl it would seem commonplace enough, but from the pen of a girl born and bred in European diplomatic circles there is something in it strangely mature; it is a real outburst of mutiny:

"I have been sometimes curious to know if there will be 'careers' in heaven; if generals and ministers will there be held in greater consideration than people who have made no noise in the world. . . . 'Career!' the very word has become intolerable to me. . . . Mademoiselle, when you have met some one who in your judgment will please you, do not, before allowing him to charm you too far, inform yourself as to his religion or his principles; as long as he has not stolen or committed crime you may be satisfied. Banish all too lofty or ridiculous expectations; find out if he can give you all your life, and give your children after, *more* than the superfluity necessary to secure you all the comforts of life. If you can make sure of this point, the most essential of all, marry him without fear; you will be happy. But if he whom you are disposed to love has just enough to live on, and you hear romantic people tell you that the woman who marries him will be to be envied; that the solidity of his character is such as to assure you that his life will be pure; that his religious principles will never be shaken; that his modest tastes will never betray him into extravagance; do not listen to talk so *exalté*, so wild, so wanting in knowledge of the world."

They were married at last, in 1833, at Naples. Her mother would not let her wear at the wedding her pearl necklace, because pearls meant tears; so she wore a diamond cross given her by Albert; "cross of love," the bride wrote, "given by love—and which since then has seemed to me so significative." The cross was no less ominous than the necklace. In ten days after the ceremony Albert had a hemorrhage of the lungs, and the remaining two years of their married life they spent wandering about from place to place, vainly seeking a peace that was to come no more. Those were the only ten days during which Madame de la Ferronnays was not haunted by the prospect of her husband's death. Some happy weeks they had at Pisa with Montalembert, who read them in the evenings chapters of his forthcoming "Life of St. Elizabeth of Hungary," in the intervals of Madame de la Ferronnays' music; but this was soon over, and the night darkened slowly down. Madame de la Ferronnays continued to write to him as their "dear Montal," pouring forth her hopes and fears day by day. At last nothing was left her to do but to prepare with fortitude for the great catastrophe. At Venice she transformed herself completely into her husband's nurse never left his room, took entire charge of him, dressed "like a cook" or a chambermaid, as she wrote to her sisters, and led the life of one; told her "dear Montal" "that he would laugh if he saw her surrounded by potatoes, candles, and rice."

At last, as a supreme act of devotion, she fulfilled her husband's dearest wish by becoming a Catholic, and took the communion with him a few days before his death. Her journal during the last days of the long agony is inexpressibly touching, and so is the prayer with which it closes, written eight days after all was over:

"My God, put not asunder that which thou hast thyself united! Forget me not, my God, my Father, and pardon my boldness! Remember us who always remembered thee! Remember that not even one love-letter ever passed between us in which thy name was not pronounced and thy blessing invoked! Remember how often we have joined in our prayers to thee! Remember how constantly we have desired that our love might be eternal!"

She followed her husband in a very few years.

DECENCY AND DIVORCE.

WE are threatened in New York with another divorce trial which promises, if all that the lawyers say about it be true, to be tolerably disgusting. That the proceedings will be faithfully reported and eagerly read there can be no doubt, and that it is a horrible misfortune for any community to have such stuff served up for its perusal every morning at breakfast, is also unquestionable. An effort has been made to have the case to which we allude submitted to a referee and heard privately; but the judge has refused the motion, we will not say properly, but perhaps excusably, and it will be heard in open court. The fact is that divorces by collusion have become terribly common, and this collusion has been facilitated by the practice of having these cases tried in a lawyer's office, without one of the guarantees for justice and fair dealing and propriety which have been found necessary even for the preservation of judicial purity. The theory on which our procedure in divorce cases is framed is, that in every one of them there is one guilty and one innocent party; that the innocent party wants to be formally released from a contract which the other has virtually broken, but that the guilty party wants to have it continued, and will feel terribly afflicted if it is abrogated. We need hardly say that this is in perhaps four cases out of ten a false theory. The guilty party is in at least this proportion of instances just as glad to get rid of the tie as the other, and does all in his or her power to facilitate the proceedings. In this State the offender is supposed to be punished by being forbidden to re-marry; but this prohibition is about as effective as an attempt to starve a man by forbidding him to eat lobsters would be. He has only to go into another State with the partner of his guilt, or any other woman, in order to marry as soon as he pleases. In fact, no matter what care any State may exercise in the preparation of its marriage laws, they may be, and are, practically nullified by the careless legislation of its next neighbors. As long as the Western States look on the marriage contract, as many of them seem to do, as merely a device for legitimizing children, nothing that can be done in the Eastern States will do much to raise or keep the popular estimate of its sanctity. Judging from the divorce returns of many of the former, marriage in them is in a fair way of becoming merely temporary cohabitation, dependent for its duration on the whim or caprice of either party. We are not here advocating greater restriction in divorce or laying down any rules as to the grounds on which divorces ought to be granted, but we think the slovenly haste with which the courts grant them is scandalous and pernicious to the best interests of society. The tendency in this State, as well as elsewhere, has been to treat the whole matter of divorce as one which only concerned the parties in each case. But society has the strongest interest in all conjugal differences. The family is the bond which keeps the state together, and every man and woman in the community has the strongest interest in having every husband and wife compelled to live together as long as they can possibly stand it, without injury to health or morals, and in seeing that separations are not granted so as to promote vice. In fact, we want a general marriage law for the whole Union, just as much and more than we need a general system of coinage. All American men and women ought to be married and all American children be born under the same law.

Correspondence.

VERMONT AND HER SENATORS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

The Legislature of Vermont will have to make choice at its next session of two senators of the United States. It will not be difficult to find among

the able citizens of that patriotic State men well fitted to maintain the principles to which Vermont is pledged, and to do her honor in the national councils. There is, however, one man among the sons of Vermont so conspicuous for the qualities most required in the service of the country, that it will be a public misfortune if the accident of his absence from the country at this time should prevent the State from making choice of him as one of her senators. The Hon. George P. Marsh has long had a national reputation. As a statesman, a diplomatist, and a scholar, it is needless to say that he stands in the first order. There are few living Americans who have done more to raise the national reputation in departments hitherto little cultivated among us than he. To the most accurate, varied, and profound learning he unites the wisdom derived from long experience of men and affairs in many lands. His acquaintance with the political history of the United States is such as few men possess; and his devotion to those principles which are at the foundation of our free democratic institutions, and which are most dear to New England, has the ardor of a passion.

The services of Mr. Marsh as member of the House of Representatives are still well remembered, and America has rarely been represented abroad by a more accomplished and able diplomatist.

The selection by Vermont of Mr. Marsh as one of her senators would not merely be honorable to the State, but would be a real and distinguished service to the country.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

A New Englander.

May 25, 1866.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday,
May 31, 1866.

THE news by the *Persia* has had the effect of stiffening gold and exchange, as the Liverpool cotton market continues to exhibit weakness. Gold rose on the receipt of the news to 139. To-day, at 3 P.M., it stands at 139⅞. Exchange was in better demand for the Java. Sight sterling sold at 111, and a large business was done in francs. Sixty-day bills are not wanted, as the stringent money market in London would render it difficult to negotiate them. The *Java* and other steamers yesterday took out $3,191,400, and perhaps $3,000,000 will go on Saturday. The Government is no longer a seller of gold, and it is said that some Congressional limit will be set to its operations in this field hereafter. The money market is relapsing into the condition of ease which prevailed before the recent gold sales. Six is becoming the rule for call loans. The Secretary of the Treasury reports that the amount of paper circulation afloat is $930,808,471, of which $269,403,095 is National Bank currency. With so enormous a volume of paper money afloat, and no commencement of contraction inaugurated, money cannot but be cheap, and prices can hardly fail to rule high.

The stock market has been greatly excited of late, partly by a heavy fall in Erie and partly by active fluctuations in Governments. Erie, which sold a few days since at 74, was done on Monday evening at 57¾, and has since fluctuated between that figure and 62. Facts which have been more than once stated in this column have at length been publicly acknowledged. The company is practically bankrupt. To keep the wolf from the door, it has borrowed of its leading director, Mr. Daniel Drew, $3,000,000 on the security of $3,000,000 of convertible bonds and $2,800,000 of common stock. Unless its circumstances improve suddenly and largely, the loan cannot be paid, and when it matures, if not before, the concern will once more pass into the hands of a receiver. Of course, all hope of a summer dividend is abandoned. Simultaneously with this heavy decline in Erie, the Prairie du Chien clique has forced up the price of New York Central to 98. It seems doubtful whether this company will pay the summer dividend. It is probable that the bulls are operating more on the presumed existence of a large short interest than on intrinsic values. The corner in Pittsburg appears to have collapsed without the least excitement. The price was run up by the clique to 101, but at the price nobody wanted to buy. There were no shorts, it seems, who were obliged to cover, and in the course of a couple of hours the price fell to 87¾, and this morning to 83¾. The clique own all the stock, and seem to have but little prospect of finding a market for it. In other stocks there is no change of moment.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 24.	May 28.	May 31.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	108¼	109	109¼	¼	....
5-20 Bonds, old	100⅞	102	102	....	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	101¼	102	102⅛	⅛	....
10-40 Bonds	94	95⅜	95⅞	⅜	....
7.30 Notes, second series	101	102	102⅝	⅝	....
New York Central	93¾	96	98	2	....
Erie Railway	67⅜	62⅜	60⅜	....	2
Hudson River	111⅜	113⅜	113	....	⅜
Reading Railroad	109⅜	111⅜	109¾	....	1⅝
Michigan Southern	78¾	78¾	81	2¼	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	86¼	95	84	....	11
Chicago and North-western	27¾	28	28¾	¾	....
" " " Preferred	57	58⅛	58	....	⅛
Chicago and Rock Island	90¾	93⅛	94	⅛	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	94¼	98	97⅞	....	⅛
Canton	57¼	59	59¾	¾	....
Cumberland	44¼	45⅛	45	....	⅛
Mariposa	11	12	12	....	....
American Gold	139⅛	137⅛	139⅞	⅞	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅞	109¾	109⅛	....	¼
Call Loans	7	7	6	....	1

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Corner of Liberty Street.

CASH ASSETS, FEB. 1, 1866:

$14,885,278 88.

Number of Policies issued in 1865, 8,600, ensuring . .	$31,394,407 00
In force February 1, 1866, 25,797 Policies, ensuring .	83,413,933 00
Dividend Addition to same, ...	7,830,925 92
	$91,244,858 92

STATEMENT FOR YEAR.

JANUARY 31, 1866.

The Net Assets, February 1, 1865, ...		$11,799,414 68
RECEIPTS DURING THE YEAR.		
For premiums and policy fees:		
Original on new policies	$1,154,066 94	
Renewals	1,818,654 82	
War extras and annuities	15,428 64	$2,988,150 40
Interest:		
On bonds and mortgages	361,752 88	
U. S. Stocks	352,329 52	
Premium on gold	94,999 66	809,082 06
Rent		55,833 34 — $3,853,065 80
Total		$15,652,480 48
Disbursements as follows:		
Paid claims by death and additions to same	$712,823 71	
Paid matured Endowment Policies and additions	20,999 52	
Paid post-mortem Dividends, Dividends surrendered, and reduction of Premium	58,730 87	
Paid surrendered Policies	190,691 40	
Paid Annuities	10,242 55	
Paid Taxes	38,076 52	
Paid Expenses, including Exchange, Postage, Advertising, Medical Examinations, Salaries, Printing, Stationery, and sundry office expenses	174,310 94	
Paid Commissions, and for purchase of Commissions accruing on future premiums	334,255 12	1,540,130 63
NET CASH ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,112,349 85
Invested as follows:		
Cash on hand and in Bank	$1,475,899 82	
Bonds and Mortgages	7,348,622 30	
United States Stocks (Cost)	4,468,921 25	
Real Estate	782,307 34	
Balance due by Agents	36,599 14	$14,112,349 85
Add:		
Interest accrued, but not due	$112,000 00	
Interest due and unpaid	5,084 73	
Deferred Premiums and Premiums due, but not yet received	655,844 30	772,929 03
GROSS ASSETS, JAN. 31, 1866		$14,885,278 88
INCREASE IN NET CASH ASSETS FOR THE YEAR		$2,312,935 17

THE GROSS ASSETS OF THE COMPANY ARE THUS APPROPRIATED:

Reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies, including dividend additions to same	$11,503,996 03
Claims ascertained and unpaid (not due)	122,750 00
Dividend additions to same	23,497 64
Post-mortem dividends (uncalled for)	29,931 73
Premiums paid in advance	11,065 48
Undivided Surplus (excluding a margin on the above Reserve of over $1,000,000)	218,649 42
DIVIDEND OF 1866	$2,975,388 58
Gross Assets, Feb. 1, 1866, as above	$14,885,278 88

N.B.—The reserve to re-ensure outstanding policies and additions ($11,503,996 03), as above, includes a margin of $1,000,000 over and above the net values, at four per cent. interest, so that the total undivided surplus exceeds $1,200,000.

This Company is PURELY MUTUAL, all surplus belonging exclusively to the assured.

ITS CASH ASSETS ARE $14,885,278 88

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The Nation.

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Topics of the Day.

THE gravity with which the *World* and some other journals, ordinarily sensible, have been discussing the "strategy" of the Fenian campaign, is something very comical. It is no wonder the Fenians are audacious, when they find the press either so gullible or so ready to help them in gulling others. The public was treated on Saturday to ponderous speculations as to whether the movement on Fort Erie was not "a feint" intended to cover an invasion in force, headed by Sweeney, on the St. Lawrence, as if the main body was likely to be one whit better armed, organized, or provided than O'Neill's force. We have all of us now seen enough of war to know that an invasion got up secretly by small parties of men who meet for the first time the night before going into action, without artillery, or stores, or officers, is not warfare, but is crime of the blackest hue. The character of the whole movement is well indicated by O'Neill's reason for retreating, which is that his men had nothing to eat and no artillery, and the enemy were closing round them in force with Armstrong guns. Even Fenians must know that artillery, ammunition, and other supplies besides whiskey are needed to carry on a campaign. The events of the last week, instead of showing Fenianism to be no swindle, prove it to be a more abominable swindle than ever. Upon any sound view of moral responsibility, Sweeney would have been no less culpable if a man had never crossed the frontier. To the guilt of obtaining the money of servant girls under false pretences, he has now added that of spending it in robbery and murder. And, so far from helping the cause of Ireland, the movement will but degrade the national character in the eyes of the civilized world.

"EVERY foot of room on the hospital ship" at the quarantine is officially reported to be "full of the sick and dying." Yellow fever has arrived on a brig from Porto Rico, and there is no place for yellow-fever patients unless they are put in one ward with cholera patients. And while this is the state of things in the hospital, the crowded emigrant ships, which have made the voyage from Europe, from which patients are every day taken "in a moribund condition," are tossing up and down in the lower bay, and the Board of Health find it impossible to get the infected vessels emptied and the sick, once for all, separated from the well. There is no doubt that this state of things is disgraceful, and there is no doubt that if neither the city of New York, nor the State of New York, nor the United States Government, can legally get land on Coney Island or Sandy Hook, or some suitable place, for the erection of quarantine buildings, then they would do well to join together, take it illegally, and what money is spent in litigation will be saved in the bills for coffins and burial hammocks. On Saturday and Sunday there were thirty-eight new cases of cholera and fifteen of them resulted in death.

DISMAL accounts are given of the Southern cotton crop. Much bad seed was used, which failed to germinate; just when this was discovered came news of the tax of five cents a pound to be levied on the ginned staple, and many men, instead of replanting cotton, put in corn; the weather generally has been unfavorable, and for these reasons a very small yield is predicted. It is noticeable that the cry which might have been expected about this time is hardly audible, and the reasonable supposition is that the negroes are working well. It is much to be wished that the year had proved a good one for the encouragement that would have been given to both planters and laborers, the latter, on a majority of the Southern plantations, being part owners of the growing crop.

IT has been judicially decided in Mississippi, in a suit for the specific performance of a contract made during the war, and under which payment had been made in advance in Confederate notes, that the war was not a rebellion, but "a war between two distinct sovereignties to settle a question of governmental power." The judge also laid it down *obiter*, that a man "cannot commit treason when his action is controlled by State authority." So the vexed question is not settled after all, and yet with a little care on the part of Mr. Johnson, after the rebels laid down their arms, it might have been settled so that no State judge should ever even hesitate about it.

WHAT we had to say in a late issue about protection for naturalized American citizens abroad, must be modified for France by intelligence just received at the State Department. Minister Bigelow writes that if such citizens liable to conscription in France go at once upon their arrival there to the *mairie* of the district in which their names are enrolled, and produce the evidence of their naturalization in the United States, they will, upon application, probably be relieved of the service which they have otherwise to apprehend.

CERTAIN malicious culprits who used to cut engine hose in this city have now, Fire Commissioner Abbe says, "turned their attention to, and are, practising with the incendiary's torch;" and the pernicious assiduity of this malignant class, added to the newly invented "application of phosphorus to the system of incendiarism," calls for the utmost vigilance on the part of good citizens. The commissioner's language is a little warm, but he seems to look at the matter in a creditably cool and scientific manner. Since the 1st of January there have occurred in New York 370 fires, "a number unprecedented in the history of any city in the world." We may expect an increase in this number, because, for one thing, detection is difficult, and, then, "business is stagnated," and many men with stocks of goods heavily ensured and declining in price will "prefer to close them out at once to insurance companies" rather than sell them at a loss. The Board offer a reward of $1,000 for the apprehension and conviction of any incendiary. On the other hand, it is the inefficiency of the new Fire Department, the friends of the old one say, which causes so great an increase

in the number of fires, which is simply absurd. The business of firemen is not to prevent fires breaking out, but to put them out after they have broken out. To prevent people setting houses on fire is the duty of the police, the judges, and the school teachers.

A BILL is now pending in the House of Commons which, if passed, would do more for Irish prosperity and happiness than if the island were made the seat of the Holy Roman Empire, with the Pope occupying one wing of the Parliament House, General Sweeney the other, and a million of Fenian soldiers acting as coast guard. It provides simply that a tenant may improve his farm whether the landlord pleases or not, and that if the latter ejects him he shall pay for the improvements at a valuation. Mr. Lowe, on the part of the English Conservatives, opposed it as an interference with the rights of property, in one of those almost brutally cynical speeches which have done almost as much as actual oppression to breed Irish hatred of English rule. He was replied to by John Stuart Mill with extraordinary power, in a speech which, for the purity of its English, the closeness of its reasoning, and the force of its appeals to great principles, has rarely been surpassed. Nothing could be fairer or more conclusive than his answer to those who hold, with Miss Cobbe, that a true Fenian's idea is simply the offspring of Irish folly.

"People often ask," he says, "why should that which works well in England not work well in Ireland? or why should anything be needed in Ireland which is not needed in England? Are Irishmen an exception to all the rest of mankind, that they cannot bear the institutions and practices which reason and experience point out as the best suited to promote national prosperity? Sir, we were eloquently reminded the other night of that double ignorance against which a great philosopher warned his contemporaries—ignorance of our being ignorant. But when we insist on applying all the same rules to Ireland and to England, we show another kind of double ignorance, and at the same time disregard a precept older than Socrates—the precept which was inscribed on the front of the Temple of Delphi. We not only do not know those whom we undertake to govern, but we do not know ourselves. (Hear, hear.) No, sir, Ireland is not an exceptional country; but England is. (Hear, hear.) Irish circumstances and Irish ideas as to social and agricultural economy are the general ones of the human race; it is English circumstances and English ideas that are peculiar. Ireland is in the main stream of human existence and human feeling and opinion; it is England that is in one of the lateral channels. If any honorable gentleman doubts this, I ask is there any other country on the face of the earth in which not merely as an occasional fact, but as a general rule, the land is owned in great estates and farmed by capitalist farmers at money rents fixed by contract, while the actual cultivators are hired laborers, wholly detached from the soil, and receiving only days' wages? (Hear, hear.) There are parts of other countries where something like this is tolerably frequent, but Great Britain is the only country where it is the general rule."

DIPLOMATIC and non-diplomatic manifestations in favor of peace were, at last accounts, becoming more frequent and significant in Europe. Official invitations to attend a congress at Paris, emanating from the cabinets of France, England, and Russia, were despatched, on or about the 21st of last month, to the courts of Vienna, Berlin, and Florence, and a favorable reply was expected, if not already received, from all of them, though not without important reservations, protesting against the discussion of the most vital international questions. A self-constituted congress of German deputies, embracing delegates from most of the German States, to the number of two hundred, assembled at Frankfort, and adopted resolutions condemning the threatened fratricidal war, declaring its originators guilty of the gravest crime against the nation, execrating those who might attempt to cede to the foreigner any portion of German territory, calling on all states not actually engaged in the dispute to abstain from the contest and preserve their forces intact for the gravest emergencies, and urging a speedy convocation of a German Parliament, on the basis of the electoral laws of 1849. Popular meetings taking the same ground were daily reported. It was also stated that an attempt to facilitate an amicable solution of the German imbroglio by a simultaneous resignation of Count Bismark, Count Mensdorff, and Baron Beust, the leading ministers of Prussia, Austria, and Saxony, was being made by the three sisters, the Queen Dowager of Prussia, the mother of Francis Joseph, and the Queen Dowager of Saxony. Baron Rothschild, of Frankfort, declined to raise a loan for Prussia. Nevertheless, the contending governments continued to push forward their warlike preparations with the utmost energy and despatch, and the universal belief in the imminence of a general European conflagration was unshaken.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, June 2, 1866.

Two important legislative steps have just been taken in the direction of nationalizing our railway system. One of these ensures the completion of a direct railroad line from this capital to the Northwestern States, *via* Cumberland and Pittsburgh. The existing obstacle has been the narrow and selfish policy of the Legislature of Pennsylvania, which has attempted to create impediments in the way of the completion of the line from Cumberland to Pittsburgh, lest it should divert business from the Pennsylvania Central. The bill now passed interposes the authority of a law of Congress, and empowers the Pittsburgh and Connellsville Railway Company to complete their line through Pennsylvania to Cumberland, and declares it a national public highway and post-road. Another statute, similarly framed, empowers the Cleveland and Mahoning Railroad Company to complete their line through Pennsylvania to Pittsburgh. Both measures have passed the House by handsome majorities.

The attempts of the Southern sympathizers in the Senate to emasculate the constitutional amendment have been steadily voted down by a majority of more than three-fourths. The prospect is that this measure will receive the sanction of considerably more than two-thirds of the House, and be sent to the States for ratification or rejection within the present month.

DIARY.

May 30.—In the Senate, a bill for payment of the Kentucky militia called out in 1862 was passed. The joint resolution proposing an amendment of the Constitution was discussed by Messrs. Howard, Cowan, Conness, Johnson, Doolittle, Trumbull, Hendricks, Guthrie, Sherman, and Saulsbury. The first section, declaring all persons born in the United States to be citizens thereof, was adopted. Also, the second section, apportioning representation according to numbers, deducting from the basis in any State such population as are denied the right of suffrage. The third section was taken up, excluding from holding office under the United States or under any State all persons who, having taken an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, have engaged in rebellion against the same; and providing that Congress may, by vote of two-thirds, remove this disability. Mr. Saulsbury moved to amend the final clause by adding that the President, by the exercise of the pardoning power, may remove this disability; lost—yeas, 10; nays, 32. Mr. Johnson moved to except State officers, not being officers of the United States, who have taken such oath; lost—yeas, 10; nays, 32. He also moved to limit the disability to those who have taken such oath within ten years preceding 1861; lost—yeas, 10; nays, 32.

In the House, the bill to reimburse the war debts of the loyal States was postponed to the next session. Mr. Bromwell made a speech on reconstruction. The bill to reduce and establish the pay of officers of the army was defended by Mr. Schenck and opposed by Messrs. Blaine and Thayer.

May 31.—In the Senate, the third section of the constitutional amendment was opposed by Messrs. Doolittle, Davis, and Saulsbury, and defended by Messrs. Grimes and Willey. Mr. Doolittle's amendment, to limit the application of the disability to hold office to those who *voluntarily* engaged in rebellion, was lost—yeas, 10; nays, 32. The third section was then passed—yeas, 32; nays, 10. The death of Lieut.-Gen. Scott was announced, and the Senate adjourned to Monday.

In the House, the bill to authorize the Cleveland and Mahoning RR. Co. to extend their road into Pennsylvania and to establish it as a military and postal railroad was passed—yeas, 77; nays, 41. The bill to promote the construction of a line of railway between Washington and the Northwest for national purposes was passed—yeas, 69; nays, 37. Adjourned to Monday, June 4.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE side of the Freedmen's Bureau which is least frequently held up by its enemies is brought before the public by Gov. Parsons's appeal to Gen. Howard for an increase of rations to the destitute whites of Alabama. The assistant commissioner for Missouri and Arkansas estimates the rations for June at 89,000, whites, and 11,000, freedmen. Alabama's petition is enforced by the sensible conduct of the people of Perry County, who met at Marion, on the 17th ult., to provide means for encouraging the freed people in their wishes and efforts to acquire a common-school education. The call was signed by the Hons. A. B. Moore and J. M. L. Curry, and was addressed to men and women.

—The editor of the (La.) *Houma Guard*, taking a walk by Bayou du Large, saw very few negroes in the fields, which were not, however, neglected. The laborers were "the planters themselves, their sons, or, in a few instances, white assistants;" "men, women, and children," as he says in his next sentence; and, "mostly, educated gentlemen," for a final statement. They were all ploughing, hoeing, harrowing, or planting, and the crops were generally in fine order. These industrious persons would probably scout the title of "freedmen," but we do not know any who deserve it better.

Notes.

LITERARY.

THE American Oriental Society has recently (May 16) held its regular annual meeting in Boston. Due notice was taken of the members who have deceased during the past year—among them, of the German poet and oriental scholar Rückert; of the Second King of Siam, known to many Americans by his European education and his love for America (one of his sons is named George Washington); of not less than five missionaries in the East; of the lexicographer Worcester; and of the eminent scholar and patriot, Dr. Charles Beck, of Cambridge, one of the society's founders, and long a vice-president. Of Dr. Beck, Prof. Lane, of Harvard College, gave an eloquent eulogy. President Woolsey, of New Haven, was elected president for the ensuing year, Prof. Salisbury having positively declined re-election. Dr. Peter Parker was chosen a vice-president in the place of Dr. Beck. Rev. Mr. Sherring, an English missionary at Benares, addressed the meeting at some length respecting the history and antiquities of that chief centre of Brahmanism, pointing out the decadence of the Hindu religion and learning. The genesis of the English possessive case, ending *s* (*king's son*, etc.), was discussed by Prof. Hadley, of New Haven, in a full and searching criticism of Mr. Justice Manning's recent paper in the Transactions of the Philological Society of London. Prof. Hadley conclusively proved the justness of the common view, that the case-sign in question is a representative of the Anglo-Saxon genitive ending, against Mr. Manning, who regards it as a contraction for *his*. Prof. Whitney, of New Haven, endeavored to show the sufficiency of the solution arrived at by comparative philology of the question respecting the historical beginnings of Indo-European language—namely, that these were monosyllabic "roots," significant of quality or action—answering especially the objections of those who hold that the first words must have been the names of concrete objects. He argued that the first things cognized were by no means the first named; that language was framed for communication, its beginnings were determined by the possibilities of mutual intelligence, and its development went hand in hand with the analysis and recognition of the qualities of objects, which alone admitted of direct designation by intelligible signs; and that, in all ages of the history of language, things had been named from their qualities, and in no other way. Rev. E. Burgess, of Mass., discoursed of the respective claims to originality of the Greek and the Hindu science of astronomy. Mr. Burgess is one of the few persons left who believe in the antecedence and independence of the Hindu system, and his paper was an elaborate defence of his faith. Its positions and arguments were stoutly controverted by Professor Whitney. Other papers of less importance were offered, and the society adjourned to meet again in October, at New Haven. It has lately published the concluding part of the eighth volume of its journal, containing important contributions to our knowledge of the Nusairian religion (long a dark subject to Oriental scholars), of the ancient astronomy of the principal Asiatic nations, and of the theory of the spoken alphabet and its representation by written signs. None of our learned societies has gone on more unostentatiously and effectively in its appointed course of research for many years past than the Oriental, and its publications are favorably known all over the world as true additions to the world's knowledge.

—Mr. Ralph Waldo Emerson, who has published nothing of late except the admirable article on "character" in the last number of the "North American Review," has been delivering a course of lectures in Boston and elsewhere. These lectures are announced for speedy publication in England under the name of "Philosophy for the People." The titles of the lectures or chapters are: The Seven Meters of Intellect; Instinct, Perception, Talent; Genius, Imagination, Taste; Laws of the Mind; Conduct of the Intellect; and Relation of Intellect to Morals. We suppose Messrs. Ticknor and Fields will soon announce the American edition, which is probably printed in England for the sake of cheapness.

—One of the recent translators of Homer, Mr. Philip Stanhope Worsley, died on the 8th of May. He was a fellow of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, and a frequent contributor to the *Reader* and "Blackwood's Magazine." His miscellaneous "Poems and Translations" were published in 1863. His "Iliad," intended as a companion to his translation of the "Odyssey," has been announced for some months as in press, but was only half completed.

—The controversy as to the authenticity of the Paston letters, began by Mr. Herman Merivale, is now ended. The committee of the Society of Antiquaries appointed to collate the fifth volume of the letters with the original manuscripts that were so luckily found at Dungate, the residence of Philip H. Frere, Esq., in a box labelled "children's toys," have made their report. The report is long and minute, and sets forth the manner of collation and the unquestionable genuineness of the letters. They are undefaced, uninterpolated, and untampered with. Even the expressions which were most objected to as being of modern use were found in the originals. Search is being made, under the direction of the Lord Chamberlain, through the royal palaces and libraries for the originals of Vols. I. and II., which were presented by Sir John Fenn to the king, but thus far without success.

—The editor of the *Autographic Mirror* gives occasionally an interesting and characteristic letter among his specimens of chirography. In the last number is a letter from Mrs. Opie, dated Norwich, 10th mo., 10th day, to the editor of the *Amulet*, one of the popular annuals of that time, whose neglect has touched her literary pride and her purse. She writes thus: "Amelia Opie is surprised to find that her name is omitted in the list of the contributors to the *Amulet* of this year. She has received her copy of it, and thinks it *admirable* in all respects. A. O. will be glad to receive the promised remittance when convenient." In the same number is a letter from Chateaubriand, dated 1802, when he had taken advantage of the short peace to visit Paris. This was a time of great poverty for him, when he was glad to accept assistance from the Literary Fund Society of England. He writes to the Rev. Bence Sparrow, of Beccles, Suffolk: "Paris, December 11, 1802. Sir: Here I am back again in Paris, after a journey of more than six hundred leagues. I do not find any letter from you on my arrival, but I learn that my porter has lost a letter which came from England. If, by accident, it was yours, will you have the kindness to write me another one, and let me know what I am indebted to you and to every one else at Beccles? If the sum is moderate, I shall, perhaps, be able to pay it at once; if too large for my present means, I hope you will have the kindness to give me a little time. I am closely occupied with my new editions, which are about to appear with magnificent engravings, the designs for which are made by the best painters of this country. I have just had sent to me two English translations of "Atala"; one is abominable; and the other, by Mr. Barnavelt (who writes to me himself), is excellent. I am loaded with praises and cradled in hopes. I merit the first but little, and I too well know what the second are worth. Accept, I pray you, sir, the compliments and salutations of your very humble and very obedient servant."

—Next to the poems of the Arthurian cycle, the ballads which have taken the greatest hold on the popular mind of England are those which celebrate the name and fame of Robin Hood. The exploits of the British king were perhaps nobler, and performed on a broader stage; but the deeds of that bold forester of the Middle Ages, who was in arms against all oppressors, and who always protected the poor, have been dearer to the people's heart. Yet Robin Hood, though he is a personage of historical times, is probably as mythical a character as Arthur. There is as great difficulty in making a real man out of the ideal yeoman and archer of the twelfth century as there is in reducing to correct history the sagas of the Norsemen or the legends of the Breton bards. There seems, however, to be a certain amount of truth in all the Robin Hood ballads. There is such an air of circumstantiality about them and so many allusions to real persons and events, that they could hardly have sprung entire from the vivid brain of any ballad-monger. A very complete collection of these Robin Hood ballads has just been published, with notes, by J. M. Gutch, F.S.A. It includes all the pieces in Ritson's and Percy's collections, besides many which have been picked up in out-of-the-way places, and others which have been taken down from the lips of old people. The plays on the subject of Robin Hood and Little John, which were once so popular throughout England and Scotland, until they were forbidden by act of Parliament, have not come down to us, and were probably never reduced to writing, but handed down by tradition from one set of actors to another.

—A small but important volume to the investigator of the origin and history of the races of the human family has lately been published, called "Die Sagen und Lieder des Tcherkessen Volkes," "Tales and Songs of the Circassians, collected by Kabardiner Schora-Bekmursin-Nogmow, edited, with introduction, by M. Adolf Berge, President of the Caucasian Archæographical Commission." The author is a native Circassian, educated by the Emperor of Russia, and now in his service, and gives in his book much interesting and novel information respecting his country and compatriots.

—A bilingual inscription of great value has been discovered by Dr. Lepsius at San, the former Tanis, the scene of some of the great architectural undertakings of Rameses II. The words of the inscription, which is much longer than that on the Rosetta Stone, are legible throughout. The hieroglyphical inscription has thirty-seven lines, the Greek seventy-six lines of considerable length in small letters. The demotic inscription is wanting, though referred to in the body of the text. It is dated in the ninth year of

Ptolemy Euergetes I. (B.C. 238), and celebrates the birthday of that king and enumerates all his good deeds, amongst them the merit of having recovered in a military expedition the sacred images carried off in former times by the Persians. It gives the whole theory of the *two* years—one in use among the people, and the other known by the priests—as propounded by Dr. Lepsius in his chronology. Photographs and impressions of the inscriptions were taken, and the text will be published by Dr. Lepsius as soon as he returns to Berlin. On the Isthmus of Suez there were also found Persian monuments of the time of Darius, to commemorate his work of the canal between the Red Sea and the Nile.

—There is only one vernacular literature in India which has not been content with imitating the Sanskrit, but has endeavored to outshine it. That is the Tamil, written in a language spoken by about twelve millions of people in the Carnatic, and by about half the population of Ceylon. The earliest specimens of the Tamil literature date back to the eighth century A.D. With the exception of commentaries and some modern works the entire literature is in poetry. Mr. John Murdoch has lately printed at Madras a "Classified Catalogue of Tamil Printed Books, with introductory notes," which is a very valuable contribution to our knowledge of the Tamil literature. The first Tamil types were cut at Amsterdam, in 1678, but were so bad as not to be understood by the natives. The next attempt was at Halle, Saxony, in 1710, to supply the Tranquebar mission. The present excellence of Tamil typography is owing to Mr. P. R. Hunt, of the American Mission press at Madras. In 1863 there were ten native presses in Madras. Mr. Murdoch has described 1,755 books, which he has arranged in ten classes: Religion, 1,218; Jurisprudence, 19; Philosophy, 50; Science, 62; Arts, 6; Literature, 152; Philology, 176; Geography and History, 12; Periodicals and Newspapers, 26; Books for Europeans studying Tamil, 34. Introductory remarks, of a historical, literary, and statistical nature, precede each class. The books are very carefully described, and their contents marked. The general introduction, besides a great amount of information on general literary questions, contains notices of 119 Tamil authors.

—The first volume of "Dante e il suo Secolo," the work produced in honor of the sexcentenary of Dante's birth, is on the eve of publication at Florence. It is edited by Professor Ghivizzani. Besides papers of less importance, the volume contains a view of Europe in the age of Dante, by Cesare Cantù, the historian; a view of the political administration of the States of Italy at that date, by Luigi Cibrario; an account of the Dante family, by Luigi Passerini; an essay on the religion and piety of Dante, by Manro Riccio; Dante's theology, by P. Paganini; his politics, by Terenzio Mamiani; Beatrice, by Guis. Puccianti; Dante's philosophy, by Aug. Conti; the Inferno, by F. Guerazzi; the Vita Nuova, by Orlandini; the Convito, by Fornari; and the people of Tuscany at the date of Dante, by Gino Capponi.

—We find from official statistics that at the beginning of this year 372 newspapers were published in the kingdom of Italy. Of these 41 were published in Genoa, 42 in Florence, 44 in Milan, 44 in Naples, and 51 in Turin; the rest in smaller towns. When compared with the population returns, these figures give one paper to 93 inhabitants in Milan, one to 111 in Florence, one to 120 in Naples, one to 136 in Genoa, and one to 171 in Turin. The enthusiasm which pushed Italy to its national unity and now makes it eager for war, and which made the *consorzio* for paying off the national debt popular with all classes, is also displaying itself in literature. The well-written articles in *La Nazione* and *La Perseveranza* show that good minds are devoting themselves with zest to political discussion, and the excellent articles which have appeared in the *Nuova Antologia* since it was revived at Florence display an equal effort in higher literature. The desire of all writers and thinkers in Italy, as is apparent in all their articles, is to make Italy again what it once was, and to arouse and call out the dormant energies of a great and quick-witted people.

—In the Emperor Napoleon's "History of Julius Cæsar" there is a note which contains a list of the sovereigns and princes who have busied themselves about Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul, showing that somehow they have peculiar attractions to persons in exalted positions. Charles the Eighth, of France, particularly admired Cæsar's Commentaries, and the celebrated monk, Robert Gaguin, presented to him in 1480 the French translation he had made of the Gallic war. The Emperor Charles the Fifth left a copy of the Commentaries, filled with copious marginal notes, written by his own hand. The Viceroy of Sicily, Ferdinand Gonzaga, sent a scientific mission into France to study Cæsar's campaigns in the localities. Henry the Fourth translated the first two books of the Commentaries, and Louis the Thirteenth the last two; an edition of both was printed at the Louvre in 1630. Louis the Fourteenth also translated the first book; Christina, Queen of Sweden, composed "Reflections on the Life and Actions of Cæsar;" Philippe Egalité, the Duke of Orleans, was a great reader of the Commentaries, and had a map of Cæsar's campaigns in Gaul made. The first Napoleon employed himself at St. Helena in dictating a summary and criticism of Cæsar's wars, which was published in Paris thirty years ago.

—A protest against the prevalent dulness of religious tract literature has been entered by the Bishop of Oxford. At a recent meeting of the Society for Promoting Christian Knowledge the bishop said: "It is more difficult to get tracts read than to get them written. In this matter there is a terrible danger ahead—a danger which can never be escaped, a fault which can never be forgiven. We can forgive almost anything in a man who comes to talk with us if he avoids that one unpardonable offence of dulness. We may not agree with him; but so long as he avoids dulness, that is of little importance." He was of the opinion that books suited to all shades of opinion should be admitted to the society's depot, or "they would very soon reduce all their publications to one delicious shade of drabness."

SCIENTIFIC.

The Strength of Insects.—Felix Plateau has made some careful experiments with the view of ascertaining the force exerted by insects in pulling, pushing, and flying, as compared with that of some of the vertebrated animals. The force exerted in pulling was determined by attaching to the body of the insect a thread supporting a small pan and passing horizontally over a pulley. Weights were added to the pan until the maximum an insect could move was reached. Pushing, as effected by the "burrowing beetles," was measured by causing them to act upon one of the arms of a horizontal lever turning on a vertical axis, to the other arm of which was attached a thread and pan as in the preceding case. The force developed in flight was determined by attaching a mass of wax to the hinder pair of legs. This mass was at first made too large, and then gradually lightened until the insect could bear it away. In these three modes of investigation the muscular force of a given species is represented by the proportion between the mean maximum weight of the mass moved by a certain number of individuals, and the mean weight of the insects moving it.

Leaving flight out of consideration, insects have, relatively to their weight, an enormous strength in comparison with vertebrates. The average weight of a draught-horse (in Belgium) is about 600 kilogrammes (1,323 lbs. av.), and he can exert only for a short time a force of 400 kilogrammes (882 lbs.), or a force equal to about two-thirds of his own weight. Among insects the melolontha or *hanneton* exerted a force of fourteen times its own weight, anomala Frischii a force of twenty-four times, and donacia nymphææ of forty-two times their respective weights, when their force was used in pulling. In pushing, one of the "burrowing beetles" moved a mass equal to three times its own weight, another a mass sixteen times, and a third a mass seventy-nine times its own weight. In flying, as shown by experiments on the humble and hive bees, the weight moved is less than that of the body. In the first species mentioned it was only two-thirds the weight of the body, or about the ratio which obtains in the case of the draught-horse; and in the honey-bee it was a little more than three-fourths of that of the body.

Plateau has made another observation which has a physiological interest, and which is so constant that he calls it a law. It is this: If in the same family or tribe of insects we compare two species which differ considerably in weight, the members of the smallest species will exhibit the greatest force. In other words, the force, estimated by the relation of the weight moved to that of the animal moving it, varies from species to species in an inverse ratio to the latter weight. From this it appears that the smaller species have muscles of a different quality from those of the larger species. A similar difference is often noticeable between the larger and smaller domesticated animals, even of the same species. In the human body it is frequently found that a small mass of muscle in one individual has more energy than a larger mass of corresponding muscle in another.

Premium to Inventors.—An imperial decree, dated April 18, 1866, explains the prize of 50,000 francs offered by the French Government for the best discovery for the utilization of the voltaic pile. The competition is thrown open to persons of all nations for five years from the date of the decree. The claims of the competitors for the prize will be examined and judged by a commission appointed by the Minister of Public Instruction, to whom all communications can be addressed. The purpose of the prize can be best stated in the very words of the law: "A prize of 50,000 francs, to be decreed in five years, is instituted in favor of the author of the discovery which will render the voltaic pile applicable with economy to industry, as a source of heat; to illumination (*éclairage*); to chemistry; to mechanics; or to practical medicine." Although most discoveries are made in disinter-

ested investigation, a prize as large as this ought to excite scientific students to renewed energy.

THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE.*

THE veneration for names and places, however explicable it may be in some instances, is often really mysterious when the object of it is an institution, as was the case with the Holy Roman Empire of which Mr. Bryce has recently published so excellent a sketch,—a sketch which we cannot but commend as on the whole a contribution to historical literature; calm in its tone, and clear, if not philosophic, in its method. Its style, however, unaffected and terse, is better adapted for reasoning than for narrative, which requires more vivacity and grace. And in fact the work is substantially an essay, dealing only occasionally with original authorities. There is now and then, perhaps, something like a glow of eloquence perceptible; but the author's taste is good, and he limits himself severely for the most part to his immediate topic of explanation. Written at first for a prize essay, the book has grown under the author's hands; and this edition of it makes, we believe, practically a new treatise. And perhaps the author could set himself no better task for life than to go on and fill up at length the outline which he has now completed of this extraordinary phenomenon in history; the phenomenon, that is, of the superstitious reverence for an institution necessary in the earlier phases of civilization, still asserting its supremacy long after the idea it represented had not only disappeared, but its place had been taken by another of exactly contrary character in a civilization of an exactly contrary type.

The Roman Empire, in spite of the well-meant rhetoric of Cicero and the dagger of Brutus, was a logical necessity of antiquity. So long as the Romans fought for supremacy in Italy, the republic answered its purpose. Its real downfall began when the Roman mind first became conscious, however dimly, of its mission of universal conquest. How soon that consciousness began to exist, it is, of course, impossible to determine; but it must have been very long before Cæsar, or Cæsar would not have been possible. With universal conquest arose that sentiment of unity which found its expression and its agent in a single chief. It is easy to call Cæsar names, and still easier to find fault with the reasons which Napoleon III. has announced to Europe as his justification in the political pamphlet which the imperial author has entitled the "Life of Cæsar." But it is not easy to see how, with the work of conquest done and the work of assimilation beginning, anything but the strong hand of absolutism could have held together the discordant parts of the great Roman world. And the fact that Cæsar was not only necessary but inevitable is seen in nothing more than in the supremacy which the very idea of centralization he represented acquired over the minds of men; for the last phantom of that idea did not disappear till Bonaparte scattered it, with so many other mediæval superstitions, at the beginning of the present century.

But though the empire was necessary to the Romans in bringing about the political unity at which they aimed, it was not necessary, after that unity had been attained, for the spread of Christianity, which it had adopted as its religion. The diffusion of Christianity was, of course, accelerated by the unity of the Roman world; but after it had seated itself on the throne of the Cæsars at Constantinople, political unity was an absolute hinderance to its further development, because that development interfered with the political security of the emperors; a fact of which the Eastern Empire furnishes a lamentable illustration. There may not, perhaps, have been much difference in the degree of superstition between the East and the West from the age of Charlemagne to that of the last brave Emperor of the Greeks, over whose dead body the victorious Ottomans swept, as with the surge of an angry sea, to unfurl the standard of the Prophet on the pinnacles of St. Sophia. The Greeks, it is true, were much more refined, and preserved with the language most of the traditions of the ancient civilization; and we cannot but hope that the day will come at last when more justice will be done them than they have received hitherto; but they were, nevertheless, very superstitious, if not as grossly so as the West. The religious unity, however, which they received as part of their political inheritance, was more and more concentrated in their ecclesiastical organization, and, surviving the overthrow of the empire, still exerts a paralyzing influence upon the Greek mind throughout the East.

With the West, on the other hand, after the fall of Rome before the invading hordes of Attila, the necessity for political unity had really ceased, for there was no power to wield it. The Roman world was breaking up; new forms of society were organizing under a new influence, and that influence was not political but religious. And in this last fact lies the whole of that stupendous difference between the ancient and the modern world which for so many centuries the holy Roman emperors so steadily ignored, if they did not rather fail to perceive it, as Mr. Bryce has done.

Political unity was the dream of the Roman world, because it knew no other world than itself. Carthage had been extirpated, and with it perished the Phœnician predominance in the Mediterranean. Egypt was a mystery which the ignorance of the Romans abandoned to the Greeks, and the Greeks invented explanations to conceal their own ignorance; while they themselves, never a nation, were less an element than they had been. There was, in short, no world but Rome, no civilization but the Roman. When, however, Christianity had been fairly established and brought to bear upon the northern nations, the unity of the modern world began to exhibit itself in the contemporaneous development of various races upon the common basis of the Christian culture. For just as fast as the races crystallized, became French, German, Italian, with new languages and a higher civilization, just in that degree the Roman ideal of political unity became impossible. When, in the year 800, Charlemagne received from Pope Leo III., in the basilica of St. Peter, the crown of the Cæsars, which three centuries and a half before had been laid down by the pitiable Romulus Augustulus, the last of the Western emperors, the very reason why he could revive, even in appearance, the empire which he fancied he reproduced, was the low stage of civilization in the diverse races over whom his sway extended. The moment that, in the midst of all the ignorance and discord that surrounded him, his strong hand and wise forethought had laid the foundation of a better polity, his empire declined, for the need of it declined.

The ideal of unity which, from being political, became religious and made the East so effete, which Charlemagne thought he had grasped, and which, after him, was taken up by the popes when they became strong enough to control the emperors—this ideal of unity, both in civil and spiritual things, was opposed by the whole current of the rising society of the West. Everything was against it, increasing diversity of laws as well as varying tastes and modes of thought; but, more than all, that intensifying of races which has only latterly come to be taken into account in reconstructing European governments, but which from the days of Charlemagne, when it began, has been the leading feature in the movement of European society into that higher plane where the greater the diversity the greater the unity, because the consciousness of individual national existence is more personal, so to speak, and the law of love of which, in Christianity, all races had for the first time a common perception, is more pervading.

But of this fundamental fact, which we have thus taken pains to indicate, in the development of the modern world as distinguished from that of the ancient, Mr. Bryce has taken no notice. And this, in a critical point of view, seems to us the great defect of his book. It is true, as he shows, that the northern races had a superstitious belief in the eternity of that empire whose power had kept them at bay and overshadowed them with its majesty for so many centuries; and in a sense it is true that when Charlemagne took up again the crown of the West, there was a craving for a guiding hand and a central force. But that craving was only temporary and partial. The whole history of the Middle Ages is hardly anything more—in one aspect, at least, nothing more—than the chronicle of this incessant deadly struggle between emperor and pope, between Ghibelline and Guelph, between rulers, heirs of a tradition of empire, and subjects blindly groping for the light they knew, as by sheer instinct, to lie beyond the turbulence of faction and the desolation of war.

With Charlemagne began the Holy Roman Empire, properly so called; and for a thousand years, under various forms, it dominated the minds of men with more or less force until, in 1806, the Emperor Francis II. resigned the imperial crown, and the last phantom of the ancient civilization fled affrighted from the world it had haunted so long. But our limits do not permit us to follow the history of this title, for it was nothing more, which Mr. Bryce has presented so clearly, and with a certain originality for which he is entitled to praise. It must be borne in mind, however, that Mr. Bryce's statement is not exhaustive; there is another side to the case which he omits. It was the claim of the Western Empire to be the legitimate successor of the ancient imperial dominion; but the Eastern Empire was a standing protest against any such assumption, while the dispute which never ceased between emperor and pope as to who gave and who received the crown, and which Mr. Bryce himself displays considerable ingenuity in discussing, shows that there was at least as much confusion as to the real nature of the power that ought to go with the title as with respect to the legality of the title itself.

Uncalled for, therefore, as we affirm, by the condition of the age, the Holy

* "The Holy Roman Empire. By James Bryce, B.C.L., Fellow of Oriel College, Oxford. A new edition, revised. *Tu regere imperio populos memento.*" Macmillan & Co. London. 1866.

Roman Empire was never more than a phantom acting upon the superstitions of men, not a theory of government in harmony with the tendencies of the time; rather, as we have said, in direct opposition to them; and, therefore, all the more curious as an illustration of the authority of names and the sanctity of traditions which refuse to die for no other reason, apparently, than that they once had life.

RITCHIE ON SCRIPTURE WINES.*

It has been argued that in these latter days, when the average mental and bodily soundness of poor humanity is the evil product of the wickedness and ignorance of many generations of doctors, to say nothing of patients, degenerate mankind, womankind perhaps, ought to be allowed a "little something" stimulating. Noah's vineyard, it has been suggested, that first postdiluvian agricultural enterprise, was not actual merely, but mystical and emblematical also, typifying the new flood, compensatory for the watery one, which should float us, though but momentarily and at rare intervals only, away from the modern world and back to the primal force and vigor of our race, so that on the far side of this deluge, as of the other, there might be found brightening of the eyes, a straightening of the bowed back, a forgetfulness of poverty, the thews and view-halloo voice of eupeptic Nimrods, the untaught wisdom of the first fathers, and, with the rest, all in an hour, the antediluvian length of days.

But this is mere speculation. It is not supported by the Scriptural view of wine. Noah, Dr. Nott, of Mobile, remembering Ham and Canaan, may defend if he likes; Mr. Ritchie will not. Besides, he can give up to the Mobile philosopher the whole case of his patriarchal founder of a recently defunct system of labor. He does not need that to prove by the most conclusive testimony that the Bible approves total abstinence and condemns and forbids the use of anything which can intoxicate. Take *asis* for example; that is one of the Scriptural Hebrew words meaning wine, and it occurs in five texts. Three of these speak of it favorably, and in two it is condemned. Why this preponderance of permissions over prohibitions? Mr. Ritchie asks. He answers that *asis* was generally the pure juice of the grape or pomegranate, and in its worst state was not intoxicating, but only rather apt to stupefy the drinker. "This, let it be remarked," says Mr. Ritchie, who does not like speculation, "is not mere theory; it is the voice of facts." Look at Isaiah xlix. 26; judgment is there denounced upon the wicked, who should be "drunken with their own blood as with *asis*." Now comparisons, our author justly remarks, "to be natural, must be drawn between things which exhibit a resemblance in the points in which they are compared. There is no appropriate resemblance between persons drunken with blood and those drunken with intoxicating wine; the effects on both body and mind are wholly different. From this comparison, then, we conclude that it is a *stupefying* power in *asis* that is here indicated, and not any intoxicating quality." It is clear enough, Mr. Ritchie thinks, that the texts with *asis* in them afford no sanction for the use of an *intoxicating* wine. We can imagine quite an infatuated drunkard finding this logic inexorable.

Then there is *chamer* or *chemer*. That word is found in eight verses of the Bible, and is translated *wine*. The four cases in which it bears a bad sense occur in the fifth chapter of Daniel, where the king Belshazzar drinks *chemer* and commits sacrilege. These texts surely encourage no one to drink intoxicating liquors. As for the commendatory texts—as where Moses declares of the children of Israel, "Thou shalt drink of the blood of the grape," of the *chemer*, he obviously meant grape-juice as when first pressed and flowing fresh from the vat. Passages with *chemer*, then, are of no more use to the drinking man than passages with *asis*.

There are seven other words in the Scriptures which have been translated by the English word wine. There is *tirosh*, which is always mentioned as an excellent thing. But *tirosh* means something solid; our word *grapes* is the right interpretation of it. That rendering at once shuts off the enemies of total abstinence from all appeal to thirty-eight texts; so much of the testimony of Scripture is valueless to them.

Then there is *yain*, and *mesech*, and *eshishah*, and *sobhe*, and *shemarim*—their testimony is examined. We have shown what is our author's method of working with his data, and about how valuable and convincing his conclusions are likely to be. Yet, of course, there is something to be learned from the book. It requires not half the author's power of drawing inferences to conclude from it that the people are not all gone, that some of them, perhaps, live in the parish of Dunse, Scotland, who incline to believe that astronomy, and geology, and various other branches of knowledge a little apart from religion, are taught in the Hebrew Scriptures. As for the rest, take the common run of men and they have less knowledge of the sacred text than Mr. Ritchie, and their argumentative abilities are rather superior, so that the volume will benefit more people than it misleads.

* "Scripture Testimony against Wine. By Rev. Wm. Ritchie, of Dunse, Scotland." New York: National Temperance Society. 1866.

May Carols, and Hymns and Poems. By Aubrey De Vere.—(New York: Lawrence Kehoe. 1866.)—Provided only he has any poetical sensibility, the most orthodox Protestant, indignant at creature worship, or the most science-ridden philosopher may read these hymns in honor of the Virgin with very great pleasure. The writer of the "May Carols" was, perhaps, a born Catholic, and in a deeper sense than his christening priest would have said. He was, perhaps, too, a born devotee of that mystically sweet and tender phase of the Romish faith—the *cultus* of the Blessed Virgin. But he was also a born poet, and, far as his work may seem removed from mere popular appreciation, a poet after the popular ideal. This, at least among us northern nations, is not the myriad-minded seer, the mighty master, the intellectual and artistic maker, but rather the susceptible and sympathetic singer; the æolian harp rather than the organist; the minor poet, in short, whom the people have with them always and amongst them, rather than the great creative genius, comprehensive of heights and depths, who is above their heads and away from their hearts. These "May Carols" are tender, grave poetry of this order mingled with such religion as might flow from the same source. It is like the soft, misty breath of the south wind, and there is the perfume of censers in it. Nature everywhere colors the verse, but is oftener used in similitudes, or for its own sake, than made emblematic. She is painted in her details, too, with an elaboration that reminds of Tennyson and speaks of the love the poet bears her and her power over him, so that he asks, the poet of nature triumphing over the religionist:

> "Ah, tell me in that heavenlier sphere
> Must all of earth have passed away?"

There is sometimes wanting perfect clearness in the language, and sometimes, though rarely, the simple beauty of thought and feeling is marred by the intrusion of a mere conceit. An instance of this is the following stanza of the "Sancta Maria:"

> "The mystery high of God made man,
> Through thee to man is easier made.
> Pronounce the consonant who can
> Without the softer vowel's aid."

But generally the effect of the poetry is purely delightful. The outward appearance of the book is reasonably good, but not what such a poet, in these days of wide-embracing blue and gold issues, ought to have. It is not a book for the ordinary American Catholic market, and might have profitably worn a more tasteful and expensive dress.

Footlight Flashes. By William Davidge, comedian. (New York: American News Company.)—To the experience and wide field of observation, the keen sense of the ludicrous, and a certain knack at story-telling which seems to come natural to actors, we are indebted for some of the most amusing volumes of anecdote and gossip in the language. These, of course, are valuable in proportion as they deal with professional incidents. When written with more ambitious aims they are, with rare exceptions, no better than hundreds of books of their class, but are apt to be much worse. Any one who knows the vicissitudes of an actor's life, or has studied the curious second nature that often overlays his original character, rendering him, as the great Elliston once remarked of himself, *off* the stage precisely what he is *on* the stage, and sometimes a greater oddity than any he personates, will understand that the stage and its surroundings afford ample material to any of its children who may aspire to literary honors. Mr. Davidge has in the main adhered to this principle, but, notwithstanding a professional experience of more than thirty years in Great Britain and America, cannot be said to have made a very valuable addition to theatrical ana. His stories, while amply suggestive of the footlights, are too frequently trivial and pointless, and his really good things are marred in the telling by an affected style which he mistakes for humor. The best passages in his book are those describing the internal economy of a theatre and the complicated machinery by which plays are produced. The budding actor may glean from these some knowledge of the calling which he hopes to make his own, and would do well to consider seriously the author's very sensible remarks on the processes by which a great actor is formed. Mr. Davidge shows that there is no royal road to acting more than to learning, and that familiarity with stage business from childhood almost, and a regularly ascending scale of parts, are, in most cases, indispensable to make a "well-graced actor." From his personal experience he gives one or two examples of the readiness with which a veteran, trained in such a school, can sometimes help a friend out of an awkward dilemma—as, for instance, by assuming at short notice a part which he has never studied, and extemporizing the language so happily as not to interfere with the action of the play. His remarks on the "star" system in theatrical performances are also well considered, and will doubtless be generally approved.

Memoirs of a Good-for-Nothing. From the German of Joseph von Eichendorf. By Charles Godfrey Leland. (New York: Leypoldt & Holt. 1866.)—This ceased to be a world of latitude and leisure some centuries ago. We have vagabonds, to be sure, but our nineteenth century vagabonds mostly want to "strike ile," somewhere, or represent some new territory. They wander over the face of the earth as fell-minded and with as definite a purpose as their great forefather Cain. Nobody nowadays throws himself on to the stream of life to drift, but rather with all his might each of us paddles his own canoe, whenever he can using the aid of machinery, for since the loss of our original uprightness we have sought out many inventions. Even upon our innate laziness we have founded the dreadful science of political economy. Adam Smith and Malthus we have made the logical consequents of Melibœus and Amoretta on the grass. But if there is still left any one who

still some traces of Eden inherits, who can enjoy an hour's dream of perfect aimlessness, we advise him, with incongruous earnestness we urge it on him, to give himself the great pleasure of reading this charming book. The vignettes pleasantly illustrate the text, and we only find fault with the somewhat too comic picture of the poor lover weeping bitterly in his boat.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, May 18, 1866.

AFTER the darkest and chilliest *lune rousse* with which we have been plagued for many years past, Paris is once more rejoicing in the magnificent blue canopy it looks upon as its right. The bonnets are growing smaller and smaller, but, as they now consist mainly of a flower and a pair of strings, they can hardly diminish much more without reaching the vanishing point. In crinolines the reduction of circumference is also very appreciable; the two new forms of this season, viz., "the Empire" and "the Victoria," being so small as to cause those of last season to look extravagantly "bundling" and awkward. The new crinolines, moreover, being hooped only below the hips, constitute a decided commencement of return towards the proportions of mother nature. Nothing striking in the way of "fashions" has appeared as yet, the sudden return of cold weather having retarded the issue of the sovereign ukases that rule the whole feminine world, according to the caprices of the "Quartier Breda."

The absorbing question of the moment, "peace or war," seems no nearer a solution than it was a fortnight ago; but the breaking out of a new struggle, of which no one can measure the proportions nor divine the issue, is deprecated by the Parisians of all classes and parties. The influence of the extraordinary man who is remoulding the French people as completely, if not as rapidly, as he is remodelling Paris, is in nothing more plainly revealed than in the diminished appetite for military glory so apparent to all who are given to watching "the signs of the times." The enormous development of every species of material activity, the stimulus applied to the productive and commercial enterprise of the nation, the vast and rapid increase of wealth and the eager desire for luxury and physical comfort now visible among all classes, which constitute so distinctive a feature of the France of the present day, render this people, formerly the most belligerent of Europe, increasingly averse to the perturbations, waste, havoc, and physical horrors of war. They have got "glory" enough—they have annexed Nice and Savoy; they have a preponderating influence in Europe. For the moment they want nothing more in the way of military prestige, and every one wants, on the contrary, if poor, to grow rich; if rich, to grow richer. The general aspiration is, therefore, after peace; and the warlike preparations now stirring so large a portion of the continent of Europe are excessively unwelcome, as, when once the struggle shall have begun, it is feared that France will, in some way or other, find herself drawn into it before it is brought to an end. Ardent, therefore, are the good wishes of the Parisians for the success of the diplomatic efforts which France and England are believed to be making at Vienna, Florence, and Berlin. The Prussians are, evidently, not anxious for war; the Austrians would greatly prefer a state of peace; but Italy, the retention of whose undelivered provinces under a foreign yoke compels her to a ruinous outlay in view of their eventual deliverance, is boiling over with warlike enthusiasm. Not only the entire Italian press, but all private letters from Italy, represent the entire nation as having reached a state of incandescence that leaves far behind it in intensity even the great volcanic upheaving of 1859. When the soul of an entire population is in the electrified state in which the Italian people now finds itself, the slightest cause suffices to create a lively impression. Thus, a few days since, the two winning numbers of the state lottery first drawn at Florence being 59 and 66, the Italians, who are not a little given to superstition, have acclaimed these numbers with intense delight as a favorable omen.

But, to return "à nos moutons," by a half Italian transition, let me mention, as a new item in the attractions of this already so very attractive city, that the spirited individuals who have united in purchasing the Pompeian villa of Prince Napoleon in the Avenue Montaigne, and who are making of it an Etruscan and Roman museum of very great value and interest, are to inaugurate the new use of the edifice in question by giving, on the 22d inst., in the *atrium* of the villa, a grand dinner to all the leading literary and artistic celebrities of the capital. The entertainment is to be as exact an imitation as possible of the dinners of classic times. The dishes are all to be Roman; but whether the guests will be compelled to eat in the semi-recumbent posture of classic days, we are not informed. The invitations already issued are said to be very faithfully imitated from the style in vogue at that period. They are printed on large sheets of thick, glossy modern paper; but, to give something of a classic air to these sheets, they are ornamented with a vignette, in Etruscan style and colors, cleverly imitating the slips of painted papyrus which the aristocratic Amphytrions of ancient Italy employed as cards of invitation.

The splendid balls of the departing season being now "gathered to the things before the flood," the gay world is again taking its pleasure in dinners. The new Turkish ambassador, Sayvet-Pacha, who seems to have as easy an intuition of the resources of Paris life as though be had lived here from his cradle, has just given one of the luxurious little entertainments for which he is becoming so famous, and which the most practised Sybarites of this region would find it difficult to equal. This last achievement of the representative of the Sublime Porte was offered to seven guests—four ladies and three gentlemen—all of the highest distinction. The dinner is described by the guests as "indescribable," and the wines, *liqueurs*, service, and accessories as worthy of a place in the Arabian Nights. The plate used on this occasion was the magnificent service of silver-gilt presented to Sayvet-Pacha by the late Sultan, formerly alluded to in these letters; and the coffee was again served in the fairy-like cups of gold filigree, enriched with jewels, and scarcely bigger than large acorn-cups, which had already excited the enthusiasm of his guests at the dinner he gave last winter. After the dinner a concert was given by the very first *artistes* of the capital, all engaged at a very high figure for the sole delectation of the luxurious Pacha and his seven favored guests.

Not quite so sumptuous, though very splendid in its way and intensely enjoyed by all present, was the one hundred and twenty-fifth annual dinner of the society of musicians called "The Children of Apollo." How many revolutions, wars, discoveries, and changes of all kinds have occurred on our little planet since the formation of this society! How many celebrities, now passed away, have been inscribed in its annals! And with how much interest should one look down the vista of its next hundred and twenty-five years of existence, were it permitted to mortal eyes to see so far into the millstone of the future! All the great musical names of the last century and a quarter figure on the lists of these fraternal dinners: Bach, Cherubini, Haydn, Hummel, Méhul, Piccini, Viotti, Paesiello, Monsigny, Onslow, Halévy, and their rivals of each successive generation. At the dinner of a few days ago all the musical notorieties of the present day were present. After the dinner an excellent orchestra executed compositions of several of the members, and fragments of various classical and modern works were admirably performed by the most distinguished players and singers, of both sexes, and the president, Marquis de Queux de St. Hilaire, made a speech between the two parts of the concert so witty, so elegant, and so perfectly appropriate to the occasion as to call forth the enthusiastic acclamations of the assembly.

The king of violin players, the unrivalled Sivori, whose powers each year seem to have reached the ultimate limit of possible perfection, but who, with every new year, gains so greatly as to throw the last year's performances into the shade, has been winding up his brilliant successes by giving the aid of his marvellous *archet* to a concert got up by himself, Braga, Jaël, Galvani, and Mlle. Bellerive, in aid of an old violinist, Morena, whose laborious career has left him poor. The concert was, of course, magnificent, and the proceeds constitute a welcome help to the worthy old professor. The great violinist has also given his aid to poor Mlle. Thuillière, playing in the interlude at her benefit at the Odeon, from which she is obliged to withdraw through the injury to her health occasioned by the setting on fire of her drapery, while acting at the theatre a few months ago, and is now condemned to an existence of pain and misery, unable to work and utterly without resources. What a sad contrast to the brilliant fortunes of the popular idol, Thérésa, whose engagement at the Alcazar has just been renewed to the tune of 145,000 francs per month.

"The Abbé Liszt" is still here, and appears, despite his tonsured crown, to preserve all his old love of shining as well as his wonderful execution. The other night, at a musical *soirée* given by the popular artist Gustave Doré, Liszt played a number of his new compositions to a brilliant company composed of duchesses, ambassadors, sculptors, authors, painters, musicians, and other notorieties. Among these was his "Dante," a musical rendering of the "Divina Commedia" of the great Florentine, for two pianos. This composition, being highly Wagnerian, would have been simply unbearable but for the almost superhuman playing of "the abbé" himself and the scarcely less extraordinary execution of M. de Saint-Saëns, who played with him. After this vast ocean of learned cacophony, Liszt played, alone, his "Francis d'Assise walking on the waves," and which contains passages of wonderful beauty, especially the movement in which, while the left hand produces a marvellous imitation of the "roaring of many waters," the right hand performs a movement totally distinct and equally descriptive, calm, sweet, majestic, luminous, *suave*, admirably presenting the march of the saint, sustained by the Divine assistance, upon the wild pathway of the waves.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

MR. STEVENS'S NEW PLAN OF RECONSTRUCTION.

Mr. Stevens is so justly dissatisfied with his own report from the Committee of Fifteen, especially since the only clause of it in which he felt much interest is clearly defeated, that he has introduced a rival project upon his own responsibility. The new plan has the merit of being more practical than any of Mr. Stevens's previous inventions, and would, with some modifications, work well. Possibly, however, these modifications would destroy every feature of the bill which is attractive to its author.

Section 2 of this bill recognizes the *de facto* State governments at the South as valid "for municipal purposes," though irregular, and not entitled to representation in Congress.

Section 3 provides that *when* the existing legislatures shall call State conventions, they shall be elected as prescribed in the bill.

Sections 4 and 5 permit all male citizens, being twenty-one years of age, to vote for and serve as delegates to these conventions.

Section 6 declares all persons who held office under the "so-called Confederate States," or who took an oath of allegiance thereto, to have forfeited their citizenship, and requires them to be naturalized, in like manner with other foreigners, before they can vote.

Section 7 requires the constitutions and laws of the reorganized States to put all citizens upon an equal footing. If *this section* is ever repealed (so the bill is reported, but surely erroneously), the act is to become void, and the State to lose its right to representation.

Section 8 provides for restoration of the States upon this basis.

It seems to us that section 2 gives up the whole ground. The governments now *de facto* existing at the South are *State* governments, or nothing. They do not pretend to be Territorial governments, and will not act as such. If Congress recognizes them at all, it cannot stop half-way, with any consistency or reason. If they are fit to be trusted with the lives and property of all their citizens, they are fit to be represented in Congress. If they are State governments for any purpose, they have an absolute constitutional right to representation in Congress. Mr. Stevens cannot adopt Mr. Johnson's premises without also adopting his conclusions.

Section 3 follows the error of section 2, and nullifies the whole bill by leaving it to the discretion of these illegally constituted legislatures to call conventions or not. Mr. Stevens knows perfectly well that they will not stir in the matter, and therefore his whole project resolves itself into one of mere exclusion, which we are deeply convinced is the most dangerous and impracticable of any; liable to be overthrown at any moment, and bringing with its fall the most disastrous results.

Sections 4 and 5 meet with our hearty approval. We fully believe that it is in the lawful power of Congress to provide for the election of these conventions by universal suffrage, and that this is not merely the most expedient method, but the only one that can legally be adopted. The whole people have a right to participate in the organization of government by means of a convention, and Mr. Stevens does well to recognize this doctrine.

Section 6 is not in itself unjust, and, if enacted two or three years ago, would have been effectual. Indeed, there is strong reason to believe that it is merely declaratory of what would have been law and fact but for a circumstance which we shall presently mention. The United States have always recognized the right of expatriation and renunciation of citizenship. Every one who took the oath of allegiance to the so-called Confederate States necessarily renounced his allegiance to the United States; and although we did not recognize the Confederacy as a government we clearly did as a belligerent. Is it essential to a renunciation of citizenship that the citizen should transfer himself to a nation recognized by us? If so, then no American citizen could, prior to 1862, have lost his citizenship here by becoming a citizen of Hayti, St. Domingo, or Liberia. We do not think this could be so. We believe that it is in the power of every American to give up his birthright by any formal act indicating his intention to abandon his citizenship here in favor of citizenship in, or subjection to, any other power existing in fact, though not in law.

If this theory is correct, it is clear that the President's pardon does not restore citizenship, since it was not forfeited as a penalty for crime, but given up by the voluntary action of those who took the oath in question. Nor would there be any injustice in requiring those who had thus thrown away their rights to reclaim them by the ordinary course of naturalization. The more difficult question is, whether Congress has not already restored all these men by the passage of the civil rights act. That statute declares all persons to be citizens of the United States who, being born within their limits, were not, at the time of its enactment, subjects of any foreign power. The "Confederate States" having ceased to exist in any form, even as a belligerent, long before the passage of the civil rights bill, it is plain that the Southern people come within its terms. Nevertheless, under the well-known rule of law that such general expressions in a statute are not to be literally construed so as to extend to cases not contemplated by the legislature (People *v.* Utica Ins. Co., 15 Johns. 358; Jackson *v.* Collins, 3 Cow. 89; 1 Kent Com. 462), it may be doubted whether the civil rights law has so broad an effect. If it has, then deserters from the army have regained their citizenship, of which they were deprived by law without any pardoning process.

The great defect of Mr. Stevens's scheme is that it is not self-operative. We suggest to him that it would be well to provide unconditionally for the election of conventions under his bill, instead of leaving it to the late rebels to say whether they shall or shall not be called. Congress did not make the restoration of the Federal control over these States to depend upon the will of the rebels. Why should it give them an option as to the restoration of local government? The Constitution is peremptory in requiring Congress to guarantee a republican government to every State, and does not make this duty dependent upon the wishes of the State itself. Even if a majority in Rhode Island preferred a monarchical form of government, Congress could not tolerate it; nor would it fulfil its duty by simply shutting Rhode Island out of the Capitol until it was disposed to accept a republican government. Congress is bound to set the machinery of government in motion, wherever it has been stopped, without asking leave from any subordinate power. Especially has it no right to make the performance of its duty dependent upon the choice of a body illegally constituted and destitute of any lawful authority.

Of course, this proposition of Mr. Stevens has drawn abundant denunciation upon him. The Albany *Evening Journal* is especially severe in its expressions. It may have to recant these, as it has recanted others of its hastily formed judgments. The measure is really more moderate and fair than could have been expected from its author. It approaches nearer to a permanent solution of the problem which has so long tasked the wisdom of our rulers, than any proposition now pending; and our only fear is that Congress will not have the courage to take it up, modify it in detail, and pass it over the usual veto.

PARDONS AND MORALITY.

The wholesale way in which the President and many governors have of late been pardoning criminals, and the efforts which are now being made in this city by some of its most prominent professional and commercial men to procure the release of one of its most notorious offenders, before he has suffered the fifth part of a very light sentence, prove either that the public horror of crime is diminishing, or that some very extraordinary delusions with regard to the nature and object of legal punishment are gaining ground. We do not attach much importance to the fact that worthy clergymen and worthy merchants are found in abundance to attach their signatures to petitions for the pardon of anybody who has strong social claims on their sympathy. A man must be made of sterner stuff than most of us can boast to tell his friend or his parishioner that he will do nothing to aid him in restoring to his home a son or brother who has, in a fatal moment, broken the law, and for whose sincere and hearty repentance a troop of agonized relatives stand ready to vouch. The very same reason which renders it so difficult for many excellent persons to resist an application

to sign a petition for pardon in such cases, renders it a thankless and ungenerous task for the press to criticise their course. And we should, perhaps, hesitate about criticising if the movement to which we allude were frankly and openly based on the claims of private friendship. To any clergyman or merchant who says candidly he wants this young man's release because he was his friend or the friend of his family, there is little to be said. Something must be forgiven to personal sympathy or affection. But the pardon of which we are now speaking is sought by great numbers on whom the criminal had no personal claims whatever; the petition has been so numerously and respectably signed as to make the arguments by which it is supported and by which persons are induced to affix their names to it, wear the appearance of an expression of the general sentiment, and these arguments we hold to be opposed to all sound notions of legal and moral responsibility, and of the object of legal punishment, and so well calculated to blunt the moral perceptions of the young, and ignorant, and poor, that we cannot but ask the public to stamp them with its hearty reprobation.

That a criminal is reformed is not of itself a good reason for releasing him from prison before his sentence has expired, even if there were any infallible signs by which the reality of the reformation could be ascertained, because this is not the principal object of his imprisonment. The main object of putting him in jail is to prevent others, who are exposed to like temptations with him, from committing like crimes, and, of course, nobody would be deterred from committing crimes by sentences which are not carried out. If prisons are merely reformatories, let us say so frankly, treat the unfortunates who are sent there with respect, and liberate all who behave well for a few months. In the present instance it is proposed to single out one criminal, treat his imprisonment as merely a sort of *retraite* to give him leisure for repentance, take his own professions of sorrow as proof of his reformation, and turn him loose, leaving his poorer and more friendless companions behind to weep, and pray, and petition in vain. We say deliberately that any clergyman or merchant who uses his influence to secure the pardon of a rich and well-connected criminal on the ground of his reformation, is bound to extend the same assistance to all others similarly situated. In God's eyes the repentance of the meanest and poorest prisoner in Sing Sing is just as sacred, and is just as expiatory, as that of Edgar Ketchum, and if earthly justice is, like Divine justice, to be satisfied with repentance, it must, like it also, be no respecter of persons. There are, no doubt, in the State prison at this moment dozens whose horror of their own transgressions is just as sincere as Ketchum's, and if this constitutes a fair claim for pardon, it would be monstrous for the governor to grant it to him without granting it to them also, and it is, let us add, monstrous for intelligent and patriotic men to ask it for him. No greater calamity can befall any country, and above all a country like ours, than the creation of one law for the rich and another for the poor, and if the strongest social and political influences are used to procure the remission of a rich man's sentence, on grounds which poor criminals might urge with equal force, but would urge in vain, the sentence itself is a mockery and a snare. Nobody is taken in, and nobody reassured, by the pomp and circumstance and solemnity of the trial; the real test of equality before the law is to be found in the manner in which the condemnation is carried out.

The terror of punishment lies in its certainty. Neither hanging nor breaking on the wheel has been found to produce much impression on the evil-minded if there was no certainty of the punishment being inflicted. This has been the experience of nearly all countries. Make your punishments sure, and you may diminish them by one-half. Make detection rare, convictions difficult, and pardons frequent, and crime is sure to increase. This is precisely what we are doing, and crime *is* on the increase amongst us. Our courts and police are daily falling into greater contempt. The revelations just made by the New York Prison Association of the state of things which prevails in the central parts of this State read like a chapter from the records of Italian brigandage. In England out of 100 indicted 75 are convicted; with us, 25. In this city, owing to the rapid increase of speculation and the spirit of gambling by which the commercial community is every year more and more pervaded, and the frightful eagerness of the race for wealth, defalcations and breaches of trust are becoming more and more numerous, and the impunity which attends them greater and greater, and the condition of our courts and the condition of our public sentiment are revealed by the general belief that, when a wealthy offender or an offender with wealthy connections is caught in the meshes of the law, he will escape somehow, and that even-handed justice will not be done.

Moreover, the indications of repentance and reformation in criminals are very delusive. There is but one man in a thousand competent to judge of their genuineness. The way in which chaplains and philanthropists are imposed on every year by sham penitents is amongst the saddest revelations of prison life. Every man is, of course, sorry after he finds himself in the State prison for doing the thing that brought him there, and the better the position he has lost by his crime, the heartier his grief is likely to be. This is doubtless good, as far as it goes. It is the lowest form of repentance; but it is, nevertheless, the basis on which the highest form of repentance must rest—that repentance which is dictated not by the prison dress, or the hard bed, or the coarse fare, or the remembrance of the champagne, green peas, and ice cream of other days, but by sincere and hearty detestation of his crime as an injury to society and a sin against God. But this last kind of repentance we hold to be the only kind which entitles a criminal to have the prison doors thrown open to him, and its sincerity is to be ascertained not by a few months of decent behavior—nothing can be easier than this to a man brought up decently—nor yet by lip protestations, but by long years of self-denial, of uprightness, and fidelity. It may be often hard that a proof so severe as this should be exacted, but we hold that the highest interests of society demand that every young man should know and see that flagrant departures from the paths of honesty can only be atoned for in this way; that, as the offence is heinous, the labor of expiation has to be tremendous. There seems, if we are to judge by the efforts which are made to secure the escape of educated criminals, by men whom we cannot suspect of indifference to the moral results of their acts, to be a vague belief prevalent amongst us that education and social position diminish instead of increasing moral and legal responsibility—that crimes committed by a man on whose training society has lavished all its resources, and whom Providence has raised far above want, is somehow less heinous than crimes committed by people to whom all light has been denied, and whose life has been one long struggle with the sharpest temptation. If there be a doctrine to which the devil can fairly lay claim, and the spread of which might well make society tremble, it is certainly this one, and yet every name which is put to a petition for the pardon of well-bred offenders lends it, at least, indirect sanction.

CONCERNING DISINFECTANTS.

[SECOND ARTICLE.]

A GLANCE at the history of our knowledge of the action and value of the porous disinfectants reveals a remarkable medley of information concerning practices which have originated perhaps almost as much in instinct as in reason. Most of the carnivorous animals bury their excrements; the Jews were enjoined to do likewise during the pilgrimage from Egypt (Deuteronomy xxiii. 13); and one of the most recent among the sanitary inventions which have been brought forward in England is little more than an adaptation and enlargement of the same idea. In place of the fixtures of the usual water-closet, a somewhat larger set of pipes, suitable for the transmission of powdered earth, instead of water, are provided, and connected with a reservoir of dry earth above. Upon opening a valve, this earth will flow down precisely as if it were water, and will finally pass into another large reservoir below, whence it can be removed from time to time, as occasion may require. The value of this system, as a substitute for the ordinary water-closet in localities where water is scarce, is self-evident. It may safely be predicted that it will speedily come into use in the inland districts of this country as well as of England.

Again, many of the carnivora, dogs and foxes for example, preserve their surplus stores of food by covering them with earth, and it is recorded that the meat of certain offensive animals is sometimes rendered fit for the use of man by a similar method. The method of purification by burial of garments upon which the fetor of the skunk has fallen, is an inheritance which has come down to our suburban friends from the American Indians. The sweetening of water by charcoal, and the charring of the interior of ships' casks to this end, are very ancient practices, though it is only since the publication of Stenhouse's researches that the purifying power of charcoal has been utilized in a general and methodical way. The habit of placing pan

of recently ignited, powdered charcoal in the wards of hospitals, and in other apartments pervaded with foul effluvia, is one which has been but recently acquired. So, too, with the use of charcoal respirators, and of charcoal air-filters for drains. These filters, by the way, have been employed upon the large scale for ventilating sewers in several European cities. Sieves filled with small fragments of charcoal are placed across the air-vents of the sewer, and the offensive gases are absorbed and destroyed by the charcoal, as the current of air from below passes out into the atmosphere. There appears to be, practically, no limit to the oxidizing action of the charcoal; or, in other words, to the endurance of these air-filters, provided only they be kept dry.

The efficiency of charcoal as a disinfectant is well shown by the common laboratory experiment, in which the carcass of some small animal, as a rat, is placed in a shallow vessel of basket-work and surrounded to the depth of an inch or two with powdered bone-black. Under these circumstances the flesh of the animal will gradually waste away and be consumed, but there will be neither foul smell nor noxious exhalations. After a time it will be found that all putrescible portions of the animal have disappeared, and that nothing is left but a mass of hair and bones. The only odor which can be detected while this process of decay is going on is that of ammonia gas—a wholesome smell to which there is no objection. If it were thought desirable, the ammonia could easily be absorbed by an acid and all odor be thus prevented. In all these cases the purifying action depends upon oxidation, upon the burning up of the offensive gases as fast as they are formed. Neither charcoal nor earth should be regarded as preservatives proper to prevent decay, but as true disinfectants or destroyers of infectious matter.

Another popular belief, the grounds of which have never yet been fully explained, is in the efficacy of smoke as a purifying agent. That this belief is wide-spread was shown by the discussions which arose a few years since, just before the passage of the bill which has compelled the manufacturing establishments of London to burn up the smoke of their furnace fires in lieu of throwing it into the air. There was at that time no end to protestations against the law, on the plea that pestilences would thenceforth have full swing, and that the mortality of the city would assuredly increase. It does not as yet appear that either of these predictions has been in any sense fulfilled in consequence of the very partial relief from smoke which has latterly been accorded to London. But the prejudice in favor of smoke is after all not altogether devoid of scientific support. The black, floating particles, the flakes of soot, which are so annoying in English cities and some of our Western, are really pieces of charcoal, as well capable of absorbing and destroying infectious matter as any of the other varieties of charcoal. It is believed by some that there is produced as one of the results of every process of combustion a certain portion of one or both of the active modifications of oxygen, which would of course act as powerful disinfecting agents. Moreover, there are evolved during the combustion of many substances large quantities of terebinthine or tarry matter, which would be as valuable as tar for purifying purposes. The practice of burning incense in churches, which appears to have been originally adopted for the purpose of concealing the stench of crowds or the unpleasant odors attendant upon sacrificial and burial rites, was in this view really something more than a mere cloak to mask offensive smells. When frankincense and the other gum-resins are burned, there are evolved large quantities of quasi-volatile matter, analogous to tar or turpentine, and there can be little question as to the efficiency as disinfectants of these so-called perfumes.

Special sorts of smoke have had their advocates. The sulphurous fumes which arise from smelting houses in the course of certain metallurgical operations have often been lauded. The distinguished Professor Breithaupt, of Freiberg, came forward as their champion so long ago as 1831. In one of the scientific journals of the period he published an elaborate plan for protecting cities against the cholera by means of smoke charged with sulphurous acid. His proposition was, that large fires should be kept burning in all the public squares, and that iron pyrites should be thrown upon these as often as might be necessary in order to keep the atmosphere of the city charged with sulphurous fumes. To most men this remedy would certainly seem to be far worse than the disease. In simple justice, then, to the worthy professor, there should be quoted from his memoir enough to exhibit the drift of its argument: "It is a fact well known to metallurgists that those persons who dwell in the immediate vicinity of smelt works, in which the sulphides of silver, lead, or copper are reduced to the metallic state, are remarkably exempt from the attacks of contagious disease. As regards the smelting houses at Freiberg, this is already sufficiently well known. At Fahlun, in Sweden, another city surrounded by smelt-works, no epidemic has ever prevailed. It has been shown, moreover, that, when the yellow fever visited Andalusia, the district of Riotinto, near Seville, where copper-smelting is practised, remained entirely free from the contagion, and afforded a safe asylum to the soldiers who were transferred thither." From these premises Professor Breithaupt naturally enough infers that the gases evolved during the roasting and smelting of sulphurated ores are efficient disinfecting agents. It does not appear that his view has ever been disproved. On the contrary, only a few months have passed since the French Academy was invited to bear witness to the merit of a plan similar in principle to that of Breithaupt, and dependent upon the same train of reasoning. It is known, for the rest, that sulphurous acid is a powerful disinfecting agent, though the mode of its action is not very well understood.

Classifying roughly, it may be said that there are three general methods of disinfection. In the first place there are agents which destroy by simple *dédoublement*, or demolition. Heat, for example, may often act in this way, and there are few more convenient methods of purifying infected clothing than the common processes of boiling or baking. Then there are agents which destroy chemically, by oxidation, and it is in this class that most of the approved disinfectants must be included. The ozone producers, such as phosphorus and the permanganates; chlorine, bromine, iodine, and their compounds; nitrous and nitric acids, and the nitrates of the heavy metals, all fall into this category. Charcoal and similar porous substances must be placed in the same list, as has been already stated. Next come the simple antiseptics or arresters of decay. In this list may be placed extreme cold, tannic acid, and various metallic salts, as of mercury, copper, and zinc. The applicability of the members of this class is by no means so general as that of most of the substances previously mentioned, since their field of action is of comparatively limited extent. Several of the chemical agents comprised in this class appear to act simply by combining with organic substances so as to form imputrescible compounds. Finally, some of the most efficient agents of all are those which, like tar and turpentine, act both by virtue of antiseptic and of oxidizing power.

THE COOPER UNION.

An evening walk up Broadway and the Bowery may, perhaps, do as much to dishearten a student of human nature and a believer in human perfectibility as to cheer him. But if his walk on the evening of Wednesday last led any such student into the Cooper Institute he very likely came away full of encouragement and reasonable hope. We are speaking now not of the lower floor of that building on the night in question, where Mr. Greeley was addressing a great audience in favor of our excise law; but of the upper rooms, where a smaller meeting was perhaps doing something more, and perhaps doing it in a better way, to put down vice and ignorance and their consequent degradation. The Cooper Union for the Advancement of Science and Art was holding its seventh annual meeting, and the friends and relatives of the pupils were present to see what had been done during the year.

If the visitor was in no hurry to get into the exhibition rooms, he might stop by the way and wait awhile in the library, saving himself from the wear and tear of temper, and not impossible loss of it, incident to climbing crowded stairways and squeezing along entries with ladies' dresses just under his feet. The reading-room is not very well lined with books, but the stands for magazines and files of newspapers seem exceedingly well supplied. The room is lofty and spacious, and needs be large, for it is free to all the city. And apparently to all papers as well as to all men. The *Jewish Messenger* is there not far from *The Advent Herald;* the *Metropolitan Record* is taken, and there are three copies of the *Tribune* always on hand and one of the *Anti-Slavery Standard;* the *Saturday Review*, the *Spectator*, the *Banner of Light*, the *Builder*, the *Billiard Cue*, the *Economist*, *Frank Leslie's Lady's Magazine*, all find readers, and for those who cannot read English there are journals in French and German and Italian. In the first year of its existence this reading-room was visited by more than two hundred thousand people; the number benefited by it in this seventh year we are not able to report, but probably it exceeds a quarter of a million. The room, as we have said, is absolutely free; everybody is made welcome who is willing to take his hat off and behave with propriety while he reads his paper. It is meant for poor men's use and pleasure. Going up-stairs after awhile, one finds in the appearance of the throng of visitors indications that the character of the schools is like that of the library. The audience is not altogether exclusive, but a little mixed; there is a sprinkling of unfashionable bonnets among the French chips; some of the delighted elderly couples whom a pupil leads over to a particular specimen of wood engraving, or a colored photograph, or crayon drawing, are evidently people not rich. Dr. Holmes's young man John who, Dr. Holmes has noticed, sets the right elbow joint of his young woman in the hollow of his left arm, and so convoys her to places of public amusement, is to be seen doing pretty much the same

thing here, wearing his hat the while, and he, after the young lady has said, That's mine, may be heard enquiring, Hay? view of Ajax drawn from a cast? what's the idea? And, a pleasanter sight still, in the rooms where are kept the specimens of mechanical drawing—screws, steam-engines, cog-wheels, with accompanying figures of preliminary cycloids and epicycloids—there is more than one man who looks like a mechanic, thirty-five or forty years old, perhaps, who finds his own name, and exhibits such a locomotive, or such a bridge, or a book full of the figures of trigonometry or analytical geometry to admiring women that look like mechanics' wives, or men who look like fellow-workmen.

Till eleven o'clock the crowd, pupils and teachers and friends, walks round and round in the gallery, looking up at the pictures on the wall and down over the rails into the reading-room below, where the band is playing. Then the building is closed and everybody goes home, voting the annual exhibition very good indeed.

Of course, at such a gathering it was easier to get hints than definite knowledge as to the measure of success which has attended the founder's benevolent efforts. What his plan was and how long it was cherished is generally known. He himself had suffered from the deficiencies of his early education. By chance he learned that in Paris the poorest boys could receive a gratuitous course of instruction in the Polytechnic School, and he at once resolved to give a free polytechnic school to the youth of New York. Thirty years afterwards he found himself wealthy enough to carry his intention into effect, and erected the Cooper Institute building, which, a gift to the public of six hundred and thirty thousand dollars, he two years ago gave wholly into the hands of an incorporated board of trustees, by whom the property is henceforth to be held. Its income in rents is about thirty thousand dollars, the expenses of the schools are rather less than that sum, so that the first requisite of a respectable institution the Institute now possesses—it pays its way. The schools already established are of two kinds. There is the School of Science and Art for Men, which holds its sessions at night, and gives instruction in natural philosophy, chemistry, and a very complete course of study in mathematics. In conjunction with this mathematical course there is instruction in drawing from life and from copy, in perspective, and in architectural and mechanical drawing. The pupil in this school must be sixteen years old, of respectable character, and have a tolerable knowledge of the rudiments of an English education. At the end of five academical years, which would be at the end of two years and a half of time, he is graduated. Not many, it is found, persevere to the end of so severe a course of study; but the number of those who enter upon it and pursue it far enough to derive no inconsiderable advantage from it is very large. There have been sixteen hundred scholars during the year just closed. The graduates are only four.

The other important school is the School of Design for Women. All who will may enter, and no one is afterwards turned out who shows an aptitude for any branch of drawing, or for painting, or can be taught to color photographs, to engrave upon wood or copper, to design patterns for printed goods and for manufactured wares of any kind. Young ladies are prepared for the teaching of these branches, and another class is composed of pupils who wish to apply their knowledge of art to practical uses. Then there are some who are called amateurs, and these are required to pay for their tuition. This is a day school, and its pupils number between two and three hundred, of whom nearly half are young ladies fitting themselves for teachers.

To speak in criticism of the literary and debating society, with its professor of oratory and debate, would be ungraciously looking a gift-horse in the mouth; we say nothing about it nor about the music class, except that both are popular, and the latter is probably useful to the young ladies just spoken of, who, being school-teachers, are bound to know something of everything. The library, with its six or seven hundred daily visitors, can be mentioned only with praise, doing, as it does, so much to form and foster and gratify that taste which to so many young men in great cities has been their best defence and preservative from vicious excesses, and which, one may venture to say, has been to all Christendom, in these last three centuries, the fountain of more and more innocent pleasure than has been drawn from any human source beside. The greatest excellence and usefulness which it is hoped and expected the schools will some time attain they have not attained as yet. They have given to some dozen or so of poor men such a mathematical education as puts them above all our graduates of American colleges except the few first men of each year. And the pupil of the institute gets a passably good course of chemistry and is well instructed in the application of mathematics to mechanical and architectural drawing.

But, besides these benefits conferred upon a dozen men whose ability and patient desire of improvement have led them through five laborious years of night schooling, there are the benefits conferred on more than a dozen hundreds of young men who, for three months, or six months, or a year, have attended some of the recitations and lectures, or had a few drawing lessons, and have carried away more or less knowledge of trigonometry, or algebra, or chemistry, which otherwise they would never have possessed. Probably it is only a smattering of learning that most of them get. Most of them are not students well trained, and while they study are also busy earning a livelihood. For various reasons, about six hundred out of every sixteen hundred drop off at the end of each term. Many, too, only want a little special knowledge on some particular subject, as, for instance, those thirty turners and carvers who, in 1864, took lessons in free-hand drawing and in nothing else, or those machinists of whom, while four studied free-hand and two architectural drawing, no less than one hundred and twenty-eight took up mechanical drawing. Thus the sip of the Pierian spring may have a considerable practical value. But, for that matter, smattering seems to be, nowadays, not so contemptuously thought of as formerly. To drink deep, speaking relatively, is now altogether impossible, the volume, if not the depth, of the waters is so vastly increased, and the men of science bore us so many wells. Only a very great donkey could hope to drink up all. So, since in the case of any single one it is only a taste which is possible, to take a taste of each seems wise, and about its being pleasant there are not two opinions.

If, then, this magnificent gift to the city may need much improvement as a polytechnic school, the city will no less be willing to return its gratitude for the great work which the Institute performs in making better educated and better and happier a great number of the citizens. Thus, after all, it strikes more closely at the root of those difficulties and evils of the social system on whose removal the benevolent giver's heart is set, than if it more fully and successfully carried out his specific plan. In this aspect of it none of the special departments will be looked upon with more interest than the Women's School of Design. The display at the exhibition of patterns in various kinds of manufacturing arts, of specimens of engraving on wood and copper, of portrait coloring, of ornamental lettering, was not a very large one, but it was large enough to show that one of the most important and importunate social problems—how to get not decent wages, but decent work at any sort of wages, for a very helpless class of laborers whose number increases—a problem which society is beginning to discuss earnestly, this school is beginning to find a practical solution for. It is a field of usefulness which may and will be cultivated more extensively, and everybody will hope that the school may before very long number more than two hundred and fifty female pupils and that the school mistresses may not be, as now, in a majority.

DRESDEN CHINA.

THE time spent by the tourist in Germany in an excursion to the little town of Meissen is time well spent. Not only is there to be seen along the Elbe from Dresden the finest scenery north of the Alps—the "Saxon Switzerland," it is called—but there is also at Meissen itself the highest development of the potter's art outside of the Orient, perhaps in the world, the manufactory of the famous Dresden china.

At an early hour in the morning one takes a boat at Dresden, a queer, narrow, sharp affair, such as ply in these swift, crooked streams, and in two hours reaches his destination. The boats on the Elbe are like our American canal-boats, only much longer and modelled after a pike instead of a perch. They shoot through the water at an amazing rate. As in so many other instances, here also the Germans entirely reverse the American methods, and unlade and receive passengers and freight aft instead of forward, landing with the bow out in the stream.

We are reminded here, as on all German rivers, that James Watt was an Englishman, and that England has dominion over steam as well as over water. Hear the words of command which the captain sends down through the speaking-trumpet to the engineer: "Vorwärts," "Stoppe," "Backwärts," "Halte." These are the stock forms of command, two of them German and two of them unmistakably English, learned from English engineers sent here to teach the use of the engine years ago, and handed down by constant use almost unchanged.

We meet and overtake scores of long scows heavily loaded with timber and produce, tediously propelled by poles, with the aid of occasional flurries of wind. One huge vessel ascending the stream is pulled by a rope attached to its mainmast, seventy-five feet above the water, and reaching eight hundred feet up stream. Ten men are tugging at it, each leaning heavily against a wide band that passes over one shoulder and under the other, keeping time together in a lazy swing back and forth, supporting themselves by a stick held in both hands. Put an ass in their place with a

crabbed curmudgeon for a driver, and we should have looked on the scow for Horace going to Brundusium. The spectacle is a common one.

The buildings in which the famous porcelain is made are situated in a narrow, deep valley, a hundred rods from the Elbe, and are built in the form of a quadrangle, and finely stuccoed. You register your name not far beneath that of George B. McClellan, and pay thirty cents admission fee, which procures you a guide who speaks indifferent English.

The porcelain earth is found in mines near Meissen, and is called kaolin. It is of dingy white color, and contains seventy-five per cent. of sand, which has all to be washed out. The earth is mixed with water and passes through numerous vats, sieves, and troughs in which the sand is precipitated, the water containing the pure earth in solution being drained off, and the earth settling to the bottom. It is then packed in small sacks and slightly pressed until it hardens somewhat, when the sacks are removed and the lumps thrown into large boxes, where they must remain six months. It is then ready to be mixed with the other ingredients. These are a pure quality of quartz from Bohemia and feldspar from Norway, which are ground many times under water to reduce them to perfect fineness. Ask the guide in what proportions these are mixed with the earth, he gives his shoulders the peculiar German shrug, and solemnly informs you that it is a profound secret. It is the only secret in the whole process. When the doughy mass is ready to be moulded, it is singularly tough, and is of a light dun color, which disappears entirely under a white heat.

Most solid articles, such as busts, crucifixes, animals, shrubs, and leaves are cast in ordinary moulds of plaster of Paris. The minuteness of the division of the pieces is very great; for instance, to cast a statue, each arm, hand, leg, foot, and the head must be a separate casting. There are moulds accumulated in the buildings to the weight of thousands of tons. Round dishes are turned on an ordinary wheel; all other articles are moulded by hand. Lace and filigree work is made by girls, and is formed drop by drop from a pointed stick, each drop being no larger than half a pin-head. The articles are baked in pans of fire-clay, in huge ovens three stories in height. In the first baking, they are set in the second and third stories, which are brought only to a red heat; afterwards in the lower one, where the heat is white. Every baking lasts twenty-four hours. After the first baking, all the parts of the vessels that are to be blue or green are painted with preparations of cobalt and chrome green respectively. They are then dipped in the glazing, which is a thin solution of feldspar, quartz, lime, and old china ground fine. So porous is the material that in two seconds after it is out of the liquid it is dry, though a sufficient deposit has been left to conceal all the painting, which only re-appears after the second baking. Those portions of "biscuit china" which are unglazed are covered, when dipped in the liquid, with a paint which prevents the glazing from adhering, but remains colorless.

After the second baking all those vessels that are simple in their decorations and require few colors, receive their finishing coats, and are baked a third and last time. Others, more elegant and more complicated, are baked a fourth, fifth, and even sixth time, not to harden the vessel still more, but to melt the paints and allow the artist to give it additional finishing touches. All the paints are made of metals dissolved in their respective chemical solvents and applied with ordinary fine brushes. The yellow, for instance, is produced by gold which is twenty-four carats fine, made of ducats, and dissolved in the sulphate of iron. The heat of the furnace is so intense as to melt all these metals and give them a lustre, except gold and silver, which come forth dull as they entered, and are polished with agates. If the article has escaped cracking by heat, it is now finished and ready for market.

The loss from cracking is very great. Three-fifths of all the vessels are spoiled in the baking, many of them splitting in the fifth and sixth heating, after a vast amount of labor has been expended on them. This adds much to the cost of porcelain. Every piece shrinks one-fifth in heating and yet remains of the same weight throughout. All the laborers work by the piece, so that whatever is broken after the first heating they receive no pay for unless it is broken in heating.

There are over four hundred workmen employed in the establishment, among whom are a large number of girls and women. Great steadiness of nerve and accuracy of sight are required, quite incompatible with drinking habits. In every department except that where the glazing is conducted, the workmen are not exposed to injurious vapors, and consequently have good health and look fresh. At least one-fifth of them have impaired their eyes; though they do no work after night, they are obliged to use shades or glasses. The greatest quietness prevails throughout, amid perfect cheerfulness and apparent contentment. Every workman is allowed a whole window, to which he sits very close, and you will not notice a window whether belonging to man or woman, that is not filled with pot-plants or climbing vines. Every workman is first drilled three years in exercises of drawing, moulding, and a general study of forms and colors, then passes through an apprenticeship of six years, after which he proceeds by gradual promotion from the lowest to the highest grade in his department. Promotions are not made from one department to another, each one giving his exclusive attention from first to last either to painting, moulding, or baking. Even the best artists get no more than seventy-five thalers per month (about the same number of dollars in our present currency). There are painters here whose talent is manifestly of a high order. Passing through their rooms we see the walls hung with classical engravings, and scattered about are portfolios of the same, from Italy, from France, from all parts of Germany, ancient and modern, and after the greatest masters, such as Raphael, Guido, Durer, Holbein, Cranach, etc. Debate with them about the proper form of Nereids, the length of Neptune's trident, the breadth of Achilles' beard, or the folds of Tully's toga, and they may put us to confusion. Their workmanship, too, bespeaks a skill of no mean sort; as every one knows who has seen the exquisite portraits and the delicate, almost gossamer, tracery of the Dresden china.

There are now in preparation, and have been for months, several magnificent vases and some representations of ancient mythology and Grecian history for the approaching World's Fair at Paris. One beautiful vase, on which one of the best artists had labored five months, perfecting a series of portraits representing a triumphal march of Alexander the Great, was broken by the heat. With indefatigable perseverance he has begun another and brought it within two perilous months of completion. In the most favorable conditions the length of time required to complete the finest work is very great. First, the clay lies in lumps, "fermenting," six months; then a fine vase will require seven weeks in which to be moulded, to which add four months for baking and painting.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday,
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THE news from London to May 23 is again unfavorable. Our securities and cotton are both lower, and further failures are taking place both in London and Liverpool. The bank, however, has not yet been compelled to take advantage of the authority to over-issue notes, and the run upon the joint stock banks has ceased.

This news is expected to affect our gold market. Since we last wrote the price has varied from 140½ to 141½. To-day at 3 P. M. the price is 143¼. Exchange continues firm at 111 for sight bills. Sixty-day bills are hard of sale at 109⅛ to 109⅝. The total specie shipment last week was $6,807,907, making $28,659,837 shipped since May 1. It is expected that shipments at the rate of three millions a week will be continued for the present—at all events throughout the current month. Notwithstanding the advance in gold, our exports of produce and merchandise continue to decline. They were only $2,260,000 last week, making $204,319,000 for the fiscal year to date—ten millions more than the export during the corresponding period of 1864–5. On the other hand, our importations of foreign goods continue heavy. Last week they were $7,868,323, which, added to previous reports, gives $282,371,751 for the eleven months ending June 1, an increase of $134,770,276 over the corresponding period of 1864–5. The heavy cotton exports from the Southern ports will, of course, go far toward squaring the account.

Money is again very easy. The Sub-Treasury at this point paid off a large number of debt certificates last week, and thus reduced its balance some $28,000,000, by which sum the banks are the gainers. On Saturday money was freely offered at 6 per cent. to the brokers, and in some instances call loans were made as low as 6 per cent. on Governments.

The stock market continues excited and variable, the chief interest centering in Erie shares. On Saturday morning they were done as high as 63. Since then they have been down to 60. The New York Central clique continue to bull that stock with vigor, and steadily increase their load. It is understood that Commodore Vanderbilt, who for some years has been the heaviest holder of Central, has sold out his stock. Reading has fallen off on sales by the clique to realize profits. Nothing further has transpired with regard to the promised June dividend. Hudson River is firm but neglected. The party in Michigan Southern has not yet succeeded either in inducing the bulls to buy or the bears to sell; the price remains steady. Cleveland and Pittsburgh, after its sudden fall of 16 per cent. in one day, has remained pretty steady. The clique are planning a new combination by which they hope to succeed in selling their stock. Among the lighter fancies, Boston Water Power has been active at a material advance. The upward movement in Canton and Quicksilver appears to have exhausted itself. Governments are generally steady, though on the arrival of each steamer five-twenties give way somewhat.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange and money markets since our last issue:

	May 28.	May 31.	June 4.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	109	109¼	105¾ ex.int.	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102	102	102	....	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	102⅛	102	....	⅛
10-40 Bonds	95¾	95⅞	96	....	⅛
7.30 Notes, second series	102	102⅜	102⅛	....	⅛
New York Central	96	98	98½	½	....
Erie Railway	62½	60⅛	62½	2	....
Hudson River	113⅝	113	110¾	....	2¼
Reading Railroad	111⅛	109¾	108⅝	....	1¼
Michigan Southern	78¾	81	80¼	¾	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	93	84	85	1	....
Chicago and North-western	28	28⅜	28¼	....	⅛
" " " Preferred	58½	58	58¾	¼	....
Chicago and Rock Island	93⅛	94	93	....	1
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	98	97⅞	96¾	....	1⅛
Canton	59	59¾	60	¼	....
Cumberland	45⅛	45	45¼	¼	....
Mariposa	12	12	12⅛	⅛	....
American Gold	137⅛	139⅞	143¼	3⅛	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109¾	109⅛	109⅛	....	....
Call Loans	7	6	6	....	....

Some attention has lately been directed to the subject of brokers' taxes. By the revenue law, brokers are required to pay a tax of $5 on every 100 shares of stock sold by them for customers. A question arose whether they were liable for the same tax when they sold not for customers, but for themselves. The U. S. Court in Circuit decided that they were not. On appeal, the Supreme Court decided that brokers and bankers doing business as brokers were liable for the tax on sales made for their own account as well as on sales made for account of others, but that bankers doing business exclusively for themselves, and not as brokers for others, were not liable for the tax. So absurd a decision has naturally provoked comment, and the Commissioner of Internal Revenue has, for the present, suspended action on the subject. As the internal revenue law is construed, every broker is obliged to take out a license as a banker. Every one in Wall Street, in fact, is a banker. To evade the tax, therefore, all that a speculator requires is to take out a banker's license and to decline orders on commission. On these terms, under the decision of the Supreme Court, he pays no tax. Thus, at least one-half the sales of stocks made in Wall Street pay nothing to Government. The new law will remedy the evil. Under the bill reported by the House of Representatives, the tax is levied not on the sale but on the delivery of the stocks sold, and, instead of being $5—which was so heavy a tax that it tempted rogues to cheat the Government—it is only $1, which everybody will pay willingly. It is hardly necessary to say that the articles in the *Herald* on this subject are based on such profound ignorance of the question in all its bearings and inspired by such petty malice that they have naturally been treated with contemptuous silence by the parties concerned.

The Erie Railway Company have again escaped bankruptcy by borrowing $3,000,000 of their leading director to pay off pressing liabilities. This will give the concern a respite of one to one and a half years. By New Year 1868 it will again be in desperate circumstances, and the receivership now averted will then probably become unavoidable. The great difficulty with this company has existed from the start; it has been milked dry by parasites and hangers-on, so that it has never, in twenty years, had a dollar which it could fairly call its own. Express companies running over its road have earned 25 to 40 per cent. dividends. Its directors have grown rich. Contractors on the line have grown rich. Ticket and freight agents have grown rich. Nay, even conductors and superintendents of shops and repairs have grown rich. Everybody has fattened except the company, which has grown poorer and poorer every year. It is not too much to say that the road has never earned a dividend since it was first built. Many dividends have been paid; but while the directors paid out money to stockholders with one hand, they borrowed money at ruinous rates with the other. Whatever trifle of profit may have been earned in good years like 1865 was swallowed up by losses on bad years. And it must be remembered that the leeches which have always fed on the Erie Railway have insisted on their meal in hard as in flush times. There was as much leakage in 1858 as in 1865. To make money with a concern representing a capital of nearly $60,000,000 (including losses), especially when the road has many curves, many steep grades, and much track through a sparsely settled country, requires good management and a thorough watchfulness over employees. These the Erie Railway has never had. From first to last its employees have been pecuniarily interested in express companies, which have sucked the life-blood of the concern. Leading officers of the Erie are also the principal owners of the stock of the express companies. And as to a general and thorough system of accountability, the company has never had such. So loosely has the business been transacted under each successive president that the wonder is that the company saved anything out of the general scramble. We confess that we see no chance of any immediate reform. A lower depth for the stock must be found before men of capital will venture to embark their means in the work of cleansing so Augean a stable. There is capacity in this country adequate to the proper management of even so great a concern as the Erie Railway with $60,000,000 of capital; but it will not be called forth until the concern sinks even lower in public esteem than at present, and until the stockholders become aroused to the prospect of an absolute forfeiture of their property.

LIFE AND ACCIDENTS.

THE NATIONAL LIFE

AND

TRAVELLERS' INSURANCE CO.,

243 BROADWAY, NEW YORK,

EDWARD A. JONES, PRESIDENT,

Issues

LIFE POLICIES ON THE PURELY MUTUAL PLAN,

And Ensures Against

ACCIDENTS OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

It issues two kinds of travelers' tickets, one covering only accidents to the vehicle, and the other every kind of accident. Both pay a weekly compensation in case of accident causing total disability.

Travelling Accidents—For 24 hours, 10 cents for $3,000, with $15 per week compensation.

General Accidents—For 24 hours, 25 cents for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

General Accidents—Yearly Policy, $25 for $5,000, with $25 per week compensation.

WM. E. PRINCE, Vice-President.
A. S. MILLS, Secretary.
T. B. VAN BUREN, Treasurer.

S. TEATS, M.D., Medical Examiner.
J. F. ENTZ, Consulting Actuary.

PACIFIC

MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,

TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - - - - $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,330
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,244

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.

THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

FIRST CLASS FIRE INSURANCE

ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

MARKET FIRE INSURANCE COMPANY,

37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS		$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00	
Temporary Loans	92,630 00	
Real Estate	10,000 00	
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00	
Government Sec., value	144,514 00	
Cash on hand	18,042 34	
Interest due	3,085 58	
Premiums due	6,785 26	
PRESENT LIABILITIES		$15,995
NET SURPLUS		198,733 26

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against

DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

NOTE.—This Company does not insure on the hazards of RIVER, LAKE, or INLAND NAVIGATION; confining itself strictly to a legitimate FIRE INSURANCE BUSINESS.

ASHER TAYLOR, President.
H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

OFFICE OF THE ATLANTIC MUTUAL INSURANCE CO.,
New York, January 27, 1866.

The Trustees, in conformity to the Charter of the Company, submit the following

Statement of its Affairs on the 31st December, 1865:

Premiums received on Marine Risks from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,933,146 80
Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1865		2,019,324 73
Total amount of Marine Premiums		$8,952,471 53
No Policies have been issued upon Life Risks, nor upon Fire Risks disconnected with Marine Risks.		
Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1865, to 31st December, 1865		$6,764,146 38
Losses paid during the same period	$3,659,178 45	
Returns of Premiums and Expenses	$992,341 44	
The Company has the following Assets, viz.:		
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank, and other Stocks		$4,828,585 00
Loans secured by Stocks and otherwise		3,330,350 00
Real Estate and Bonds and Mortgages		221,260 00
Dividends on Stocks, Interest on Bonds and Mortgages and other Loans, sundry notes, re-insurance, and other claims due the Company, estimated at		144,964 43
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable		3,283,801 96
Cash in Bank, Coin		80,462 00
" " U. S. Treasury Note Currency		310,551 78
Total Amount of Assets		$12,199,975 17

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next.

Fifty per cent. of the outstanding certificates of the issue of 1864 will be redeemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the Sixth of February next, from which date interest on the amount so redeemable will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment, and cancelled to the extent paid.

A dividend of Thirty-Five per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending the 31st December, 1865, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the Third of April next.

By order of the Board, J. H. CHAPMAN, Secretary.

TRUSTEES.

John D. Jones,	William E. Dodge,	Cornelius Grinnell,
Charles Dennis,	Geo. G. Hobson,	C. A. Hand,
W. H. H. Moore,	David Lane,	B. J. Howland,
Henry Coit,	James Bryce,	Benj. Babcock,
Wm. C. Pickersgill,	Leroy M. Wiley,	Fletcher Westray,
Lewis Curtis,	Daniel S. Miller,	Robt. B. Minturn, Jr.,
Charles H. Russell,	Wm. Sturgis,	Gordon W. Burnham,
Lowell Holbrook,	Henry K. Bogert,	Frederick Chauncey,
R. Warren Weston,	Joshua J. Henry,	James Low,
Royal Phelps,	Dennis Perkins,	George S. Stephenson.
Caleb Barstow,	Joseph Gaillard, Jr.,	William H. Webb.
A. P. Pillot,	J. Henry Burgy,	

JOHN D. JONES, President.
CHARLES DENNIS, Vice-President.
W. H. H. MOORE, 2d Vice-Pres't.
J. D. HEWLETT, 3d Vice-President.

ÆTNA INSURANCE COMPANY,

OF HARTFORD.

Capital, - - - - - - - - - - **$3,000,000**

Incorporated in 1816.

LOSSES PAID IN 46 YEARS, $17,485,894 71

J. GOODNOW, Secretary. L. J. HENDEE, President.

Assets January 1, 1866, - - - - **$4,067,455 80**

Claims not due and unadjusted, 244,391 43

Persons desiring ample security against loss and damage by fire may obtain policies at fair rates.

NEW YORK AGENCY, No. 62 WALL STREET.

Losses promptly adjusted and paid by JAS. A. ALEXANDER, Agent.

PHENIX INSURANCE COMPANY,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.

OFFICES, 1 COURT STREET, BROOKLYN, N. Y.
" 139 BROADWAY, NEW YORK.

CASH CAPITAL	$1,000,000 00
ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

STEPHEN CROWELL, President. EDGAR W. CROWELL, Vice-President

PHILANDER SHAW, Secretary.

THE FOURTH NATIONAL BANK

HAVE REMOVED TO THEIR NEW

BANKING ROOM,

NASSAU STREET, NORTHEAST CORNER OF PINE STREET,

Opposite United States Treasury.

GOVERNMENT SECURITIES

At all times on hand at lowest prices.

Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

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BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

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Celebrated Gold Medal

GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT

PIANOS.

These instruments have been for thirty years before the public, in competition with other instruments of first class makers. They have, throughout that long period, maintained their reputation among the profession and the public as being unsurpassed in every quality found in a first-class Piano.

650 BROADWAY,

AND

CROSBY'S OPERA HOUSE, CHICAGO, ILL.

J. BAUER & CO., Agents.

Bradbury's Pianos "the Best."

Pronounced "THE BEST" by the most renowned artists "SUPERIOR in tone, touch, power, DURABILITY, and elegance of finish." Warerooms 425 and 427 Broome Street, corner of Crosby. Call or send for circular.

WM. B. BRADBURY.

Improvements in Piano-fortes.

One of the simplest and most truly valuable improvements yet made in the Piano-forte is that invented and patented by

DECKER BROTHERS, 91 BLEECKER STREET,

in this city. By correcting the only imperfections arising from the use of the full iron-plate, and that, too, by not detracting in the slightest degree from its many positive advantages, the Messrs. DECKER have developed in their instruments a tone at once admirable for its purity, fulness, prolongation, and sweetness, and the high estimation in which their improvement is held is well shown in the rapidly increasing business of their firm.—*Tribune.*

Make Your Own Soap with B. T. BABBITT'S Potash, in tin cans, 70 Washington Street, New York. Pure Concentrated Pota-h or Ready Soap Maker. Warranted double the strength of common Potash, and superior to any other saponifier or lye in the market. Put up in cans of one pound, two pounds, three pounds, six pounds, and twelve pounds, with full directions in English and German for making Hard and Soft Soap. One pound will make fifteen gallons of Soft Soap. No lime is required. Consumers will find this the cheapest Potash in market.

B. T. BABBITT,

64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington St., N. Y.

MARVIN'S

PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
Manufactured only by

MARVIN & CO., 265 Broadway.

721 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia.

Send for a descriptive Circular.

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MANUFACTURER OF

DESKS

AND OFFICE FURNITURE.

107 FULTON ST., near Nassau St., N. Y.

LIBRARY AND SCHOOL FURNITURE MADE TO ORDER.

ARCHER & PANCOAST,

Manufacturers of

GAS FIXTURES,

COAL-OIL LAMPS, CHANDELIERS, ETC.,

OF EVERY DESCRIPTION.

MANUFACTORY AND WAREROOMS,

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☞ Special attention paid to the fitting up of hotels, halls, private residences, etc., etc.

Saleratus.—B. T. BABBITT'S SALERATUS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y. If you want healthy bread, use B. T. Babbitt's best medicinal Saleratus, made from common salt. Bread made with this Saleratus contains, when baked, nothing but common salt, water, and flour. B. T. BABBITT, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68, 69, 70, 72, and 74 Washington Street, N. Y.

TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., GEORGE WILKES, M.D., } Medical Examiners.
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assista t Med. Examiner.

Russell Sturgis, Jr.,

ARCHITECT,

98 Broadway, New York.

Vaux, Withers & Co.,

ARCHITECTS,

110 Broadway.

Olmsted, Vaux & Co.,

LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.

The undersigned have associated under the above title for the business of advising on matters of location, and furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
FRED'K C. WITHERS.

110 Broadway,
New York, January 1, 1866.

FLORENCE SEWING MACHINE CO.,

505 BROADWAY, N. Y.

THE BEST FAMILY MACHINE IN THE WORLD.

Wonderful REVERSIBLE FEED MOTION. SELF-ADJUSTING Tension. No Snarling and Breaking Threads. FOUR distinct Stitches.

E. REMINGTON & SONS,

MANUFACTURERS OF

REVOLVERS, RIFLES,

MUSKETS, AND CARBINES,

For the United States Service. Also,

Pocket and Belt Revolvers,

REPEATING PISTOLS,

RIFLE CANES, REVOLVING RIFLES,

Rifle and Shot Gun Barrels, and Gun Materials sold by Gun Dealers and the Trade generally.

In these days of housebreaking and robbery, every house, store, bank, and office should have one of

REMINGTONS' REVOLVERS.

Parties desiring to avail themselves of the late improvements in pistols, and superior workmanship and form, will find all combined in the new

REMINGTON REVOLVERS.

Circulars containing cuts and description of our Arms will be furnished upon application.

E. REMINGTON & SONS,
ILION, N. Y.

MOORE & NICHOLS, Agents,
40 Cortlandt Street, New York.

Light Biscuit made in fifteen minutes with T. B. BABBITT'S STAR YEAST POWDERS, 70 Washington Street, N. Y.

Estey's Cottage Organ,

With the Celebrated VOX HUMANA TREMOLO. An extraordinary instrument, far excelling all others of the class.

G. G. SAXE & CO.,
417 Broome St., N. Y.

THE BEST SEWING-MACHINES IN THE WORLD.

THE WEED MACHINES,

With all their valuable improvements, entirely overcome all imperfections. They are superior to all others for family and manufacturing purposes, simple in construction, durable in all their parts, and readily understood. They have certainty of stitch on all kinds of fabrics, and are adapted to a wide range of work without change or adjustment, using all kinds of thread. Will hem, fell, bind, gather, braid, tuck, quilt, cord, and, in fact, do all kinds of work required by families or manufacturers. We invite all persons in search of an instrument to execute any kind of sewing now done by machinery to inspect them, and recommend all parties engaging in the sale of sewing-machines to make sure they secure the best by examining the WEED before purchasing. They make the shuttle-stitch, which cannot be excelled for firmness, elasticity, durability, and elegance of finish. They have received the highest premiums in every instance where they have been exhibited in competition with other standard machines. The company being duly licensed, the machines are protected against infringements or litigation.

Reliable agents wanted, to whom we offer great inducements. Every explanation will be cheerfully given to all, whether they wish to purchase or not. Descriptive circulars, together with specimens of their work, will be furnished to all who desire them by mail or otherwise.

WEED SEWING-MACHINE CO.,

STORE, 506 BROADWAY, N. Y.

The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, THURSDAY EVENING, JUNE 7, 1866. NO. 55

J. H. RICHARDS, Publisher, 130 Nassau Street. ISSUED EVERY TUESDAY AND FRIDAY. Five Dollars per Annum Seven Cents per Copy.

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Topics of the Day.

The two senators from Wisconsin engaged in debate on Wednesday upon the question of reconstruction. Mr. Howe thought it a rather singular coincidence that Mr. Doolittle's political opinions and the political opinions which bore the highest market value were always the same. In 1856 he abandoned the Democratic party; before that he had abandoned the Free Soil party; now, in 1866, he had abandoned the Union party. These remarks, however, were explained away, if not explained; they were intended in a Pickwickian sense, as it afterwards appeared, and had as little to do with Mr. Doolittle himself as with the matter under discussion. Mr. Doolittle made such a reply as might have been expected, and stated that he had been instrumental in saving the Union party in Wisconsin last year, although now that party denounced him. But "it was not the first time men had attempted to crucify their Saviour." We have nothing to say, it is not necessary to say anything, upon the tone and language of either speaker's remarks in this little passage of arms. But Mr. Howe made one point which it is well to dissent from: Semmes, he would say, is as well qualified to be a judge in Mobile as the Mobilians are to elect a judge, which may be true in fact and yet be a poor argument on Mr. Howe's side of the question. For Semmes and other prominent rebels to fill high offices would be a great scandal, and we believe that Congressional enactments and constitutional amendments to prevent such a scandal are absolutely right, and right also because eminently politic. But to stop the machinery of local government a moment longer than is absolutely necessary is neither right nor wise. Let the right to choose be recognized and exercised, though the right to choose certain great criminals to posts in the Government which they would have destroyed be denied.

The Washington *Republican* regards it as "one of the mercies of God that a Congress utterly incompetent to finish up the work of restoration" had no opportunity to mar and mismanage the commencement of that work. Speaker Colfax, it says, after the last session neither suggested nor expected an extra session, and set out on a very long pleasure trip across the continent. To this Mr. Colfax has written a reply: he was not Speaker when he began his journey; he did expect an extra session; he spoke on the matter in April last to Mr. Johnson, who made answer that he had not then had time to think about it; at Mr. C.'s request Mr. Stanton promised, and performed the promise, to keep him informed in reference to the expected call. The letter is of interest, as showing what leading Congressmen thought probable and necessary, and because it shows also by direct assertion that Mr. Lincoln, so early as the week after the fall of Richmond, was contemplating an extra session.

The President has at last issued a proclamation against the Fenians. It has no particular value except as a warning to the "Irish Republic" that it will have to keep quiet, and as an intimation that the Government means to enforce the neutrality laws. We say this because the New York *Times* talks of the proclamation as if it were itself law, and says that since its issue Fenianism assumes a new form and is now, in consequence of the proclamation, "an insurrection against the power, authority, and majesty" of our Government. This is what it always was. The only difference the proclamation makes is that it lets Fenians know what the President thinks, which they ought to have known long ago. His liberating John Mitchel, in order that they might send him on a diplomatic mission to Paris, was perhaps as powerful a stimulus as the movement has yet received, and is but tardily atoned for by the proclamation.

On Wednesday morning last, Seguin's Point, at the southern end of Staten Island, was seized with a high hand by Mr. Schultz. He was acting for the Board of Health, the Commissioners of Emigration, and the Quarantine Commissioners, and was at the head of eighty-five policemen, who were supported by the guns of the United States revenue cutter *Cayuga*. On two occasions previously the Staten Islanders have risen in mobs and destroyed quarantine buildings, and this time they met the invading police with violent language; but the State authorities are decidedly in earnest, and the action they have just taken will meet with the almost unanimous approval of the State and of the country. It is so much the whole country's concern that it is not very easy to see why, on legal or other grounds, the State of New Jersey cannot be forced by the Federal Government to allow Sandy Hook, by far the best site for quarantine buildings, to be used for that purpose. But permanent buildings are already begun on West Bank, and for temporary use Seguin's Point will serve very well. At any rate, we shall no longer kill emigrants in the lower bay who have survived the perils of shipwreck and of imprisonment with the plague on the ocean and got over here to their land of promise.

We regret to say that in the article on "Pardons and Morality," in our last issue, we fell into the error of calling Edward B. Ketchum, now in the State prison, whose case we were discussing, *Edgar* Ketchum. The latter happens to be the name of a very different person.

Mr. Councilman White succeeded on Monday in introducing and getting passed a resolution declaring it the duty of the city authorities to take immediate steps towards founding a free public library here in New York. The Board of Aldermen referred the resolution to the Committee on Arts and Sciences, and we understand that the chances are good of its seeing the light again. We have already urged the importance of an institution like that which Boston possesses, and there is no need to repeat the arguments in its favor. We shall be astonished if any opposition is made to it, and we are confident that if the city will but appropriate a piece of ground, a temporary building, a few thousand dollars—anything as a beginning and as an earnest of its interest in the undertaking, there will not be wanting wealthy citizens

to help the library along during their lifetime and to remember it in heir wills. Private libraries, which are now liable to be scattered on the decease of their owners, will then gravitate to the public depository *pro bono publico*. The experiment is not doubtful after the first step which costs.

Our foreign-born fellow-citizens met in mass meeting at Union Square on Monday afternoon to protest against the new excise law. Mr. Friedman, speaking for the Germans, deduced the illegality of the statute from "the principle of individual liberty and responsibility which has given to us much of our intense individualism, self-reliance, etc., etc." Col. Levy went back to Lafayette and Rochambeau to prove the superior claims of Franco-Americans to be relieved from the oppression of the "odious Sunday law." Mayor Hoffman sent a sympathizing letter, which was read and found to contain a quotation against reformers from a "distinguished statesman and orator," and the sensible reminder that while the law in question remained on the statute-book it was the duty of good citizens to obey it.

The Postmaster-General declines to undertake to manœuvre the telegraph lines of the country, ostensibly because he doubts the financial success of the enterprise and its effects on the politics of the country, but also, we trust, because he is conscious of the very imperfect management of his proper department. Of course, the telegraph companies were on hand with figures to show the impracticability of the scheme suggested in Congress, and their very small earnings of four per cent. a year. So for the present we must make what terms we can with these gentlemen.

Judging from the charge delivered by Judge Underwood to the grand jury in Richmond the other day—a violent, unbecoming harangue—the trial of Jefferson Davis, if it took place before him, would neither shed much light on the law of treason nor have much moral weight with the public.

In the North Carolina Convention, last Saturday, it was moved that a committee should proceed to Washington and discover, if possible, what it is that remains to be done before the State can be represented in Congress. This, some delegates thought, would be throwing the noble old North State "at the feet of Thad. Stevens and Charles Sumner," or it would be "stooping to kiss the toe of a political despot," by which title President Johnson is probably meant. But the resolutions passed by a vote of 71 to 20, after some strong speeching in their favor by members from the hill country, and perhaps it is in North Carolina, where the policy of the Executive first became visible, that Congress is to reap the first-fruits of its persistency.

European advices to the 27th of last month represent the assembling of a peace congress at Paris as certain and a speedy outbreak of hostilities as probable. The attitude of the minor states of Germany was not yet fully developed, but the declaration of the King of Würtemberg, at the opening of the Chambers, that, in case justice should not be rendered to Schleswig-Holstein, he, with his allies, would resolutely place himself on the side of right, is indicative of determinations favorable to Austria. In the Federal Diet a motion that Austria and Prussia should be requested to reduce their military establishments to a peace footing was unanimously adopted, the representatives of those powers promising to communicate at the next sitting the conditions on which they were willing to disarm. The representative of Prussia reiterated the demand for the convocation of a German Parliament, as the only means, perhaps, of averting war. The Austrian authorities were taking rigorous measures to prevent the Venetians from aiding their Italian brethren in their expected struggle. The Italian Government, on the other hand, was endeavoring to secure the co-operation of Hungarian and Polish exiles against Austria. Italian volunteers were flocking in thousands to their depots. Garibaldi urged "a truce to dissensions and opinions." Numerous Bourbonists, accused of a conspiracy against the unity of Italy, were arrested at Naples.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, June 6, 1866.

An initial measure of some importance to educational interests throughout the country is at length before the House, in the bill to establish a National Department of Education. The measure proposes no action or interference on the part of the general Government with regard to systems of instruction in the States, and does not even embrace, what to many minds seems the proper function of such a department, the supervision of the education of the freedmen—those wards of the nation. It is simply a proposition to collect and distribute information respecting schools and methods of instruction. This is to be effected through a commissioner of education, to be appointed by the President, and five clerks, to be appointed by the commissioner. Rumor points to Henry Barnard, LL.D., as the probable appointee for this new office, should the bill become a law. But amendments are already offered to cut down the operative force of the proposed bureau to two clerks, to be employed under the direction of the Secretary of the Interior, to effect the objects of the bill.

A step in the right direction has been taken in the passage of the bill to abolish the army rations and other perquisites of military officers, and to pay them fixed salaries. The bill raises the compensation of some grades, and diminishes that of others, but will do away with illicit charges and promote economy.

A similar reform as to the pay of members of Congress is at length initiated, though it will probably fail to become a law immediately.

DIARY.

Monday, June 4.—In the Senate, the constitutional amendment being taken up, Mr. Hendricks moved to amend by including in the basis of representation in the Southern States three-fifths of the freedmen; lost. Mr. Van Winkle offered an amendment, providing that no person not excluded from office by the terms of the third section shall be liable to any disability or penalty for treason after a term of years; lost—yeas, 8; nays, 26.

In the House, the Committee on Appropriations was instructed to report a bill distributing the aggregate pay for mileage of members of Congress in just proportion to the necessary expenses of reaching the seat of Government from their respective districts. Mr. Wilson spoke on reconstruction. The credentials of A. M. West, a representative elect from Mississippi, were referred to the Committee on Reconstruction. The bill to reduce and fix the pay of army officers occupied the rest of the day.

June 5.—In the Senate, Messrs. Poland, Stewart, and Howe made speeches on the constitutional amendment.

In the House, Mr. Garfield reported, from the Select Committee on that subject, a bill to establish a National Department of Education, under the charge of a commissioner and five clerks, to collect facts and statistics and diffuse information on school systems and methods of teaching. The bill was advocated by Mr. Donnelly and opposed by Mr. Rogers. The bill to reduce and fix the pay of army officers was advocated by Messrs. Schenck and Garfield, and opposed by Messrs. Davis and Rogers. The bill was then passed—yeas, 85; nays, 40.

THE FREEDMEN.

Superintendent Eberhart reports 71 schools in operation in Georgia, with 104 teachers and 6,991 pupils. Of the teachers it is noteworthy that 45 are colored, and 51 are residents of the State. Twenty-eight schools and as many teachers are sustained by the freedmen alone. Six new schools were opened during April, and there was an aggregate increase over March of 600 pupils. The popular disposition toward these innovations has ceased to be a subject of special complaint and is quite encouraging.

—Superintendent Tomlinson reports that in April there were 9,184 colored pupils on the school register of South Carolina, showing an average attendance of 6,320, the girls somewhat preponderating. About one-sixth of the whole were learning the alphabet; four-fifths were able to read and spell; 6,111 were pure blacks. The superintendent means, with the aid of native teachers, to keep the schools open all summer, when most of the Northern teachers will return to their homes.

—A Memphis paper justly protests against the usage to which the most respectable colored passengers are subjected on Mississippi steamboats, being compelled to sleep on the floor of the decks, in spite of their having paid the usual fare. It is stated that a colored gentleman has instituted a suit against the owner of a White River packet, for being refused a state-room on the trip from Duvall's Bluff to Memphis.

Notes.

LITERARY.

Some of the pleasantest and most valuable papers elicited by the death of President Lincoln were those from the pen of Mr. F. B. Carpenter, previously known to the public only as a painter, and chiefly for his historical picture of the first reading of the Emancipation Proclamation. The series appeared in the *Independent* and in part in "Hours at Home," and their merits were as universally recognized as those of the canvas. The two, in fact, cannot be separated. Mr. Carpenter's peculiarly intimate relations with Mr. Lincoln while engaged on his professional work, afforded him a rare opportunity of observing a character of whom we shall not soon tire of hearing fresh representations. The eagerness with which the public read, and the favor which they justly accorded to Mr. Carpenter's reminiscences, induced the artist-author to compile them in book-form together with many facts and anecdotes of facts communicated to him from a great variety of sources, and most of which have never yet been published. Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have the volume in press, and will shortly issue it under the title of "Six Months at the White House with Abraham Lincoln."

—Hardly any offence in literature is deserving of as much contempt and reprobation as the too frequent practice of using false quotations from reviews of books to help along the sale of the works. The beginning of one sentence is sometimes joined to the end of another so as to alter entirely the sense of the opinion expressed. This is so common that, except in advertisements by the most honorable publishers, such quotations should be entirely disregarded by persons thinking of buying the book. Two very reputable firms in London have recently got by the ears over a question of this kind. The "Quarterly Review," in the April number, had a very severe article on "Ecce Homo," condemning it as unsound in faith, untrue in fact, and uncritical in style. Messrs. Macmillan, the publishers of "Ecce Homo," thought that no advertisement would be so good as this sweeping condemnation, and accordingly reprinted this sentence from the "Quarterly:" "The shallowest theories and the flimsiest arguments find a ready reception in an empty mind, and their sole strength is in the weakness and credulity of their dupes. Happily there is a vast body of educated men who are better informed." Mr. Murray, the publisher of the "Quarterly Review," complained of this citation on the ground that many persons were led to infer that the "Quarterly Review" had commended "Ecce Homo" as an antidote against "shallow theories" and "flimsy arguments," and he published an advertisement containing the whole passage. Messrs. Macmillan printed a counter advertisement repudiating the charge of "garbling," to the effect that "the first sentence of the extract fully expressed the unfavorable opinion formed by the reviewer; and that, in fact, had it not done so, the object of the publishers in reprinting it would not have been answered." To this statement Mr. Murray replied: "'The first sentence of the extract,' which the publishers of 'Ecce Homo' say 'fully expressed the unfavorable opinion formed by the reviewer,' was as follows: 'To refute all the errors which abound in 'Ecce Homo' would be tedious and useless.' This sentence was not in the original advertisement, and was only added by the publishers of 'Ecce Homo' after their first extract had been a subject of comment."

—The imminence of a great Continental war brings to the mind of the thoughtful the sufferings which the soldiers must endure, despite the advantage for relief offered by a thickly-settled country. *La Nazione*, of Florence, in a recent number printed an interesting and tolerably accurate account of the United States Sanitary Commission, in order to show what might be done for the sick and wounded in case of a war. The official history of the Sanitary Commission is being compiled by various hands. The first volume, comprising the general history of the Commission, by Mr. C. J. Stillé, of Philadelphia, is nearly through the press. The second and third volumes, containing accounts of special departments, will be ready for publication in about four and six weeks. The official account of the great Metropolitan Fair will probably be issued early in the fall. This volume, which should have been published two years ago, was delayed from various reasons, principally because no one connected with the fair had leisure enough to write it. It will make a handsome small quarto volume of about 250 pages, illustrated with photographs.

—The Crimea has long been known as the seat of those Jews who, on account of their opposition to the rabbinical traditions, have called themselves the Karaïtes or Biblical Jews. The first authentic account of them was given to the Christian world by the Dutch theologian, Jacob Trigland, who died in 1705. In 1839, at the suggestion of Prince Voronzof, Governor-General of Odessa, and president of the Archæological Society, one of the learned Jews of the Crimea, Abraham Firkovitch, assisted by his foster-son, Gabriel, travelled through all the Jewish communities as far as the Caucasus, and collected much valuable material for the history of the Jewish population. In this collection were Bible manuscripts as old as the fifth century, with important prefaces, numerous copies of such prefaces, a parchment roll with three attestations, which was found concealed in the south wall of the synagogue of Mangelis, at Derbend, in the Caucasus, and seven hundred copies of burial inscriptions, one hundred of them being paper impressions. To these, in 1863, the unwearied old Firkovitch added eighteen original inscriptions, which he had sawn from grave-stones at Tchufutkale. Tchufutkale means Jew-city, and in the Middle Ages was notably inhabited by Jews only. In 1261 it made a brave defence against the Genoese. Near it is a churchyard in a little valley called the Vale of Jehoshaphat, where the grave-stones were found. The inscriptions here show that the Crimea was peopled with Jews as far back as the Christian era; the thirty oldest grave-stones go from 555 A.D. back to 6 A.D. One of these inscriptions, now in the Asiatic Museum at St. Petersburg, is dated in the year 30 A.D., and reads, "Rabbi Moses Levi, dead in the year 726 of our exile." Another says: "This is the memorial of Buki, son of Isaac, the priest; may he rest in Paradise! To the time of the deliverance of Israel in the year 702 of our exile." The year 702 is three after Christ. Dr. Chwolson, in his paper on these inscriptions, published in 1865, considers that by the exile is meant the Assyrian exile—the exile of the ten tribes. A writer in a recent number of the "London Review" remarks that this is the only instance of the captivity being called by the name exile. He recalls the fact of there being two races of Jews—one fair, with a straight nose, often with reddish hair and blue eyes, of which the traditional face of the Saviour is a type; the other or Western Jews, dark, with large noses, like the Syrians, and remarkably like the sculptured Assyrians in the Ninevite slabs. From this he draws the conclusion that the Western Jews are descendants not of the ten tribes, but of the Babylonians who were taken to Judea to replace them. This, he thinks, is confirmed by inscriptions on some terra-cotta bowls found by Layard in his explorations on the Euphrates, which were Hebrew and Chaldæan, but in letters of a very ancient type, and which Mr. Ellis considered "invented to write the cuneiform character in a more cursive and expeditious way." One trouble of this theory is that it requires the Babylonian Jews to have been converted, to have forgotten their origin, and to have supposed themselves original Jews. Perhaps their pertinacious adherence to their acquired religion could be explained by the traditionary fervor of new converts.

—Among the new books announced as just published or in press, by W. I. Pooley, are "A History of the Episcopal Church," by Bishop Hopkins, and the English translation of Renan's "Apostles." Mr. Carleton also announces a translation of Renan, a "Life of James Stephens," and "The Mute Singer," by Mrs. Anna Cora Ritchie (Mowatt). Hurd & Houghton offer "A Memorial of the Rev. John Keble, with introduction by Bishop Potter;" "Principles of the Law of Contracts," by Judge Metcalf; and Howells' "Venetian Life." Appleton's list contains "Recollections in the United States Army," by Dr. Latimer; "Constitutional History of the United States, mainly from the Speeches of Stephen A. Douglas;" "Taxation," by Sir Morton Peto; and a new illustrated edition of Dana's "Household Book of Poetry."

—M. Octave Delepierre, one of the secretaries of the French Legation at London, and an active and learned member of the Philobiblon Society, has just printed twenty-five copies of a curious and interesting essay, written for that society, in which he gives an account of all those visions of hell and heaven which have been seen at various times by religious enthusiasts. "Le Livre des Visions en l'Enfer et le Ciel décrits par ceux qui les ont vus" is the title of the narrative. These are not mere descriptions of heaven and hell, of which thousands were written during the Middle Ages, some of them with a pretence of scientific knowledge, but visions which the visionary believed himself, in good faith, to have seen not in dreams or in imagination, but by direct sight. They occurred generally while the patient was in a state of catalepsy and seeming death, and when the soul was supposed to be absent from the body. One singular thing about these visions is the absence of all elevation of thought, the punishments described being exaggerations of the ordinary physical tortures met with on earth. Fire, cold, pitch, brimstone, and molten metal play a prominent part among the tortures, as also do beasts and serpents. Only one—that of some Godfrey, in 1321—repudiates the common physical conception of hell. The visions of heaven are few in comparison with those of hell, partly, perhaps, because the pleasures of the blest were imagined with more difficulty than the eter-

nal pains of the wicked. Light is almost the only characteristic of heaven; everything else is vague. One book escaped M. Delepierre's grasp, the "Recent Revelations on Purgatory," published by the Dominicans of Toulouse in 1865, the circulation being strictly confined to the penitents or refractories of that order. It is a pity that the world cannot see on what spiritual food the devotees of modern Catholicism may feed.

SCIENTIFIC.

Sense of Touch, Pain, and Temperature.—The perception of temperature and pain appears to be different in character from that of the ordinary impressions made upon the organs of touch. Pain is not merely an exaggeration of touch. Our perceptions become imperfect just in proportion as the impressions are painful in their character. The mere touch of the blade of a knife may be distinctly and correctly perceived, but when the skin is cut there is no longer a perception of the knife, but a sensation of pain only. Intensely hot and intensely cold substances are not perceived to be different, but both are similarly painful. M. Beau has given numerous facts to prove that sensibility to pain may be utterly abolished while common sensibility still remains. The surgeon, in operating upon partially etherized persons, has not unfrequently noticed this; the patient remaining perfectly conscious, seeing and feeling the knife or other instruments, but not suffering from the application of them. Weber found by experiment that the sense of temperature is more acute in the left hand than in the right, while the sense of touch is undoubtedly most acute in the latter. If the two hands, previously of the same temperature, be plunged into separate basins of water, that in which the left hand is plunged will be felt as the warmer, even though its temperature is somewhat lower than that of the other. Dr. Spring, in the "Medico-Chirurgical Review" for April, has recorded the history of an interesting case which gives support to the above views. A woman, aged sixty, after exposure to cold partially lost the sensibility of the right half of the body, including the head, though there was no loss of motion. On the paralyzed side she became insensible to pain and to the effects of a change of temperature, while ordinary tactile impressions were perceived as usual. She could feel the slightest touch on the affected side, and when the eyes were closed could, through the aid of touch, pick up a pin from the floor. Impressions of weight and contact could be accurately perceived; the hand resting on the table, if a given weight were placed on the palm, the removal of a small portion of it was at once noticed, with no other indication than that coming through the sense of touch. Yet, while washing her hands, though she distinctly felt the water flowing over the paralyzed one, she could not tell, from the impression made upon it, whether the water was hot or cold. Neither the pricking of pins nor pinching was perceived in the slightest degree, and when standing before the fire she was incapable of feeling warmth on the right half of her body.

Paralysis of the Right Side and the Loss of Speech.—One of the most remarkable results recently brought to the notice of physiologists is the observation of Broca, that when paralysis exists and is attended with the loss of speech or of articulate language, one or both, the paralysis is, in nearly every case, on the right side of the body, and is, consequently, dependent upon disease or injury of the left side of the brain; for it is universally admitted that disease or injuries of one side of the brain, if they produce paralysis at all, do so on the side of the body opposite to that of the disease or injury. In order to prevent misapprehension as to the sense in which the terms "articulate language" and "speech" are used, it may be stated that articulation is the mere utterance of words, and that speech is the expression of thoughts or ideas which may be expressed by means of articulate words, or by signs of any kind. It must also be borne in mind that loss of articulation does not necessarily depend upon disease of the brain, but may be the result of merely local causes, such as a faulty action of the muscles of the larynx or of the throat, tongue, or lips. A man may be unable to communicate his thoughts by means of vocal sounds, but he will nevertheless do so by writing or gestures. Broca has shown, and in each case verified his observations by post-mortem examinations, that the loss of articulate language may be the result of disease of the brain, and that, when it is so and no other difficulty exists, the injury or disease is always on the left side of the brain. Of twenty cases, carefully studied, all confirmed this view. Dr. Hughlings Jackson, in the reports of the London Hospital, has made a careful record of thirty-four cases of loss of speech, in thirty-one of which there was paralysis of the right side. In the other three the paralysis was on the left side, and consequently exceptional. Dr. Jackson's cases may, therefore, be said to confirm largely the views of Broca. The faculty of speech, as well as that of articulate sounds, may be lost to different degrees; but neither the sounds nor any other signs which a patient remains capable of making will serve to communicate thoughts or ideas correctly. Words may be uttered, but they will be applied in the wrong way and names to the wrong things, as when one woman called a dinner a "chair," and another called a chair a "potato." One person was offered a rose and asked if she could smell as well as usual, when she answered, "I can't say it so much," instead of "I can't smell so well." A woman who had loss of speech was asked to write her name, which she attempted to do with the following result: "Sunnil Sicla Satreni." Dr. Jackson, from motives of delicacy, withholds her real name, but says it bore no resemblance whatever to the name written. When asked to write her address, she did it as follows: "Sunnesr Nut Ts Merr Tinn—lain;" yet this woman was intelligent and knew persons and things, as did others who could not express themselves intelligibly, or, if sometimes intelligibly, still very incorrectly.

Prussian Salt.—The history of mining enterprise is filled with examples of the great influence which a single undertaking will sometimes exert upon the business of a country. A salt mine which was opened a few years since near Magdeburg, by the Prussian Government, is a case in point, and is one of peculiar interest because of its extreme simplicity. Some twelve or fifteen years ago Prussia consumed, for culinary purposes alone, 257,000,000 pounds of salt per annum, the proportion being about fifteen pounds for each and every inhabitant of the kingdom; a proportion, by the way, which, in keeping with the lethargic spirit of the country, had remained fixed and unvarying during a quarter of a century. The amount above mentioned was employed solely for household purposes, for the very considerable quantities used in agriculture and by various manufacturing establishments were not taken into account. The amount of salt produced by Prussia at the same time, at the various saline springs of the country, was only 214,000,000 pounds, or, roughly estimated, scarcely seventy-five per cent. of the quantity consumed within the kingdom. More than 50,000,000 pounds of salt had, therefore, to be imported into Prussia every year. It was in the hope of doing away with this condition of things that the Government proceeded to excavate the mine in question. To what extent this hope has been realized may be inferred from the following facts: The salt was reached about ten years since and has been actively worked ever since. It may, therefore, be safely assumed that the new order of things has by this time arrived at a condition of tolerably stable equilibrium. There is, at the same time, no evidence that the other works at the old salt springs have been given up. According to official statements there was sold from the single mine here in question, in the year 1862, 101,000,000 pounds of salt; in 1863, 152,000,000 pounds; and in 1864, 201,000,000 pounds. In 1865 the quantity sold appears to have been less, though no official statement of it has as yet come to hand. Some observers estimate the amount as low as 166,000,000 pounds. However this may be, it will be seen at once that so far from importing salt, Prussia is now in a position to export this commodity. Large quantities of it are in fact now exported, chiefly to the smaller German States, to Holland, and to Holstein. At one time it was even anticipated that the Prussian salt would be able to gain a foothold in the English market, but the hope has not yet been realized. The cost of mining the salt is very small, and it is cheaply transported to the ocean, by water, by way of the river Elbe.

SPENCER'S BIOLOGY.*

"The aim of this work is to set forth the general truths of biology as illustrative of, and as interpreted by, the laws of evolution; the special truths being introduced only so far as is needful for elucidation of the general truths." This first volume consists of three parts: the first, called the "Data of Biology," treats of the elements, the materials, and their properties which enter into the processes of life, and the ideas which determine its definition. The second, called the "Inductions of Biology," treats of the various fundamental facts and classes of facts observed in organic life in general, including the main principles of biology as an inductive science. The third part, called the "Evolution of Life," is a discussion of the bearing of the general facts of biology on the question of the origin of species. In his second volume Mr. Spencer will "pass to the more special phenomena of development as displayed in the structures and functions of individual organisms." Two other works, the "Principles of Psychology" and the "Principles of Sociology," will complete the labor which Mr. Spencer has proposed for himself, namely, the survey of the sciences for the purpose of including all human knowledge under the conceptions set forth in his "First Principles," and for establishing a universal science or philosophical

* "The Principles of Biology. By Herbert Spencer. Vol. I." New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1866.

system on the basis of the inductive sciences, interpreted by certain forms or laws of thought which Mr. Spencer assumes to have an *à priori* validity and a universal application. These forms are given in the mechanical conceptions of matter, motion, and force, and the *à priori* truths supposed to be implicated in them. Every fact of science is to be represented in such mechanic terms.

As a philosophical theory this system has also, of course, a theological as well as a scientific side. It proposes a cosmological theory of the dependence of the world of phenomena on its unknown cause. The unknowable, hitherto represented as the Creator producing the world from a non-phenomenal existence, or from nothing; or pictured as the Great Artificer building an order out of chaos, is by Mr. Spencer represented as the cause, the unknown cause, of evolution, continuously producing the worlds and all the forms of life. Evolution is regarded as the profoundest conception which the human mind can compass of the divine agency in creation. The first existence, or the chaos whence the world and its order arise, is the homogeneous or undifferentiated matter of the universe, with its primitive forces and their necessary laws. Creation, or the connection between the first cause of things and the last effects of nature, consists of the processes by which the world passes from the homogeneous to the heterogeneous. This is the direction in which creative power is exerted. It is the unfolding of the properties of matter and force. These terms, matter and force, must be understood, however, in a sense broad enough to include all first existences which are cognizable, and to exclude the antithesis between the metaphysical and incomprehensible entities "matter" and "mind." The phenomena of mind are also to be formulated in terms of matter, motion, and force; but it is matter in a generalized mechanical sense that Mr. Spencer takes as his type of the first cognizable existence.

If we must have a cosmology—if we cannot restrain our speculative faculties to a less ambitious exercise—then that theory of the universe in its totality which agrees best with the facts of science and the ideas with which science has familiarized instructed minds in modern times, is the one most likely to gain credence. But science itself stands in no need of such illumination. The leading idea of Mr. Spencer's system, the thread on which he displays a mine of scientific lore, with unsurpassed abilities in scientific speculation, is too weak to sustain its load. Not that his facts in any degree militate against his thesis: they only fail to prove what is peculiar to it. They simply "illustrate" what Mr. Spencer means by his law.

Different portions of Mr. Spencer's writings have very unequal merit. It is his ambition to produce a philosophy; but his strength lies in his clear summary expositions of the widely various departments of scientific facts and generalizations, with which he has most industriously and laboriously made himself acquainted, and in the ingenuity he displays in the very suggestive and instructive generalizations and colligations of the facts which he presents. In such portions of his writings he is clear and strong, though somewhat too easily impressed by a mere analogy, and sometimes mistaking a figure of speech for a matter of fact. But when called upon to rise into the region of pure abstractions in setting forth his system, and dealing with the ideas to the illustration of which he has devoted so much study, his writing becomes vague and weak. He is obviously not so able in the treatment of the higher abstractions as in the proximate generalizations of science. Where the philosopher would appear at his best, Mr. Spencer becomes very tedious. His grasp of the mechanical ideas by which he would interpret the facts of biology is quite unlike what the masters of mechanical philosophy have shown in the mechanical sciences. His application of mechanical ideas to the organic sciences very much resembles the use made of similar ideas in physics before the time of Galileo. His principle of the "Persistence of Force," which in his book of "First Principles" he supposes to be the same as the mechanical doctrine of the conservation of force—only a better name for it—has none of the technical precision and definiteness which belong to this doctrine; and the important conclusions, which he deduces somewhat summarily from it, really flow, so far as they are facts, from the more general philosophical doctrine, "the Law of Causation." Mr. Spencer's "Persistence of Force" is in fact only a mechanical name for this fundamental postulate of science. In the same way, to suit his system, he renames other principles of science. Mr. Darwin's law of "Natural Selection" he designedly translates "Indirect Equilibration," while the principle of the improvements of adaptation by use he calls "Direct Equilibration."

If this mechanical terminology really added anything to the resources of science; if Mr. Spencer could deduce anything from his mechanical principles which could confirm any inductive conclusion or direct any inductive enquiry, which are not already confirmed or determined by philosophical principles without a mechanical dress, we should welcome his philosophy most cordially. As it is, this mechanical dress seems to us superfluous.

But to return to Mr. Spencer's lucid expositions of science. No account of the argument for the transmutation hypothesis has appeared to us abler or clearer than part third of this volume. Not even Mr. Darwin's remarkable book presents the evidence so conclusively. But Mr. Spencer appears to value this part of his book and, indeed, all his disquisitions on the "special truths" of science only in so far as they "illustrate the general truths" of his philosophy. He evidently prides himself on his weakness, and is quite unconscious of his real strength. All that his studies prove, or tend to prove, is "that the groups within groups" of related races, "which constitute the animal and vegetal kingdoms, have arisen by direct descent, multiplication, and divergence—that is," he adds, "by evolution." But evolution implies more in Mr. Spencer's philosophy than the transmutation hypothesis postulates. It implies and necessitates progress, a progress which is inherent in the order of things, and is more than the continuity and community of causation which the physical sciences postulate. It borrows an idea from the moral sciences, the idea of an end. Mr. Spencer's philosophy is not teleological in the narrower sense of the word; that is, it does not postulate specific ends—like the conditions of human happiness—as determining the order in nature; but it is none the less as a cosmological theory—or a theory of the universe in its totality—charged with a mission. It contemplates the universe in its totality as having an intelligible order, a relation of beginning and end—a development. All that the transmutation hypothesis presupposes is continuity and uniformity in the temporal order of nature. Mr. Spencer admits that paleontology, the only inductive science which can testify directly on the subject, is inconclusive. So far as inductive evidence is concerned, it is doubtful whether there has been any progress in the types of organic life. That the present forms of life are derived from comparatively few forms living in the remote past, is probable from the argument from classification; but that these forms were the only types of life then in existence, or that the extinction of species has not kept pace with their multiplication, cannot be concluded from the geological record. Transmutation, then, is as well fitted as any word to express all that the evidence of paleontology, the geographical distribution, or the classification of animals and plants tends to prove. The argument for progressive development from embryology is merely analogical. To be valid it requires a much closer resemblance in essential points between the terms of comparison, namely, between the individual life with its limits and definite steps of progress, and the indeterminate continuity of life in a race. Evolution expresses more than the evidence warrants, and more than many transmutationists are disposed to admit. "It may be thought paradoxical," says Lyell, "that writers who are most in favor of transmutation (Mr. C. Darwin and Dr. J. Hooker, for example) are nevertheless among those who are most cautious, and one would say timid, in their mode of espousing the doctrine of progression; while, on the other hand, the most zealous advocates of progression are oftener than not very vehement opponents of transmutation." . . "The true explanation of the seeming anomaly is this, that no one can believe in transmutation who is not profoundly convinced that all we know in paleontology is as nothing compared to what we have yet to learn, and they who regard the record as too fragmentary, and our acquaintance with the fragments which are extant as so rudimentary, are apt to be astounded at the confidence placed by the progressionists in data which must be defective in the extreme."

Mr. Spencer is both a transmutationist and a progressionist, but he is the latter on *à priori* grounds chiefly. No one has set forth and illustrated the imperfections of the geological record more forcibly; but, instead of following the cautious naturalists, and suspending his judgment in the lack of evidence, he takes advantage, as it were, of this lack to reach his conclusion by the "high priori road."

A philosophy like Mr. Spencer's is doubtless a great *desideratum* to many, nay, to most minds, to enable them to receive the facts and hypotheses of modern science hospitably. A philosophy once received is a potent source of credence, and makes it easy to admit asserted facts and to entertain hypotheses. That the general belief in supernatural agencies has proved the miracles, and filled the world with fairies, devils, and witches, cannot be doubted. That a general doctrine which excludes all supernatural agency will enable the inductions and hypotheses of science to take a firmer hold on the faith of mankind, is equally certain; but this is not the method in which the facts and theories of science have been established. An intellectual virtue very rare and difficult to attain, the power to go out from all philosophies and preconceptions into the world of observation and fact—the power to suspend the judgment and to scrutinize facts on their own merits—this is the virtue of the scientific philosopher, and the potent cause of the great change in the intellectual life of modern times.

GOLDWIN SMITH ON AMERICA.*

We do the American public a service in calling attention to a little book from which it cannot help getting both pleasure and profit. It is an address by Professor Goldwin Smith, delivered before the Union and Emancipation Society of Manchester, and now printed under the title of "The Civil War in America." But it is something more than this title would seem to indicate; it really is a brief account of the people of the free States, of the spirit of their political system, of their social theories and practice, by a philosophic student of history, his defence of all these against the attacks commonly made on them by the friends of absolutism and aristocracy, and his exposition of their virtues and defects.

The literary merits of the work are such as by themselves make it worthy the perusal of most readers and the study of most writers. Perhaps there is hardly one among living English authors whose writing, while it is so free from the display of art, is more obviously the product of the highest art, or rather, to speak more exactly and to avoid a word whose meaning is not unmistakably good, the product, we will say, of the highest discipline and culture. Precisely this praise cannot often be given even to fascinating writers. Dr. Newman, for example, delightful as he is, sometimes allows the graceful ease and frankness of his discourse to approach very nearly or to overpass the verge of carelessness; and this is either want of art or it is something very like artifice. And is not the accomplished Matthew Arnold obnoxious to the severer of these two accusations? Not seldom he surprises the reader with what seem very doubtful phrases, such, for instance, as "split the difference," "much on a par," "the best style going," etc., obeying, perhaps, a precept of Joubert's, and with the too obvious design of tempering the natural daintiness of his style and giving it simple directness. And, generally, nowadays, when the periods of our fathers are going into contempt and oblivion, and the loose sentence is laboriously constructed, and slang finds defenders in prefaces, the tendency in composition is either to forms with too little of art or a little of artifice, carelessness or an affectation of it. This by the way, however. We praise Professor Smith's style for its positive qualities. For a full enjoyment of its excellences a special examination may be requisite, there is such fulness of matter and the medium through which the matter is seen is so transparent. Some of its excellences, again, are of the striking kind and not to be missed, as in the phrase "a neutrality of Alabamas"—an epigrammatic condensation of several hundreds, perhaps, of recent Anti-English editorials and speeches; or in this sentence, with its allusion to communism, its rebuke of nominal Christianity, and the distinction it draws between these and influences truly Christian, "which, whenever they decisively prevail, without taking away the landmarks of property, transmute proprietorship into duty." And for its easy force, its simplicity, and plain elegance, and never-failing dignity, his style is secure of the admiration and deserves the attention due a master's work.

Of Professor Smith's ability to speak upon the subject which he chose, and to say something valuable to us as well as to his countrymen, there can be no doubt. We were living, to be sure, in the thick of the conflict which he describes, while he looked on; but his eye was educated to the task, and he was able to study calmly the nature and the working of that spirit of our age and country which, though it has made us the very men we are, moulded us without our knowledge.

That spirit, he says, is not free democracy. Democracy is a political arrangement merely. What all America will one day be, what the North has always been, what she was during the war and is now, that she was and is and will be by virtue of the spirit of free Christianity. Not Christianity paralyzed by political alliances, represented by "a state clergy who are legally bound over against conviction," but living, expansive, growing; not Christianity imprisoned in narrow sectarian creeds, but full of faith in God and faith in man also, full of the spirit of progress and of hope in the future of humanity. The operation of this power, at least in our New World, happily untrammelled, he traces in all our social and political life. In this he finds the secret of the American eagerness for vital truths in religion and contempt of ecclesiastical questions; this makes us demand popular education; it is the reason of our clemency to rebels; it makes our criminal codes so mild; to this must be attributed the honor paid to labor, the absence of class divisions, the general respect for law, the courtesy to women, the kindness to servants, all the truly distinctive features of American life. Our democratic institutions are but the application of this spirit to the concerns of government. This argument he enforces by illustrations drawn from what he himself saw in the North, and by the contrast of all which a spirit essentially different notoriously produced in the ignorant, barbarous, and oligarchical South.

The darker shades, also, in the bright picture which he saw are faithfully reproduced. But it is not our purpose to do more than commend the essay to the attention of the reader, especially of the reader who seeks to understand the meaning of his time and is glad of light from whatever source. Slight as the work is, it seems to us to merit the name of history—history written on the best of the three methods. Not a book of annals to supply the bones of the pictorial, dramatic history, it is able to supply the soul of such a work in many volumes, and the student must find it all the better for wanting the body.

Nor is it only of American life and history that this English praise of America speaks; of England, also, we learn something, or, rather, are confirmed in what we knew and felt before. It was impossible to read this eloquent statement of the ideas loved by Americans, and this earnest and confident defence of them as the ideas right in the present and sure of the future, without seeing, and rejoicing to see, that the true Englishman and the true American may interchange citizenship, yet neither forsake the only real allegiance he can owe—fealty to the cause of liberty and human progress. Elsewhere, the camps are not broken; but they and we are already engaged, and what both fight for is the same.

* "The Civil War in America. An Address read at the last meeting of the Manchester Union and Emancipation Society. By Goldwin Smith." London: Simpkin, Marshall & Co. 1866. Pp. 96.

Lange's Commentary on Mark and Luke. Edited by Dr. W. G. T. Shedd, Dr. P. Schaff, and C. C. Starbuck: (Chas. Scribner & Co., New York.)—Dr. Lange's Commentary, when it is completed, will no doubt be superior to any other now in general use. No pains have been spared to make it thoroughly exhaustive of the matter which it has in hand. Such of its conclusions as are not purely individual are no doubt pretty much the same as if the work had been prepared a century ago. But the fact that these conclusions are no longer universally accepted is not concealed, and sometimes the objections to them are so fairly stated that the objection rather than the argument against it will commend itself to the intelligent reader. The second volume of this commentary has now been translated and enriched with many editorial notes. These notes, Mr. Starbuck's especially, are very valuable, and almost never fail to light up the darkness of Dr. Osterlee's interpretations, which are sometimes so far-fetched as to appear almost ridiculous. The volume on Matthew, published a year ago, has been very favorably received, and there is no apparent reason why the present volume should not be received in the same manner. As the result of a collective effort a certain amount of dulness is to be expected. A work of this sort coming from an individual mind would have much more enthusiasm. But what the Commentary lacks in this respect it gains, no doubt, as the consensus of a great number of intelligent and learned men. The structure of the volume would be a matter for great praise but for the suspicion that the structure of the gospels, on which it professes to be based, does not justify anything so methodical. This suspicion attaches to the treatment of the second gospel much more than to that of the third. The life of Jesus as there represented consists of a series of contests and victories alternating with periods of rest. A great deal of ingenuity is necessary to make this appear, but the resources of the commentator are immense. Many will be carried away by his idea, but not a few will think that it is better not to overload the gospels with so much machinery. The treatment of Luke is less liable to this objection. There is an introduction to each gospel, in which questions of age, authorship, etc., are discussed with considerable fairness. The critical and exegetical portions of the work will be of use to every class of minds, although somewhat overshadowed by the dogmatic purpose of the book. The "doctrinal and practical" portions are more doctrinal and less practical than we could wish. The homiletical remarks contain a great amount of beautiful suggestion. But, despite of all the merits of this work, we would not advise any person to read the New Testament only from its pages, for there are many things in the New Testament which do not need to be explained, and which only lose by explanation. Appeals to the heart ought not to be converted into the language of the head. But Dr. Lange's Commentary should be measured by the standard of success which he has chosen. It is professedly an attempt to find in the New Testament the golden mean between Romanism on the one hand and Liberalism on the other, and it is difficult to see how such a purpose could have been more resolutely carried out.

A Text-Book on Physiology, for the use of Schools and Colleges. By John William Draper, M.D., LL.D. (New York: Harper & Bros.)—This book, as the author tells us, is mainly a condensation of his larger work, well known to the medical profession. The manuals of physiology for popular instruction hitherto published are chargeable with frequent errors and signal deficiencies. From these the present one is comparatively free. For, although the author reiterates many of his favorite speculations, he is not guilty of ignoring important topics and of treating others with a careless superficiality, as has been so commonly done. This thorough treatment is a merited tribute to the increasing interest in science manifest in the non-professional community. As just intimated, we find the writer's peculiar views concisely, yet clearly, stated; and this will give the book a value even to the medical student, who may not have access to the more extensive treatise. But its value is seriously impaired by the too intimate blending of speculative views with truths well established and acknowledged by physiologists at large. This objection has the greater weight as the class for whom the manual is intended have not, for the most part, the means of estimating aright the author's theories as compared with those of other distinguished workers in the same field. The need, therefore, is still unmet for a popular hand-book in this department, that shall state what is known in language which,

without becoming puerile, may be less technical, yet no less accurate. Notwithstanding these defects, the present appears to us the most available manual for its purpose that we have yet seen, provided it fall into the hands of a competent teacher. The cuts and the printing are good, and the size of the volume renders it convenient for study and reference.

Ænone: a Tale of Slave Life in Rome. (New York: John Bradburn.)—The reader who opens this book with the expectation of finding in it illustrations of slave life, as a distinctive social feature of ancient Rome, will probably be disappointed. In spite of its array of sonorous Latin names, and a liberal use of the classical "properties" which such books as Becker's "Gallus" supply, the story might be adapted to any other condition of society than that selected, or to any other place or time; as well to New York in the nineteenth century as to Rome under the Empire. It is spun out to a tedious length, and the characters deliver long speeches at each other with such painful iteration as almost to impress one with the conviction that they are talking against time. The descriptive portions are not less diffuse. We should judge the book to be the production of a young author (a woman, evidently) having a superficial knowledge of classical literature, a decided fondness for fine writing, and a considerable facility in depicting character. The last qualification is that which alone redeems "Ænone" from utter dulness. The characters are really well drawn and contrasted, and, had the story been curtailed to one-third of its present length, would have made an impression upon the mind as decided as it is now vague and uncertain. But they are not Roman, nor even antique, because the author has had no true conception, so far as the present production indicates, of the essential conditions or characteristics of antique life. If "Ænone" is a first attempt, as seems not improbable, the author is capable of better things, provided she chooses a less ambitious walk in fictitious literature. The number of genuine *classical* novels is still small.

THE WARLIKE PREPARATIONS IN ITALY.

FLORENCE, May 19, 1866.

LAST evening the telegram ran thus: "The Austrian Government has received confidential information touching the programme of the congress, and has answered that, with regard to the duchies, it could not admit universal suffrage, but only a vote of the states. Touching federal reforms, the basis of the Prussian project must be excluded. Touching Venice, it demands what are the territorial compensations that will be offered." This morning it reads thus: "The Austrian Government demands a territorial compensation in Germany for its renunciation of its rights over the Duchies of Elbe, and refuses, meanwhile, to discuss the proposition of the cession of the Venetian provinces." These two telegraphic despatches arriving within twelve hours, may give you an idea of the state of suspense in which the public mind is kept. One day the war seems certain and imminent, the next there seems every possibility of a pacific arrangement based on the cession of Venice with the four fortresses razed to the ground in exchange for Silesia. Both governments, however, have borne in mind the old Tuscan proverb, "If you desire peace, prepare for war," and at the present moment both may be said to be prepared. Austria has concentrated 200,000 men in Venice and the Tyrol, *i. e.*, 10,000 at Mantua, Borgo-forte, and Ostiglia; 30,000 at Verona; 20,000 at Padua; 40,000 at Rovigo; 6,000 at Legnago; 15,000 at Venice and Chioggia; 6,000 at Peschiera; 20,000 at and around Friuli; 30,000 in the Tyrol, and 50,000 at Trieste and Gorizia. The utmost care is taken to strengthen Pola, which is the only military port of the empire. Here, in 1848 and 1859, the Austrian fleet found a safe refuge from the attacks of the Sardinian, Italian, and French navy. Since then it has been reinforced by formidable fortifications; around the city three fortified lines are erected; the first is composed of a series of iron-clad batteries whose fire crosses the passage leading to the Gulf of Pola; the second consists of a series of fortifications built on the rocks at the mouth of the bay. In order to enter the bay, the enemy's ships must have passed through the fire from the batteries of Brioni and Veruda and the fire of the fortifications on the rocks; the third line is composed of detached forts built round the bay, which defend the front entrance to the bay and all the military edifices erected along the shore. All the towns along the coast which offer safe anchorage, such as Capodistra and Pirano, Cittanuova and Rovigno, are also fortified. Aware of the immense importance of the railroad of Nabresina (in Trieste) as of those in Istria, and aware that the hostile populations will attempt everywhere to destroy them, detachments of troops are placed all along the lines. The Government is also hastening to profit by the stipulations of the treaty of Paris as to the method to be adopted towards merchant vessels and other private ships at sea, respecting both when the enemy agrees to do the same. The Italian Government is by no means inferior in energy, and its efforts are facilitated by the unparalleled enthusiasm of the army, the national guard, the volunteers, and the populations.

At the present moment 220,000 troops are ready to be placed in battle array, being either massed along the frontiers or at easy distances. It was at first decided that 50,000 soldiers should be distributed throughout the middle and southern provinces, to protect the army from clerical and reactionary enemies in the rear; but the national guard pleaded so earnestly that the defense of the interior should be entirely confided to them, that the Government had almost resolved on trying the experiment, when the menacing attitude resumed by brigandage in various portions of the Neapolitan provinces rendered the detention of a considerable body of troops necessary. At Melfi, a town of 9,500 inhabitants, Crocco, at the head of 100 men, has just murdered the syndic and sub-prefect, and the 4th battalion of bersaglieri, already embarked for upper Italy, were landed at Naples and sent against the murderers. Teano is also menaced by a large band of brigands, and against these the 39th battalion of bersaglieri are despatched. They will make short work of them, I fancy, especially as the new law on public security enables the local authorities to arrest all the aiders and abettors of these fiends, as the soldiers are furious at being baulked of their chances of a campaign against Austria, and the officers talked of sending in their resignation *en masse*. But let us admit that it will be necessary to retain 50,000 national troops in order to keep our internal foes, whose headquarters are at Rome, in check; that the 50,000 conscripts of the April levy are only partially mustered and drilled; that the second categories of 1842–43 are only just summoned and have never been drilled; that another 60,000 must be deducted for the service of depots, military establishments, hospitals, commissariat, staff, etc., Italy can yet bring 300,000 men into the field—three hundred thousand well-trained, well-disciplined Italians—all anxious to distinguish themselves against Austria. "Our army will perform miracles," wrote General Bixio this morning from Piacenza to a friend, and his testimony, as an ex-Garibaldian, is worth something. The artillery may be estimated at 400 guns. There seems to be a great deficiency of horses; 20,000 were demanded, as yet but 10,000 are purchased; the prices have risen in proportion. The preliminary work of the commission of volunteers is almost completed. Colonel Corte starts to-day for the depots of Northern Italy and Sicily, established at Carno and Varne; Colonel Nicotera starts for the depots of Southern Italy, established at Bari and Barletta. Already more than the 20,000 needed for the twenty battalions are inscribed in the divers cities of the realm. Milan alone sends 3,695. General Garibaldi is on the whole satisfied with the arrangements. He intends to remain at Caprera until the battalions are called out, and is by no means certain yet that there will be actually war. He declines the formation of the ten regiments into two brigades and wishes only to have colonels under him, unless the number of battalions be augmented. He wishes Colonel Corte to be the head of his staff, Colonel Acerbi head of the commissariat staff, and Dr. Bertani head of the ambulance. The two former decline the honor and prefer the command of a regiment, or even of a battalion. Besides the twenty battalions there are to be two corps of Genoese and Lombard sharpshooters, commanded by the chief of '59 and '60, Antonio Masto, and a corps of guides on horseback, commanded by Missari, who has just told me that the Government has refused him a single horse, averring that they cannot muster enough for themselves. This will make the corps very aristocratic and exclusive, as none can enter who are not sufficiently wealthy to purchase their own steeds.

Mazzini has issued a manifesto, entitled "The War." Differing from certain members of his party who, through his organ the *Unità Italiana*, published in Milan, have maintained that the Italian democracy ought to take part in no war that is not initiated by the people, the Apostle of Italian Unity insists that the entire country ought to rise and render the war, with allies or without allies, inevitable. "The war for the emancipation of Venice was, up to the present moment, a duty; now it is a necessity. To-day all Italy is Venice; the life, the future, the honor of the nation await their ransom between the Alps and the lagunes. The war ought to be exclusively Italian."

The *Nazione* of Florence publishes a long article on "What the American women did for their wounded," and committees are being formed all over the country in imitation of your "Soldiers' Aid Societies." If your kind countrywomen would help us a little with their experience and surplus stock we should be grateful indeed. When I remember the careless way in which our wounded were thrown across mules or jolted in springless carriages in 1860, and read the accounts of your hospital cars and slung elastic beds, I feel that I would do a great deal to get one or even an exact model of one over here!

The decree for the formation of the volunteer battalions is just issued. This news has rendered the public incredulous of pacific negotiations. "Può darsi," they say, "*ma non è possibile!*" The Austrian legion destined for Mexico has been disbanded in obedience to the threatening note of your Government. A number of the soldiers are incorporated in the Austrian army, but the captain of the Tampico, in the port of Trieste, refuses to allow his passengers to land, as their passage is not paid! J. W.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

WHAT THE FENIAN WAR REALLY IS.

THERE is no question that a very large portion of the apathy with which the Fenian performances are regarded by the public is due to the not unnatural enjoyment which people take in the spectacle of the Canadians suffering from raids. The St. Albans affair and the state of alarm in which the inhabitants of the American border were kept for nearly two years, by the threats of bands of Confederate vagabonds congregated in the Canadian towns, have made a deep impression on the public mind, aggravated, of course, by the "judicial" proceedings at Montreal in which Judge Coursol figured. It would be difficult to find in modern history a case of more wanton and shameless connivance at a great crime on the part of a highly civilized and professedly Christian community. Coursol was, no doubt, a corrupt and ignorant man; but he would never have ventured to parade his ignorance and corruption as he did if he had not well known that his proceedings had the secret sympathy of his neighbors. The Canadians tried to flatter themselves that when General Dix's order was overruled by Mr. Lincoln and the Young affair blew over, that all was over. But the press here warned them the real mischief of the St. Albans affair, and of the impunity enjoyed by the rebel conspirators on Canadian soil, did not lie in the amount of material damage suffered by the United States, but in the fact that they laid the foundation for endless trouble in the future. The Canadians laughed at these warnings then; they now know what they mean. There may be powers in the world strong enough to treat all international obligations with contempt; but even Great Britain is not amongst the number, though she have Canada at her back. The retribution may not always come in the shape of open war, but it generally comes somehow. Roberts and Sweeney are rather contemptible instruments to serve as avengers of international perfidy; but in this instance they do the work pretty faithfully.

That this feeling of soreness on the part of the public here is pretty deep may be inferred from what we have been submitting to for the past month or two. We have witnessed, without the slightest formal indication of dissatisfaction, the creation of an avowedly foreign government in this city, with the various departments and bureaus necessary for carrying on military operations against a power with which we are at peace. We have seen it commission officers, issue bonds, and actually raise an army, open recruiting offices, and collect arms and ammunition, and assemble great bodies of men at rendezvous on our soil, for the purpose of commencing hostilities. We have had the commander-in-chief of this army travelling to and fro on our railroads, with large bodies of men marching on our territory under his command, and have actually seen our lines of telegraph cut by his orders, in order to prevent our own officers and police obtaining information of his movements. We have seen one district-attorney flinch from arresting him, fearing he could not summon force sufficient for his purpose, and have heard the same general-in-chief, when actually engaged in the breach of our laws, warn him that he would come to grief if he meddled with him. We have seen a hostile column leave our soil, invade that of our neighbors, fight on it, and then fall back into our territory again, and the foreign government which he professed to obey issuing a general order, in New York, promoting the man to a brigadiership for his gallantry.

These things are hard to bear. No civilized government ever bore them before from any power not vastly stronger than itself. Austria used to do this sort of thing in the small Italian states, and Napoleon used to do it in those European kingdoms over which he had set viceroys of his own. Of course, we should not have borne with it if the absurdity of the performance had not been so monstrous. Most Americans, who paid any attention to the Fenians during the last year, thought it was a "little game" with which Irishmen not troubled with much occupation were amusing themselves. We think it very unfortunate that this impression prevailed so widely, because it enabled the Robertses and the Sweeneys to persuade their dupes, who are mostly ignorant persons who have no means of getting at the real state of American feeling, that the apathy they witnessed on the part of the public and of the law officers indicated sympathy with their enterprise, and assured them of impunity in carrying it out. They were thus enabled to strip thousands of poor men and women of large sums of hard-earned money, to add to the existing disturbance of the industry of the country by drawing off large bodies of young men to the border, and finally—what we consider more serious than all else—to set before the hundreds of thousands of ignorant foreigners who reach our shore every year a most dangerous example of the way in which the law may be openly defied and contemned in their adopted country. If the Fenian performances of the last six months have not done much to weaken respect for law amongst that now immense class of our population who are still unaccustomed to the self-restraint in which Americans are bred, German and Irish human nature must have undergone some radical change. We greatly fear the Fenian organization is not the last attempt we shall witness in this country to supersede or set aside the national authority, by bodies of men having little or no interest in the national welfare and using the national flag and the American name as a temporary convenience.

It may have been on some accounts wise for the President to abstain from interference till the thing had come to a head. It may be that the suppression of the movement will meet with a support from the public now which it would not have met with had it taken place any sooner. But we do hold that, let the public support it or not, this interference ought to have taken place before blood was shed. We are a Christian people, and no matter what the Canadians have done or left undone, we owe it to our own souls not to let bands of ruffians leave our soil for the purpose of killing their young men and desolating their homes. There are some forms of retaliation to which we cannot descend without guilt, and connivance at or sufferance of Fenian raids is one of them. No matter what sympathy we may have with the wrongs of Ireland, no invasion of Canada by people like these Fenians can be anything but brigandage on a great scale. O'Neill's "battle" was murder—simple murder; Sweeney's battles, if he ever fights any, will be murder—murder committed by the offscourings of our population, led on by adventurers who are ready to fight under any flag for pay and "pickings." People ought to remember this. Calling Sweeney a "general" and Roberts a "President," and their followers "brigades" and "regiments," does not alter their real character. They are, by the law of nations and our law and God's law, still brigands. We say by God's law, because even supposing war to have the Divine sanction, nothing is lawful war which is not undertaken with a reasonable hope of success, or in defence against an attack. But the liberation of Ireland through the killing of Canadians and ravaging of their homes, is just as impracticable as through the invasion of Jamaica or British Guiana—a wild, senseless scheme, which no men of conscience, or honor, or intelligence would enter upon. No Irishman of character or position in either hemisphere has anything to do with the movement, and there is nobody who does not know that the fate of that unfortunate island under the rule of the Sweeneys and O'Mahonys would be ten-fold worse than it is ever likely to be again under that of Great Britain, even supposing the present fair promise of reform to be blighted.

BRIGANDAGE IN NEW YORK.

SOME of our readers may remember that during the last year a night attack was made by a party in disguise upon a house in Oneida County, New York, resulting in the murder of one of the inmates and the severe wounding of another. The house itself was set on fire, but was not destroyed. The telegram which announced this news made the extraordinary statement that the midnight assassins were believed to be highly respectable young men, and that the public generally rather approved of their action. Shortly afterwards, two or three young men were arrested on suspicion of being concerned in the matter, and did in fact appear to be the sons of substantial farmers. The coroner's jury brought in a verdict against them, couched, however, in mild terms, and fresh indications of popular sympathy appeared in their favor.

The county papers stated at the time that the house thus assailed was occupied by a family of noted robbers, who had for years managed to evade the law, and that this attack was made by persons injured by their depredations and rendered desperate by their inability to obtain satisfaction through legal measures.

Several months have elapsed since these events took place, and we had almost forgotten them, when the report of the Prison Association of this city, lately published, recalled them to mind, and gave an account of the motives for this unlawful resort to violence which opens a view of society in the interior of this State that can only be compared to the terrible disorganization of Southern Italy.

According to this statement, the truth of which we see no reason to doubt, the family who were attacked as above-mentioned are noted thieves, who have grown rich by carrying on their business with the aid of an organization spreading over eight or more counties in Central New York. In all these counties they have confederates who interchange plunder with them, and run off stolen property in such manner as to avoid detection. Often indicted, they have never been convicted, and never lie in prison for want of bail. "Respectable" farmers always come forward as their sureties, and are reasonably suspected of being partners in their gains. Magistrates and prosecuting officers are also believed to be in league with these plunderers, who are never reached by the law, but who find no difficulty in using the law as a means of revenge upon those who injure them. Thus, they have caused the detention of a man and his wife in jail upon a charge of larceny, universally disbelieved, for a period of eighteen months, in consequence of the woman having given information against the gang of thieves thus bound together. Many similar cases, it is said, might be mentioned.

Of course a band of robbers thus powerful and malignant do not hesitate to resort to measures of more positive violence than these. Whoever makes himself active in seeking justice against them, speedily finds his barn, or even his dwelling, burned in the night, his horses stolen, or his cattle stabbed in the fields.

A circumstance of this kind, last summer, brought matters to a climax. A constable of Madison County, who had made himself very offensive to rogues, was arrested by two of these thieves, under a warrant from a justice of the peace in their interest, and they were taking him to their own house, instead of to jail, when some citizens of the town of Hamilton compelled them to change their course and carry him directly to the lawful jail. In less than a month, the barns of five of these interfering citizens were burned, and two of their best horses stolen. This outrage determined the people upon taking the law into their own hands, and the result was the midnight assault to which we have referred.

This picture of law defied and, which is far worse, perverted to the service of villany, of plunder organized and triumphant, and of men externally respectable in league with gangs of robbers, is one which may well excite a feeling of shame in every citizen of the State. We fear that it is not in any way exaggerated. We have heard, from residents of Central and Northern New York, charges of complicity with crime against even higher officials than are implicated by this statement. Such rumors are too often founded upon some basis of fact, and though in the particular cases which become public there is frequently more in the rumor than the facts would justify, yet on the other hand it must be remembered that for one instance of official corruption which is made public, there are at least ten which remain secret.

A single fact, which is stated in the same report of the Prison Association from which we have already quoted, seems to indicate the wide prevalence of corruption or inefficiency. It appears that the bail bonds of criminals, though often forfeited, are never enforced. It is not easy to believe that the sureties get off thus easily without making some compromise with the officers who control these bonds; while it is certain that the State derives no benefit from these compromises.

It is hard to say anything as to the means by which these evils may be remedied. The administration of justice in this State, and no doubt in others also, has for many years been tainted with corruption; not certainly as the rule, but in cases of disgraceful frequency. In certain criminal courts, not necessary to be specified, corruption has been the rule, and honesty the exception, for twenty-five years. This state of things was not created by the elective system, for it existed before the judges were elected by the people; but it has certainly grown worse with the advance of time, and has probably been aggravated by the new system. One thing, at least, is certain, that the present division of the State into small districts for the election of judicial officers has been carried too far. To confer, as is now done, the choice of a police justice upon a district in which the majority of the houses are occupied by liquor dealers of the worst kind, brothel-keepers, thieves, and beggars, is as degrading a farce as to give a State prison the election of its warden. And that which we know to be the case in cities we presume to be sometimes the case in the country. There must be towns here and there in which the prevailing influences are of a criminal or at least immoral nature; and such towns ought not to have the power of electing their own judicial officers. We appreciate the difficulties which surround these questions. Government must in the main be administered upon general rules; and, as a general rule, it has been deemed best to entrust the town separately with the election of all town officers. A case of oppression or corruption is more likely to be known through the town than in all the county; and an offender might be, and in fact has often been, re-elected by a large district, when his own neighbors have repudiated him. But we can imagine a plan which should obviate some of these difficulties, though we shall not now enter upon it. The first duty of those who desire to reform the judicial system of the State is to awaken the public to a sense of its present defects, and of the appalling dangers which threaten us from a continuance of its downward tendency.

MR. SEWARD ON THE NEED OF THE NATION.

We are *particeps criminis* with Mr. Hunter, chief clerk of the State Department, in a fraud to the extent of two cents on the Government of the United States. We have received from that gentleman, under his frank, generally supposed to cover official business, and to be lawfully used for that purpose alone, a neatly-executed pamphlet containing Mr. Seward's last Auburn speech, and though the print has a suspicious look of the Government printing-house, we shall keep it, even at the expense of encouraging the pious error that our income tax is levied to publish and distribute Mr. Seward's personal out-givings. We shall do so, for the purpose of calling attention to these few sentences which occur on page nine, and contain the substance of the whole speech:

> "What, then, does the nation need? It needs just what I have dwelt upon so much and so earnestly in these remarks; it needs reconciliation, and just now needs nothing more. It needs, moreover, only a very little of this. It needs a reconciliation between the senators of the United States who are now acting and those senators who, being loyal and qualified for membership of the Senate, have been already, or may hereafter be, elected by the people of the several States which were lately involved in the rebellion. It needs a reconciliation of the same kind between the members of the House of Representatives who are now acting and loyal members already elected, or to be elected, by the people in the same before-mentioned States. It needs just this Congressional reconciliation, and nothing more."

It seems to us that this is a very grave mistake. Doubtless the nation needs reconciliation. But of what? Of the passions war usually engenders? They can hardly be said to exist in the North; and the people of the North, who, whether we regard their numbers, strength, fidelity to the national institutions, or hope and faith in a national future, really are the nation, need no reconciliation with the people of the South, because, practically, they harbor no hatred toward them. Nor is it fair to say that there is need that our actual members of Congress need a reconciliation with those who claim to be members of Congress, and are not, from the Southern States. Such men as Senators Fessenden, Trumbull, and Sherman have no bad feeling, and represent none, towards such men as Marvin, of Florida, or his constituents. Messrs. Boutwell, Conkling, Washburne, Wilson, of the House, have no quarrel, and want none, with Maynard or with Stokes—whom a Democratic paper, with characteristic courtesy, calls the "ribboned ox of the Radicals"—nor can there be any quarrel between the people of the North and those who sent Messrs. Maynard and Stokes to Washington.

What the country needs is something which Mr. Seward very gayly,

but entirely, ignores—the reconciliation of the conflict between "two radically different political systems," which he declared in 1858 to be impossible, and which has proved itself so by bringing about the late war, and by defying the unstinted pardons of the President and the most powerful sedatives of the Secretary of State. That these conflicting systems, in their distinctive principles, still exist, is plain from what Mr. Seward himself said about their results. Where one prevails, an aristocratic ruling class is the sure accompaniment; where the other prevails, "universal suffrage obtains, and the State inevitably becomes, sooner or later, a republic or a democracy." In the Southern States "lately involved in the rebellion" the system recognized by Mr. Johnson and his Secretary includes and, indeed, is controlled by an aristocratic ruling class, principally distinguished for their violence during the rebellion, and their defiant opposition to the principles of republican government since. The system, on the other hand, which the large body of intelligent and conscientious Republicans in the North wish to prevail, involves universal, or, what is a better phase of the same principle, impartial suffrage, and seeks the establishment of a true republic.

It is the conflict between these two that must have reconciliation; and though we believe a man has a right in a republican government to change his mind for the better, Mr. Seward was so much sounder in 1858 than he is in 1866, that we use words of his spoken then to show the incalculable and inherent superiority of the system of freedom over the system which, in all its forms, is essentially the system of slavery. Contrasting the two, he said of the former: "It opens all the fields of industrial employment and all the departments of authority to the unchecked and equal rivalry of all classes of men, and at once secures universal contentment, and brings into the highest possible activity all the physical, moral, and social energies of the whole State." Does Mr. Seward now hope for any better kind of peace than is thus promised? He pleaded, then, that that principle "conforms to the divine law of equality which is written in the hearts and consciences of men, and therefore is always and everywhere beneficent." Is there any other principle from which Mr. Seward can now prophesy any nobler or surer result?

No. Mr. Seward is, it seems to us, seriously and dangerously mistaken, and if the thoughtful men of the Republican party are inclined to follow him—which we do not fear—let them take warning from a lesson read to them from history by Mr. Seward himself:

"The Democratic party derived its strength, originally, from its adoption of the principle of equal and exact justice to all men. So long as it practised this principle faithfully it was invulnerable. It became vulnerable when it renounced the principle, and since that time has maintained itself not by virtue of its own strength or even of its traditional merits, but because there as yet had appeared in the political field no other party that had the conscience to take up and avow and practise the life-inspiring principle which the Democratic party had surrendered."

AIR AND ARCHITECTURE.

As one man's calamity is often another man's opportunity, we would make bold to suggest to our Palladios and Vanbrughs that the calamity which has just deprived us of our opera-house furnishes them with an admirable opportunity to provide us with another such as the world has never yet seen. We do not mean that they should make it an astonishment to the nations with their façades, and their pillars, and their pilasters, and their thin slices of marble or of brown stone spread over meagre scantlings of brick-work, like boarding-school bread and butter, for we shall have all that, of course. And so of the graven images, the caryatides, the cupids, the carved work, and the frescoes, for we cannot hope to escape them in new combinations of horrors. What we would humbly suggest to their better judgment is, that they should take into their grave consideration the existence of the two elements of fire and air, and exercise their genius in the invention of methods for keeping the first out of their new construction and for letting the second in. Now we apprehend that it is perfectly within the possibilities of science and art to make a theatre that shall be absolutely fireproof, and we think, moreover, that there could not be a better advertisement, not even in the New York *Herald*, for the one that shall first be made such, than the statement of the fact. Very few persons are absolutely free from the shuddering suggestion of the unescapable horrors of a conflagration, should one take place, when they find themselves in a crowded theatre. It may be a mere prejudice of education that makes one object to going up in a flame of fire, when one's time has come, but it prevails extensively and should be respected. We are well aware of the recklessness of the American race to all manner of avoidable as well as inevitable dangers. But, still, we think that a fair average even of them would prefer, the entertainment being equally good, to amuse themselves at a theatre where they should be absolutely safe from the inconvenience of being burned alive. We presume that the tenth part of what it will cost to rebuild the Academy, expended originally in making a fire impossible, would have been no bad economy for the owners. The saving in insurance alone would have paid the difference in the cost ten times over.

But, while we would have our artist in brick and mortar contrive to make the coming opera-house fire-proof, we would as earnestly entreat him to avoid making it air-proof, as the common custom is. The ancients classed air among what they queerly enough styled the *non-naturals*—such as food, rest, exercise, and some other functions which shall be nameless. One would think that this element was still regarded by our builders, and those they build for, as still belonging to the category of *non-naturals*, in the literal and vulgar signification of the compound term. But we beg leave to differ from this prevalent opinion, even at the risk of being thought radical and fanatical. We assert, with all due humility, that air is not only necessary to our animal existence, but that it cannot properly perform its wholesome offices unless it be pure. The Creator has done his part well as to this matter. The vast sea of air, at the bottom of which we creep about as fishes which Agassiz has never imagined do on the bed of the ocean stream, is constantly renewing and purifying itself by the imperative laws of its being. It is only when we can lay hold of a portion of it and confine it within walls, as nearly hermetically sealed as may be, and do our best to prevent its escape or its refreshment from without, that it becomes stagnant and putrid, and a poison instead of a healthsome draught, sparkling with invigorating life. And it is only because nature is too strong for us and refuses to permit us to defy her as utterly as we fain would do, that we are even as well off as we are. She will insist upon forcing air into our houses, public and private, and not allowing us to turn them into exhausted receivers and Black Holes of Calcutta as thoroughly as we would. Still, we are competent to disappoint her of much of her kind intentions, and to turn what she gave us as the means of health and joy into the occasion of sickness and pain and death. Many of the diseases which make life burdensome while it lasts, and bring it to an untimely ending, and especially those of the lungs, we create ourselves by our folly in transforming the *pabulum* of life into its bane.

For we would by no means affirm or insinuate that the builders of theatres are sinners above all other abusers of building-materials. Lecture-rooms, concert-rooms, school-rooms, and churches are, too many, if not all of them, in the same condemnation. Who has not felt "an exposition of sleep," like that Bottom experienced, and which sometimes leads to an exposition of himself, stealing over him at the very gayest moment of the comedy or at the blackest horror of the tragedy or melodrama? We ourself went last winter, one night, to see Booth in "Richelieu," and we cannot affirm to this hour, from our own knowledge, whether he was "the state" or not. And so of the lecture-room and the concert-hall. Indeed, not a few persons of delicate organizations avoid all public places because the murdered air they helped to kill in them haunts them the next morning in the ghostly shape of a nervous headache. For every pair of lungs is as much an apparatus for making carbonic acid gas as a chafing-dish of charcoal, and disoxygenizes (if there be such a word) more than a hogshead full of air every hour. Even the sanctity of the church is not sufficient, now the days of miracles are over, to suspend the laws of nature or to avoid the penalty for breaking them. We have been told on good authority that instances have been known of wicked men sleeping soundly under the loudest thunders of the pulpit, and that through the longest and soundest sermon! But since our churches seem to be built generally on the principle that the air, as a part of the domain of the Prince

of the Powers thereof, is to be defied and kept out of them as a religious duty, some indulgence, if not full absolution, may be allowed to these sleepy sinners. The school-houses, again, as almost universally built, seem to be contrived for the purpose of ascertaining by actual experiment with how little air small animals can do without positive asphyxiation. And private houses differ from those intended for public uses, pious or otherwise, chiefly in the smaller number of pairs of lungs that have to deal with the modicum of air which is thought sufficient for the consumption of a family.

In brief, the perversity of men has shown itself in few things more than in the pains they take to cabin, crib, and confine the freest, and to debauch and pollute the purest, of all God's gifts to man. Now, certainly, this need not be so. There must be ways by which the atmosphere of the most thronged churches, theatres, or lecture-rooms shall be as pure and sweet as the circumambient air itself. And as soon as the consumers demand that those ways shall be found out, the discovery will be sure to be made. It is the office of art, informed and inspired by science, to seek out more and more excellent ways of applying the bounties of nature to the uses of man. This is material civilization, and we are barbarians, with all our ornamentations, as long as the laws of God are not fully understood and practically applied to the business of daily life. A wide and beneficent field lies yet scarcely touched for the genius and skill of the architect to work in. He who will contrive to combine perfect purity of air with warmth and light, in crowded churches, theatres, and school-rooms, as well as in private houses, will be a benefactor to his race, and will deserve, at least, to be as famous as he who hung Peter's dome in air.

THE METRICAL SYSTEM OF WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

THE French metrical system is based upon a fundamental unit, or measure, of *length*, called by the well-chosen name *metre*. This standard measure was sought in the sublimest of all sciences, astronomy. It is the 40-millionth part of the circumference of the earth, or, in other words, of a "great circle" or meridian. Its length was originally determined by actual measurement of a considerable arc of a meridian; from the measured length of this arc was obtained by multiplication the length of the whole meridian, and the metre was defined and constructed the 40-millionth part of this meridian. It was a worthy thought thus to base the familiar standard of length for common human uses upon the grand and unchanging bulk of our planet, but we do not thus arrive at a standard which can know no change, and which could be exactly replaced if all the actual metres in the world should be simultaneously destroyed. Though the laws of astronomy and the circuit of the earth know no variableness, man's knowledge of those laws and his skill in measuring that circuit do constantly change. Hence we find that the various measurements heretofore made of the length of the earth's meridian differ slightly from each other, and it is to be expected, and indeed hoped, that the steady improvement of methods and instruments will make each successive determination of the length of the meridian better than the preceding, through all time. Whether, therefore, we use the yard or the metre, whether we theoretically base our standard upon the earth's circumference or the second-pendulum, we are practically obliged to define our standard of length, by legislation, to be a certain rod of metal, deposited in a certain room under specified guaranties and guardianship. The uniformity and permanence of the standard are to be secured by the multiplication of exact copies in safe places of deposit.

From this single quantity, the metre, all other measures are decimally derived. Multiplied or divided by 10, by 100, by 1,000, and so forth, the metre supplies all needed linear measures, from the finest which the microscope requires to the vastest which the telescope demands. As the linear metre, decimally multiplied and divided, furnishes the universal linear scale, so the square metre and the cubic metre, with their decimal multiples, supply all needed measures of *area* or *surface*, on the one hand, and of *solidity* or *capacity*, on the other. It is the universality and comprehensiveness of this system and its decimal character which establish its claim to general acceptance. The insect's wing, a nation's territory, a grain of sand, a continent's bulk, are all measured by reference to the same unit, and the numbers which express their dimensions conform at once, without reduction or alteration, to our decimal arithmetical notation. The American people need no elaborate demonstration of the convenience of a decimal system; a decimal currency, by them first established, has convinced them on this point.

From the unit of measure to the unit of weight, the transition is admirably simple and convenient. The cube of the 1-100 of the linear metre is, of course, the millionth of the cubic metre. Its bulk is comparable to that of a large *die* of the common backgammon board. This little cube, the millionth of the cubic metre, of pure water is the universal unit of weight, a *gramme*, which, decimally multiplied and divided, is made to express all weights, from that of the dust upon the balance to that of mountains and suns. The chemist uses the gramme itself as his unit, and his delicate balances readily weigh the ten-thousandth of a gramme; the thousand-gramme weight is the unit of the grocer, and his coarser scales hardly turn with the gramme itself, while for heavy merchandise, like coal or hay, the million-gramme weight (the English ton) is the suitable unit. The numbers expressing all weights, from the least to the greatest, find direct expression in the decimal notation; the weights used in different trades only differ from each other in being different decimal multiples of the same fundamental unit; and in comparing together weights and volumes, none but easy decimal computations are ever necessary.

From this general sketch of the metrical system we pass to its details and its nomenclature, which may be best studied under the three heads of linear, surface, and cubic measure. One general principle of nomenclature applies to each of the following tables. The Greek prefixes for 10, 100, and 1,000, viz., deca, hecto, and kilo, are used to signify multiplication, while the Latin prefixes for 10, 100, and 1,000, viz., deci, centi, and milli, are employed to express subdivision. Of the names thus systematically derived from that of the unit in each table many are not often used; the names in common use are those printed in small capitals. Thus, in the table for linear measure, only the metre, kilometre, centimetre, and millimetre are in common use—the first for such purposes as the English yard subserves, the second instead of the English mile, the third and fourth in lieu of the fractions of the English foot and inch.

LINEAR MEASURE.

		Metre.
Divisions..	MILLIMETRE,	0.001 or 1-1,000 of a metre.
	CENTIMETRE,	0.01 or 1-100 "
	Decimetre,	0.1 or 1-10 "
Unit.....	METRE,	1.
Multiples..	Decametre,	10.
	Hectometre,	100.
	KILOMETRE,	1,000.

SURFACE MEASURE.

Divisions..	Millimetre square,	0.000,001 of a metre square.	
	Centimetre square,	0.000,1 "	"
	Decimetre square,	0.01 "	"
Unit.....	METRE SQUARE,	1. "	"

This table for surface measure applies to the measurement of cloth, lumber, and the like, and to the measurement of land where it is very valuable, as in cities; but for measuring land upon a large scale the metre square is too small a unit to start from, so that a square of ten metres on the side, equal to one hundred square metres, has been selected as the surface unit for measuring land, and the Greek and Latin prefixes are applied to the name of this unit square, which is called an *area*, or *are*. Of the seven names thus formed only two are much used, viz., the are and the hectare.

SURFACE (LAND) MEASURE.

		Are.	Square Metres.
Divisions..	Milliare	0.001	0.1
	Centiare	0.01	1.
	Deciare	0.1	10.
Unit.....	ARE	1.	100.
Multiples..	Decare	10.	1,000.
	HECTARE	100.	10,000.
	Kilare	1,000.	100,000.

CUBIC MEASURE.

		Cubic Metre.
Divisions..	Cubic Millimetre	0.000,000,001
	Cubic Centimetre	0.000,001
	Cubic Decimetre	0.001
Unit.....	CUBIC METRE	1.
Multiples..	Cubic Decametre	1,000.
	Cubic Hectometre	1,000,000.
	Cubic Kilometre	1,000,000,000.

The cubic metre is in common use as a measure for stone, sand, gravel, wood for fuel, and like materials which are sold by measure. When applied to the measurement of wood for fuel the cubic metre is sometimes called a *stere*, and to this name the Greek and Latin prefixes may be, but seldom are, applied.

For the measurement of wine, beer, oil, grain, and similar wet and dry substances, a smaller unit than the cubic metre is desirable. As a special unit was made from the square of the decametre for land measurement, so the cubic decimetre is selected as a special standard of capacity for the measurement of those substances which are bought and sold by the English wet and dry measures. The cubic decimetre thus used is called a *litre*.

CAPACITY MEASURE.

		Litres.		Cubic Metres.	
Divisions..	Millilitre	0.001	=	0.000,001	= cubic centimetre.
	Centilitre	0.01	=	0.000,01	
	Decilitre	0.1	=	0.000,1	
Unit.....	LITRE	1.	=	0.001	= cubic decimetre.
Multiples..	Decalitre	10.	=	0.01	
	HECTOLITRE	100.	=	0.1	
	Kilolitre	1,000.	=	1.	= cubic metre.

Of the measures contained in this table only two, the litre and the hectolitre, are in very common use, though they are all more or less employed.

The table of weights bears an intimate relation to this table of capacity. As already mentioned, the weight of that die-sized cube, a cubic centimetre or millilitre of distilled water (taken at 4° C., its point of greatest density), constitutes the metrical unit of weight. This weight is called a *gramme*. From the very definition of the gramme and from the table of capacity measure it is clear that a litre of distilled water at 4° C. will weigh 1,000 grammes.

WEIGHTS.

		Grammes.		
Divisions..	MILLIGRAMME	0.001		
	CENTIGRAMME	0.01		
	DECIGRAMME	0.1		
Unit.....	GRAMME	1.1	=	cubic centimetre of water at 4°.
Multiples..	Decagramme	10.		
	Hectogramme	100.		
	KILOGRAMME	1,000.	=	1 cubic decimetre of water at 4°.

The beautiful simplicity and directness of the relations between weights and volumes in the metrical system can now be more fully explained. The chemist or apothecary, for example, uses the gramme as his unit weight, and for his unit of volume, or measure, a cubic centimetre, which is the bulk of a gramme of water. The grocer, for his coarser work, uses the kilogramme as his unit of weight, and for unit of measure, the bulk of a kilogramme of water, the litre. A boat displaces a certain number of cubic metres of fresh water; it weighs then the same number of 1,000 kilogrammes, since a litre of water weighs a kilogramme, and a thousand litres make a cubic metre. In all commercial dealings, in all manufacturing processes and scientific investigations, these simple relations between weights and measures are an unspeakable advantage.

The number and length of the names included in the above tables may perhaps deter some minds from the really easy task of mastering this simple and consistent system. One obvious suggestion will, however, remove this seeming difficulty. Since the numerical expressions for metrical weights and measures are invariably decimal, they may always be read as decimals. Thus, 5.126 metres will be read, five metres and one hundred and twenty-six thousands, and not, five metres, one decimetre, two centimetres, and six millimetres. So, 5.26 hectares may be read, five hectares and twenty-six hundredths, or five hundred and twenty-six ares, but not, five hectares, two decares, and six ares. Or again, the expression 10.5 grammes is read, ten and five-tenths grammes; 16.56 kilogrammes, sixteen and fifty-six hundredths kilogrammes. This point will be readily comprehended by comparison with our manner of reading figures in our decimal currency. We read $105 00 one hundred and five dollars, not ten eagles and five dollars; we say sixty-five cents, not six dimes and five cents. It should be remembered, in this connection, that the metrical system of weights, measures, and coinage does away with the so-called compound addition, subtraction, multiplication, division, and reduction, and with all fractions not decimal. All computations, under this system, are made with decimals alone.

The following abbreviations are very commonly and advantageously used in writing and printing:

m. m. for millimetre; $\overline{\text{m. m.}}^{-2}$ for square m. m.; $\overline{\text{m. m.}}^{-3}$ for cubic m. m.

c. m. " centimetre; $\overline{\text{c. m.}}^{-2}$ " " c. m.; $\overline{\text{c. m.}}^{-3}$ " " c. m.

k. m. " kilometre.

m. " metre; $\overline{\text{m.}}^{-2}$ " " m.; $\overline{\text{m.}}^{-3}$ " " m.

L. " litre; Hecto. for hectolitre.

Grm. " gramme; Kilo. or K. for kilogramme.

It remains to bring the weights and measures of this philosophical system into comparison with those of the irrational and complicated English scheme, which we have so unfortunately inherited:

1 metre=1.0936 yard=3.2809 feet=39.3708 inches.
1 are=3.9574 perches=119.6033 square yards=0.0247 acres.
1 hectare=395.7388 perches=2.471 acres.
1 cubic metre=35.3166 cubic feet=1.3080 cubic yard.
1 litre=1.7608 imp. pint=0.2201 imp. gallon=61.0271 cubic inches.
1 gramme=15.4340 grains Avoirdupois=15.4424 grains Troy.
1 kilogramme=2.204 pounds Avoirdupois=2.6795 pounds Troy.
1000. kilos=2204. pounds Avoirdupois.

In making these comparisons it must be borne in mind that we now have two different weights called a pound, two different tons, and two different measures called a gallon. The two pounds are to each other nearly in the ratio of 35 to 29, and the two gallons are related to each other as 277.274 to 231.

When we extend our view beyond the territory of any single nation, and take into consideration international exchanges and the statistics of different countries, the obstacles to commerce and to the diffusion of knowledge which are due to the want of one universally accepted system of weights and measures throughout the civilized world become more and more apparent. If only the great nations had different standards, the evil would be serious, but less intolerable than it actually is, for it often happens that the different provinces of a single nation, and not seldom its petty cities and towns, employ special weights and measures whose acceptance is very narrowly local. It would be hard to exaggerate the difficulties thus thrown in the way of statisticians, and of all other students who desire to compare the experience of different nations, or the scientific researches of philosophers writing in different languages. In the sciences of chemistry and physics this evil became so intolerable that the metrical system has already come into general use among all the scientific communities of Europe and America.

The recent action of Congress is good as far as it goes; but the national Government has it in its power, as never before, to bring about this purely beneficent revolution with promptness and thoroughness. If the metrical system were at once exclusively employed in all the dealings of the Government, in all the business of the customs, the internal revenue, the post-office, the patent-office, the army and navy bureaus, and the administration of the public lands and public improvements, the people of the United States, than whom none are more prompt to seize a new thing, so it be good, will be in full possession of this inestimable improvement within five years. In the meantime it is to be hoped that the commission, which the President is authorized to appoint for negotiating with foreign governments, may be so constituted as to represent effectively the best statesmanship, business capacity, and science of the country, that they may carry weight in the council of nations. The commission is charged with the subject of coinage as well as that of weights and measures, and upon that subject American experience is of special value. Our borrowed system of weights and measures would doubtless give place to the metrical system; but for a standard of value there is no unit so deserving of general adoption, or so likely to be adopted, as the Spanish, Mexican, and American dollar.

CURIOSITIES OF CRIME.

LAST summer a curious psychological study was afforded by the confession of a Swedish pastor named Lindback, who had been guilty of poisoning three invalid paupers in his parish. So far from exhibiting any remorse for these crimes when they were detected and he imprisoned, he calmly, if not confidently, explained the process by which his mind was brought to the commission of them. A purely philanthropic spirit, fortified by the contemplation of suffering and misery, had induced him to relieve the wretched objects of his ministration by hastening their death. He had observed, he said, that very few die of years, but the great majority from some external cause which God either provides or at least does not hinder. Many, in the flower of their age, destroy themselves involuntarily through a misuse of their intelligence. Many perish under the treatment of the most skilful physicians—some being thrust back from a near recovery. Science, as well as ignorance, plays a leading part in the causes productive of death. A merciful God, he thought, who was aware of all this, would not judge him harshly for abridging the pains of his fellow-creatures.

Pastor Lindback went the way of other convicted murderers, not, probably, with the execration which attends the common sort, possibly even with pity. His reasoning was plausible, if utterly unsound; and as intelligible, supposing it genuine, as his offence was unpardonable in a court of justice. We are reminded of it by a case which has occurred in this country within sixty days, developing a state of mind sufficiently analogous to his. Mrs. Sarah Haviland is on trial at Marshall, Michigan, for the murder of her three children. She is accused jointly with a man who appears to be regarded as her paramour, and the person for whose sake or at whose instigation she poisoned her little ones. The incomplete report before us does not allow us to confirm this suspicion, which, on the other hand, is expressly denied by the mother in the latter particular, and by implication in the first. Her voluntary confession is in substance as follows: She was the wife of a drunken husband, with whom the family "could have no peace," and who frequently drove her out of doors after dark, because, to use her own words, "I believed in spiritualism." A year ago she deserted him and went to live in Battle Creek, hoping there to purchase with her own property a home for

herself and children, and to obtain for the latter the benefits of the local Lyceum. Disappointed in both respects, she would have experienced great suffering but for the assistance of her present fellow-prisoner. Her efforts to earn her support by peddling books in the streets were unsuccessful and disheartening, and increased her maternal solicitude for the future.

"I had hard work," she says, "to keep my children where they should be, the little boys especially. I had always tried to bring them up honestly, but as they grew older I saw the disposition of their father manifested in them, and I was all the time uneasy if they were out of my sight, for fear they would get to stealing or their father would get the little ones. When I looked forward to the time when my children should be grown up men and women, I feared for them that they would have to suffer by transgressing the laws of the land; and I thought as I had been the author of their existence, in a measure, it was better to send them to the spirit world while they were innocent, and if any one would have to suffer, I would do it instead of them. . . . The two little ones, John and Libbie, their father being a thief and a drunkard, I feared if he took the children from me they would walk in his steps; and, as I looked to the future, I saw a worse fate for my daughter Libbie if he had her."

The significant phrase "in a measure" is enlarged further on:

"My children, the three now dead, I was forced to have against my consent; but I did try to bring them up as well as I knew how, nor did I ever misuse them in any other way."

After describing the means she employed to poison them, she says: "I took care of my children and watched over them until the last breath." For the rest: "I feel that what I have done is to be settled between me and my God and the spirit world."

The example of Pastor Lindback forbids us to ascribe Mrs. Haviland's shocking and unnatural behavior to her peculiar religious ideas. His, which were probably the very opposite, did not deter him from deliberate murder, and he had to face not only his Maker and the spirits of those whose departure he had hastened, but, in case of condemnation, the terrors of a place of everlasting punishment. As for "spiritualism," the last charge that can be laid at its door is that it weakens the ties of kindred. It may have disturbed many households, like other theologies about which man and wife have opportunity to differ and quarrel, but the power of its propagandism lies in the proofs it seems to offer of a conscious existence hereafter and of a reunion beyond the grave. The fallacy by which each criminal was deluded differed in nothing except, as we may say, in degree, and was based upon a common recognition of human accountability. The pastor felt himself responsible for the actual misery which he might abridge; Mrs. Haviland, for the prospective misfortunes of her children which she might likewise avert. The one, perhaps, was led by his office, as the other was by her relationship, to a deed which, it was expected, God would view at least with leniency, possibly with approbation. Both reckoned up the chances of their victims and struck the balance against them, launching them at once upon a life of whose conditions they knew nothing, and upon which those who have most studiously prepared themselves are not seldom the least bold to enter.

For the mother of unwelcome offspring, Mrs. Haviland, to accept her own statements, must be allowed to have shown no lack of affection. Had she been a coward, or harbored malice towards her husband, she might have abandoned her children to their fate either before or after her flight from home. Yet it does not appear that her apprehension for their welfare was exaggerated by an excess of fondness. There were good reasons for believing that they had the disposition of their father, and she doubtless felt that her control of them was proportionate to her ability to feed and rear them, which was very slim indeed. And the moment she was seized with the notion that she would be morally responsible for their perdition and the harm they were destined to inflict upon others, she was irrecoverably lost. To her confused perception there was no self-evident absurdity in protecting society from contingent lawlessness by committing the most grievous possible offence against it.

One other case of infanticide, not to be mentioned by an American without a blush, is indelibly fastened upon the annals of slavery. Margaret Garner, at Cincinnati, killed her child that it might not grow up a slave. Men who were wont to honor the memory of Virginius, hesitated to refuse to that poor black the title of heroine. She, too, reckoned the chances and decided adversely to life—as it seemed then, with much better reason than Pastor Lindback or Mrs. Haviland. There was no sentiment about her. If she thought of the hereafter, it was only to resolve that any hell would be a refuge from that out of which she had escaped, and to which she was about to be dragged back. Far be it from us to doubt that she has found equal mercy with that hoped for by those whose names we have coupled with hers. She erred just as fatally, however, albeit more ignorantly, and rather from strength of passion than feebleness of intellect. If it is demoralizing to avoid our proper responsibility, it is also dangerous to surpass it. They are to be commiserated, even while censured, who have chosen the wrong issue from so grave a perplexity.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday, June 7, 1866.

WE are beginning to receive from Europe the reply to our first gold shipments, and already a better feeling is reported to prevail on the London Stock Exchange. Our securities were in better demand, and bankers felt grateful at the unexpected aid they were receiving from this country. The news has reacted upon our markets. Gold, which had risen to 146½ on Tuesday, fell back to 144 on Wednesday; to-day at 3 P.M. it stands at 142⅝. Exchange is firmer; sixty-day sterling bills have been selling at 110, and sight bills at 111. Specie continues to go forward freely. Yesterday, from Boston and from this port, $3,765,000 were shipped, and on Saturday some four millions more will probably go. Not a dollar of the gold sold by the Government will be kept in the country. Letters have been published by Secretary McCulloch and Assistant-Treasurer Vandyke with the design of justifying the sale of fifteen millions of public gold at 130, after the news of the Euro

pean panic had been received. They are well written; but they have failed to convince the public that it was for the interests of the Government or of the mercantile community to sell the specie reserve at a price below that which it would naturally have commanded had the Government officials left the market to itself. The experience of the past four years tells very strongly against official interference with the natural workings of trade, and it would not be surprising if, before the adjournment, Congress should adopt some measures with a view to check future intermeddling with the gold market by the Treasury officials.

Money is again very easy at 6 per cent. The Sub-Treasury has been disbursing quite heavily—the balance now $87,000,000—and the banks cannot find employment for the surplus currency thus thrust upon them. People have got over the idea that there is to be any contraction; it is about time.

The stock market continues active and variable. The last novelty has been a simultaneous corner in Erie and New York Central, both of which were on Tuesday and yesterday locked up by cliques and made quite scarce for delivery. As much as ¼ per cent. was paid on each of these days for the use of the stock. The New York Central clique must have invested many millions of money in their operation. How they calculate to make it pay, is a problem. An attempt to sell would cause the price to fall 10 per cent. in a day or two. Erie continues to be the subject of angry discussion in the newspapers. The bulls are furious with the company for having borrowed money of Mr. Drew, and with Mr. Drew for having lent the money. In fact, the former had no choice but to borrow the money somewhere, and as to Mr. Drew, we judge he is the only man in or out of the United States who would lend 60 on Erie. A new movement has been inaugurated in the Northwest stocks, on the basis of increased earnings. The directors meet next week, and will probably pass the dividend on the preferred stock. Fort Wayne and Rock Island are rather lower and neglected. The clique in Reading appear to be selling their stock. Governments are well supported in the face of receipts of bonds from Europe.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	May 31.	June 4.	June 7.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	109¼	105¾ ex. int	105¾	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102	102	102¾	¾	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102⅛	102	102¼	¼	....
10-40 Bonds	95⅞	96	96	...	....
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅝	102⅛	102¾	....	⅛
New York Central	98	98⅛	98	....	⅛
Erie Railway	60⅛	62⅛	62⅛	....	....
Hudson River	113	110¾	110	....	¾
Reading Railroad	109¾	108⅝	109	⅛	....
Michigan Southern	81	80¼	79	....	1¼
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	84	85	83⅛	....	1⅛
Chicago and North-western	28¾	28¼	30¼	2	....
" " " Preferred	58	58¼	61	2¾	....
Chicago and Rock Island	94	93	92¾	....	¼
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	97⅞	96¾	97¼	⅛	....
Canton	59¾	60	60	....	....
Cumberland	45	45¼	46	¾	....
Mariposa	12	12⅛	12	....	⅛
American Gold	139⅞	143¼	142⅝	....	⅝
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅜	109½	109⅞	....	⅜
Call Loans	6	6	6	....	....

HOME

INSURANCE COMPANY

OF NEW YORK,

OFFICE, 135 BROADWAY.

Cash Capital, - - - - - - - $2,000,000 00
Assets, 1st Jan., 1866, - - - - 3,598,674 14
Liabilities, - - - - - - - - 153,746 24

FIRE, MARINE, and INLAND

INSURANCE.

Agencies at all important points throughout the United States.

CHAS. J. MARTIN, PRESIDENT.
A. F. WILMARTH, VICE-PRESIDENT.
JOHN McGEE, Secretary.
J. H. WASHBURN, Assistant Secretary.

Insurance Scrip.

WILLIAM C. GILMAN,

46 PINE STREET, NEW YORK,

BUYS AND SELLS INSURANCE SCRIP.

NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over - - - - - - - - -	$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over - - - - - -	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - -	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - - - -	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - - -	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force.

Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

We refer to the Massachusetts and New York Insurance Commissioners' Reports for 1864 and 1865 as an evidence of the Safety, Reliability, and Unparalleled Success of the Union Mutual.

J. W. & H. JUDD, GENERAL AGENTS.

☞ Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

NIAGARA FIRE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 12 WALL STREET.

CASH CAPITAL INCREASED TO - - - - - - -	$1,000,000
SURPLUS, JAN. 1, 1865, - - - - - - - - -	275,253

Losses equitably adjusted and promptly paid.

CHARTERED 1850.

Cash Dividends paid in fourteen years, 248 per cent.

JONATHAN D. STEELE, President.
P. NOTMAN, Secretary.

PACIFIC

MUTUAL INSURANCE COMPANY,

TRINITY BUILDING, 111 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, JANUARY 1, 1866, - - - - - - - - $1,164,380

DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024
Total profit for eleven years	$1,896,330
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.	1,107,244

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.
THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

THE FOURTH NATIONAL BANK

HAVE REMOVED TO THEIR NEW

BANKING ROOM,

NASSAU STREET, NORTHEAST CORNER OF PINE STREET,

Opposite United States Treasury.

GOVERNMENT SECURITIES

At all times on hand at lowest prices.

DEMULCENT SOAP,

FOR CHAPPED AND TENDER HANDS,

FOR TOILET AND BATH USE.

MANUFACTURED ONLY BY

J. C. HULL'S SON,

32 PARK ROW, N. Y.

Upwards of 100 styles of Toilet and Staple Soaps. For sale by all Dealers.

OAKLEY & MASON,

PUBLISHERS, BOOKSELLERS, STATIONERS,

AND BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

21 MURRAY STREET,

OLD STAND OF PRATT, OAKLEY & Co.,

Between Broadway and Church Street, New York.

DECKER & CO.,

MANUFACTURERS OF PIANO-FORTES,

419 BROOME STREET,

One Block East of Broadway, N. Y.

These Pianos stand unrivalled in regard to their singing quality; volume and purity of tone; sympathetic, elastic, and even touch; and durability of construction, which enables them to remain in tune much longer than ordinary Pianos.

SPRING CLOTHING!

Spring Clothing!!

FOR

MEN AND BOYS.

Garments made to order.

GENTS' FURNISHING GOODS,

Etc., Etc.,

AT

FREEMAN & BURR'S

One Price Clothing Warehouse,

124 Fulton and 90 Nassau Streets,

Opposite the Sun Building, New York.

We are now selling a large and complete stock of Ready-made Clothing for Gents' and Boys' wear, at from 10 to 40 per cent. below former prices.

The Horace Waters

Grand, Square, and Upright PIANOS, MELODEONS, HARMONIUMS, and CABINET ORGANS. Wholesale and retail, at reduced prices. To let, and rent allowed if purchased. Monthly payments received for the same. Second-hand Pianos at bargains, prices $60, $75, $100, $125, $150, $175, $200, and $225. Factory and Warerooms, 481 Broadway. Cash paid for second-hand Pianos.

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PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
They are more fire-proof.
They are more burglar-proof.
They are perfectly dry.
They do not lose their fire-proof qualities by age.
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Send for a descriptive Circular.

ARCHER & PANCOAST,

Manufacturers of

GAS FIXTURES,

COAL-OIL LAMPS, CHANDELIERS, Etc.,

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,528 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands or agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.
CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., GEORGE WILKES, M.D., } Medical Examiners.
CHARLES WRIGHT, M.D., Assistant Med. Examiner.

RAVEN & BACON'S PIANO-FORTES.

(ESTABLISHED 1829.)

A full assortment of these Instruments, which have been well known in the New York market for more than thirty years, constantly on hand. We are continually adding improvements to our Pianos, and our facilities enable us to furnish them at terms and prices satisfactory to purchasers. Pictorial circulars sent by mail.

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98 Broadway, New York.

Vaux, Withers & Co.,

ARCHITECTS,

110 Broadway.

Olmsted, Vaux & Co.,

LANDSCAPE ARCHITECTS.

The undersigned have associated under the above title for the business of advising on matters of location, and furnishing Designs and Superintendence for Architectural and Engineering Works, including the Laying-out of Towns, Villages, Parks, Cemeteries, and Gardens.

FRED. LAW OLMSTED,
CALVERT VAUX,
110 Broadway, FRED'K C. WITHERS.
New York, January 1, 1866.

FRANCIS & LOUTREL,

45 MAIDEN LANE, NEW YORK,

STATIONERS, STEAM PRINTERS,

AND

BLANK-BOOK MANUFACTURERS,

Supply everything in their line at lowest prices. Every kind of Writing Paper, Account Books, Fancy and Staple Stationery, Diaries for 1866, Expense Books, etc. Orders solicited.

JOSEPH GILLOTT'S STEEL PENS

OF THE OLD STANDARD QUALITY.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Warranted.

or Descriptive Name, and Designating Number.
New Series, Good and Cheap, from No. 700 to No. 761.

TRADE MARK: Joseph Gillott, Birmingham. With Designating Numbers.

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JOSEPH GILLOTT & SONS,
91 John Street, New York.
HENRY OWEN, Sole Agent.

ESTEY'S COTTAGE ORGANS,

$100 TO $500.

These popular instruments excel all others in QUICKNESS OF ACTION, ROUNDNESS, PURITY, AND VOLUME OF TONE, accomplished by PATENT IMPROVEMENTS. The crowning perfection is the

VOX HUMANA TREMOLO,

a wonderful imitation of the sympathetic sweetness of the human voice.

They are strongly endorsed by Geo. W. Morgan, Wm. A. King, Chas. Fradel, and many others, the highest musical authority in the United States.

Good Agents wanted everywhere.

Send for illustrated catalogue or call at the New Warerooms.

GEO. G. SAXE & CO.,
417 Broome Street, N. Y.

STEINWAY & SONS'

GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT PIANO-FORTES

Have taken Thirty-two First Premiums, Gold and Silver Medals, at the Principal Fairs held in this country within the last ten years, and in addition thereto they were awarded a First Prize Medal at the Great International Exhibition in London, 1862, in competition with 269 Pianos from all parts of the World.

That the great superiority of these instruments is now universally conceded is abundantly proven by the FACT that Messrs. Steinways' "scales, improvements, and peculiarities of construction" have been copied by the great majority of the manufacturers of both hemispheres (AS CLOSELY AS COULD BE DONE WITHOUT INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT RIGHTS) and that their instruments are used by the most eminent pianists of Europe and America, who prefer them for their own public and private use, whenever accessible.

STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT, which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that ALL their patrons may reap its benefits.

STEINWAY & SONS' PIANOS are the only American instruments exported to Europe in large numbers, and used in European concert-rooms.

WAREROOMS, 71 & 73 EAST FOURTEENTH ST., between Union Square and Irving Place, New York.

The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, JUNE 11, 1866. NO. 56

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Topics of the Day.

THE Reconstruction Committee has at last brought in its report. We have discussed it at some length on another page. It takes the view of the President's constitutional relation to the South which we trust he by this time takes himself. There could hardly have been a greater misfortune than his getting it into his head, after his sudden and unlooked-for accession to the presidency, that he was to be the great reconstructor, and that the business of Congress was to register his decrees.

THE pardoning business in Washington is likely to receive a considerable check from the determination of the President to pardon nobody hereafter who does not apply in person. Hitherto pardons have been largely obtained by brokers in Washington, and from this business women were not excluded—a gratifying sign of the progress made by the sex in the assertion of its "rights." Pardons have, however, been granted on such a great scale that there is no longer the slightest tinge of humiliation left in the idea of being pardoned. The old sense of the remission of a penalty justly incurred has completely passed away from the word. Southerners now apply for pardons as for a seat in the opera, or a passport, as a thing which can be had, of course, on compliance with certain formalities; and in great numbers of cases people who could afford it have let agents do the dirty part of the business, the lobbying and answering questions, for them.

IT seems likely that we shall have ere long a bridge thrown across Broadway, at Fulton Street, to accommodate foot passengers, whom all the efforts of the police at this and several points below can scarcely keep from getting crushed in the press of vehicles. Bad as is the condition of our chief thoroughfare, it is a gauntlet easily passed compared with others parallel to it on either side. The annoyance and peril to which the suburban population of New York are subjected daily in going to and returning from their places of business can scarcely be overdrawn and are steadily aggravating. We venture to predict that at no very distant date it will be necessary to bridge the entire waterline of the city, wherever a ferry discharges its passengers, or a steamboat making frequent trips has its pier, and even that people may eventually walk from the North or East River to Broadway without setting foot on the sidewalk below. A very slight tax on those whose safety and convenience are chiefly at stake, would create a fund sufficient to accomplish this object. Perhaps the Fulton Street experiment will lead them to consider the matter more deeply than they seem to now.

MR. BERG, who is the moving mind of the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals, has, after having secured relief for the calves, been looking into the case of the fowls, which, it appears, are first paralyzed by having a penknife stuck into their brains, then plucked; but the fact that they are deprived of sensation before being plucked was held on the trial of a case to be a good defence to the charge of cruelty. Mr. Berg was compelled in this instance to obtain his proofs by going down himself to the foot of Dey Street and peeping into a kind of pen, and we believe most of the other cases which have been brought before the court have been ferreted out in the same manner. The amount of cruelty that can be prevented in this way must, of course, be infinitesimally small. The fact is that societies for the prevention of cruelty to animals are useful rather as a means of calling people's attention to the fact that it is our duty to treat animals kindly, than of forcing us to treat them kindly. It is, in other words, rather a kind of embodied protest against vice than a positive reforming agent.

THE generous offer of the Campobello Fenian chief to aid the anti-confederation men of the British Provinces in resisting the tyranny of Sir Fenwick Williams and other minions of the British Crown was rather scornfully disregarded. In fact he and his army of liberation probably did something to weld together the Saxon of the Canadas and him of the maritime provinces, for it is doubtful if New Brunswick and Nova Scotia would have been carried for the measures, at least by such majorities, if there had been profound peace on the border. It is not, however, a matter which greatly interests Americans. New Brunswick and Nova Scotia have both, so far as they have yet voted, voted in favor of the measure, and the confederation is now a certainty.

THE cholera, if it has been in the city yet, and that is not certain, has shown its old affinity for filthiness and wretchedness, and given us another warning that the best quarantine is cleanliness. Luckily a Board of Health physician has now at his orders the scavenger as well as the apothecary, and the presence of the disease is no sooner suspected than prophylatic disinfectants are lavished. Since our last issue three deaths have occurred which are said to have been deaths by cholera, and two cases have been successfully treated.

THE N. Y. State Agricultural Society, through its president and secretary, announces that "the Rinderpest or pleuro-pneumonia has appeared among the cows in the stables of New York and Brooklyn," and advises stock buyers and purchasers of meat to be very careful lest they buy diseased cattle or their flesh, which will "probably be offered for sale at low prices." It does not plainly appear whether the society means to assert that the disease may be Rinderpest and may be pleuro-pneumonia, and in either case should be most carefully guarded against—an assertion in which everybody will agree—or that Rinderpest and pleuro-pneumonia are identical—a statement which would hardly be borne out by the authorities, and which, if not beyond doubt, it is hardly well to make, the name of Rinderpest being exceedingly demoralizing in its effects on the bucolical mind.

THE last endorsement of Mr. Johnson appears in the "Edinburgh Review," a fact which the New York *Times* notes with great satisfaction. Previous to the appearance of this article, however, an elaborate eulogy on him was published in the "Fortnightly Review," from the pen of that acute political observer, Dr. Charles Mackay. Count Bismark has not yet spoken on the subject, nor has Prince Metternich's father-in-law, who is well known to have warmly approved of Mr. Lincoln, and would, doubtless, therefore, according to the theory of some conservatives, approve of Mr. Johnson.

A MEETING has been held in London, at which the Lord Mayor presided, for the purpose of taking steps for the erection of a monument to Mr. Peabody. His lordship made a somewhat incoherent speech, in which he said that one of the objects they had in view in erecting the statue was to show to every American who might find it convenient to reside in England that he might be sure of a warm welcome and the highest appreciation on the part of the people of England. This is all very fine, but the opinion of the better portion of the English public, in which most people here will share, is that the very poorest return that could be made to Mr. Peabody for his munificence would be to put up a statue to him in the streets of London. The statue is in the first place sure to be ugly, and in the next place would be in two years so begrimed with soot that the dearest friends of the original would never guess whose virtues it was intended to commemorate. The spectacle of Mr. Peabody in bronze or marble, with a smut on his nose and looking as if he had passed the night in the gutter, would certainly not be a cheerful one even for the Americans who "find it convenient to reside" in England. A working-man who attended the meeting made a much more sensible suggestion, which was to form, by popular subscription, a fund for the relief of destitute Americans in England. This class is perhaps too small to make it worth while to provide organized relief for it, but the plan has in it the germ of something better.

A CONGRESS has, it is said, been agreed on for the settlement of the Austro-Prusso-Italian difficulty, but in spite of the general repugnance with which both the French and German people view the war, there is very little chance of a peaceful settlement. Congresses called at the eleventh hour are rarely expected to terminate difficulties of such magnitude as the present one, and, it is but right to add, would hardly be agreed to by the parties in interest if it was supposed it would result in peace. The only chance of avoiding war now lies in the death or abdication of the Prussian King. In the meantime the day for the commencement of hostilities as fixed by the Austro-Italian treaty was the 28th of May, but the Congress may have secured a postponement.

FRANCE was to have had its eleventh census completed in the latter half of last month. It will only confirm the well known tardy increase of the French population, which, in 1861, including Savoy and the Maritime Alps, amounted to some thirty-seven and a half million souls. The past five years, it has been observed, have been unusually exempt from the three scourges of war, pestilence, and famine, and afford the most favorable opportunity of ascertaining the normal growth and progress of the nation. Roughly estimated, the number of births in France yearly may be set down at 1,000,000 against not less than 800,000 deaths, which is about one-fourth the rate of increase across the Channel. The depletion of the rural departments to the advantage of those which contain great cities, has reached an alarming extent. In the decade 1851–1861, the department of the Seine gained upwards of half a million inhabitants, though the total increase throughout France was less than a million. The humors of the census are not wanting in the present instance. It is made soberly to appear that women preponderate in the pulpit, in civil office, at the bar, and in the practice of medicine. This arose from enumerating in the same columns, as belonging to the *personnel* of a profession, all those who are supported by it; that is to say, not only the barrister, but the barrister's wife and daughters and maids; not only the priest, but his sisters, nieces, and female servants.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, June 9, 1866.

THE constitutional amendment being safely through the Senate, the House is expected to consider it on Wednesday, June 13. Protracted debate is not likely to occur, since the only very material change made by the Senate consists in substituting for the third section, disfranchising rebels, a milder provision excluding a certain portion of them from office.

The National Department of Education fares hardly in the House of Representatives. It was beaten by two votes on Friday, although first amended so as to reduce the annual salaries of the proposed officers to $9,400. It is a notable fact that every Democratic representative, with thirty Republicans, voted against it.

The resolution adopted in the House to adjourn on the 28th inst. has since been referred to the Ways and Means Committee. The Senate has yet to consider the details of three or four of the most important measures of the session, including the tax bill, the general appropriation bill, the Freedmen's Bureau extension, and the bankrupt bill. For the latter there is not much chance, and the House has not yet touched the tariff bill. On the whole no adjournment before July 15 seems possible.

DIARY.

June 6.—In the Senate, a bill was passed to reduce and re-organize the clerical force in the Department of the Interior. The constitutional amendment was discussed by Messrs. Howe, Doolittle, Hendricks, Sherman, and Cowan. Mr. Doolittle offered an amendment, apportioning representatives, after the census of 1870, according to the number of legal voters in each State by the laws thereof; lost—yeas, 7; nays, 31.

In the House, a bill was passed requiring every disbursing officer of the United States to deposit public money only with the Treasurer or Assistant-Treasurers of the United States. The bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to accept League Island as a naval depot was debated by Messrs. Kelley, O'Neill, and Le Blond, in its favor, and Messrs. Brandagee and Hubbard against it.

June 7.—In the Senate, Mr. Davis spoke four hours against the constitutional amendment.

In the House, the League Island bill was opposed by Messrs. Spalding, Raymond, Pike, and Rice, of Massachusetts, and defended by Messrs. Myers, Thayer, and Kelley. Mr. Brandagee offered a substitute, empowering the President to appoint a commission to report upon a proper site for naval purposes; rejected—yeas, 55; nays, 64. The bill in favor of League Island was then passed—yeas, 71; nays, 46—with a proviso requiring the navy-yard at Philadelphia to be removed thither. A resolution to adjourn Congress the 28th day of June was passed—yeas, 69; nays, 39.

June 8.—In the Senate, the constitutional amendment was opposed by Messrs. Johnson, McDougall, and Hendricks, and defended by Messrs. Henderson, Yates, and Howard. Mr. Doolittle moved that the several sections of the amendment be submitted to the States as separate articles; lost—yeas, 11; nays, 33. The joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment was then passed—yeas, 33; nays, 11. Adjourned to June 11.

In the House, a bill to establish a National Department of Education was opposed by Messrs. Randall and Pike and defended by Messrs. Moulton, Banks, Boutwell, and Garfield. The bill was amended to reduce the salary of the Commissioner of Education from $5,000 to $4,000, and to strike out two out of five clerks to be employed. A substitute for the bill, providing that two clerks, under direction of the Secretary of the Interior, shall perform the duties prescribed, was rejected—yeas, 53; nays, 67. The original bill was then rejected—yeas, 59; nays, 61.

June 9.—The Senate did not sit. In the House, speeches on reconstruction were made by Messrs. Van Aernam and Clarke, of Kansas. Indian affairs were discussed by Messrs. Burleigh, Allison, and Wilson, of Iowa. Adjourned to June 11.

THE FREEDMEN.

SOME time since, in Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia, the assistant commissioners of the Bureau were ordered to perform also the duties of military commanders. The same change has now been made in the case of assistant commissioners C. B. Fisk, of Tennessee, Jefferson C. Davis, of Kentucky, Absalom Baird, of Louisiana, and Wager Swayne, of Alabama. General Ruger, the military commander and assistant commissioner in North Carolina, has been relieved by Gen. J. C. Robinson.

—In York County, Virginia, at a place called Bartletts, the white citizens, who are said to have manifested unceasing and increasing hostility to the school there, at last, on the night of May 20, burnt the school-house which had been sent out by the Friends Association of Philadelphia, and on the next morning, Superintendent Vining reports, "fired several cannon, evidently in exultation, over the ashes."

—Outrages continue to be reported by agents of the Bureau in Maryland. At Easton, in that State, a few Sundays since, a respectable black man, while on his way to church, was shot and killed by a party of the young gentlemen of the neighborhood, returned rebel soldiers. The murderers are said to be skulking in the woods.

Notes.

LITERARY.

At last, after a labor of sixteen years, Mr. S. Austin Allibone has completed his *magnum opus*, the greatest bibliographical undertaking of this country. In a letter to a friend, dated May 30, he says: "The dictionary of authors which I projected in 1850, and commenced preparing for the press Aug. 1, 1853, was completed last night at twenty-seven minutes after eight." Those who have used Mr. Allibone's first volume, and have become acquainted with its excellences, will be eager for this second and concluding part, which will soon be published by Mr. G. W. Childs, of Philadelphia. The book contains the sum and essence of all bibliography. It is a ready guide to the writings of all the world's authors.

—The North American Indians, their legends, and customs, have furnished material for the works of Schoolcraft and Catlin; Prescott and Wilson have written of the history of the conquest of Mexico; and Squier and Stephens have investigated the ancient monuments of Central America; but no American, we believe, has set himself to enquiring in a scientific manner into the early religion and folk-lore of the Mexicans and Peruvians. What few accounts we have of their legends are scattered through numerous volumes. Yet the subject is one which is well worthy of the most serious study not only as regards the early history of this country, but with reference to comparative mythology, a branch of enquiry which is daily growing in interest and importance. Some of these Central American legends have been investigated and translated, and theories of the Mexican and Peruvian theogony have been propounded by European scholars, which are almost the only attainable sources of information at present. The celebrated Hero-song of the poet-king Netzahualcoyotl can be found in the Otomi text in Granados y Galvez, "Tardes Americanas. Mexico. 1778," and a translation in the fifth volume of Klemm's "Allgemeine Culturgeschichte der Menschheit." The Botan-Saga and other connected legends are fully treated of by Ternaux-Compans: "Essai sur la théogonie Mexicaine," and also in Karl Rafn's "Mexicanske Oldsager, in Cabinettet fer Americanske Oldsager." The work of J. G. Müller, "Geschichte der amerikanischen Urreligionen," published at Basle, in 1855, is especially valuable for the thorough criticism of the sources of information on this subject. The numerous but less critical books of the Abbé Brasseur de Bourbourg, a diligent worker in the field of old American history, are not to be passed by. Especially important are his "Histoire des nations civilisées du Mexique et de l'Amérique Centrale," and his "Popol-Vuhi; Le livre sacré et les mythes de l'antiquité Mexicaine." The latter is a translation from the Quichua manuscript. When Mexico becomes more settled, it will be possible to make investigations among the native inhabitants, whose Catholicism is hardly a varnish over the original heathenism. Much oral tradition must remain among them of their early gods. It is to be regretted that no student of mythology accompanied Agassiz on his expedition up the Amazon, for much might be learned there from the Indians of the upper country, who have not yet had their native legends infected by the importations of travellers and missionaries.

—Among the recent attempts at glossaries of special periods and authors none is more deserving of praise than "The Bible Word-Book," by the late Rev. J. Eastwood, and Mr. W. Aldis Wright, the librarian of Trinity College, Cambridge. This is a small volume containing a glossary of all the words in the authorized version of the Bible and in the Book of Common Prayer which are there used in a sense different from that which they bear at present. The authorized version does not represent the actual language of 1611, but it is a mosaic of all the different translations that were made, beginning with Tyndale's New Testament, in 1525. The illustrations of the senses of the obsolete words used in the Bible are, therefore, scattered through all the literature of this period. Many of these illustrations, from over a hundred authors, Mr. Wright has here brought together, for Mr. Eastwood died after forming the plan of the book, having done but little to its execution, and the result is a valuable hand-book not only for all readers of the Bible, but for all readers of the English literature of the sixteenth century. Several books of this kind have been projected before, one of the best known of which is Dean Trench's essay "On the Authorized Version of the New Testament," very good as far as it went, but limited in compass. This book of Mr. Wright's leaves little to be desired. Besides the explanation of the meaning of the words and the illustrative passages, an etymology is in most cases added. The book is published by Macmillan & Co., and is very cheap.

—Shakespeare literature shows little falling off. The seventh volume o the most excellent Cambridge edition of Shakespeare is just out, and the eighth, which completes the work, will follow soon. Messrs. Hurd & Houghton have recently issued an interesting little book, by Dr. A. O. Kellogg, of the Utica Lunatic Asylum, on "Shakespeare's Delineations of Insanity, Imbecility, and Suicide." The author endeavors to show that the knowledge of the condition and proper treatment of unsound minds has made little advance since Shakespeare's day, and that if Shakespeare was not the chief physician to Bedlam, he ought to have been, by as good right as he ought to have been a lawyer, according to Lord Campbell. Mr. J. O. Halliwell is preparing for publication, for subscribers only, "Illustrations of the Life and Writings of William Shakespeare." His purpose is to issue in a series of folio volumes a collection of elaborate treatises on Shakespeare's life and works, and on subjects which elucidate them, profusely illustrated with wood-cuts of ancient objects and fac-similes, and printed in the best possible style. After the subscription-list closes, no more subscribers will be admitted and no more copies will be printed. The wood blocks will be destroyed, a seemingly barbarous act, but necessary to prevent their subsequent use. All communications respecting the work may be addressed to the author, at 6 St. Mary's Place, West Brompton, London. The "German Shakespeare Society," which was founded a year ago at Weimar amid the applause of the German and English public, held recently its anniversary meeting. The society complains that though their efforts are to cultivate the study of German literature as well as of Shakespeare, and to elevate the German stage, yet they have met with small success, and the publication of the "Shakespeare Annual" did not increase their numbers. They do not, however, despair, and as they have still 573 thalers in the treasury they are going to continue their work for at least another year.

—From the volume of Drayton's poems published by the Roxburghe Club, under the editorship of Mr. J. Payne Collier, which contains many poems which have never been published since 1594, we learn some interesting facts which point to a personal animosity between Drayton and Shakespeare. In 1594 Drayton published his "Matilda," containing the complimentary mention of Shakespeare's "Lucrece," which had shortly before been published:

> "Lucrece, of whom proud Rome had boasted long,
> Lately reviv'd to live another age,
> And here arriv'd to tell of Tarquin's wrong,
> Her chaste denial and the tyrant's rage," etc.

These lines also appear in the second edition of "Matilda," but were always after that omitted. Three years after Shakespeare's death, Drayton boldly plagiarized the well-known passage in "Julius Cæsar" (act v., scene 5), in a stanza of his "Barons' Wars," where he simply expanded Shakespeare's three lines into eight:

> "He was a man, then boldly dare to say,
> In whose rich soul the virtues well did suit;
> In whom so mix'd the elements did lay,
> That none to one could sovereignty impute;
> As all did govern, so did all obey;
> He of a temper was so absolute,
> As that it seemed, where Nature him began,
> She meant to show all that might be in man."

Even in 1603 this passage had a faint likeness to that in "Julius Cæsar;" but it was not until 1619 that almost the very words of the original were adopted. In the same edition the words of the next stanza have been so rewritten as to afford a striking similarity to another passage of "Julius Cæsar" (act iii., scene 2):

> "So that their wounds, like mouths, by gaping wide,
> Made as they meant to call for present death,
> Had they but tongues, their deepness gives them breath."

These resemblances may, indeed, have been mere accident; but the suppression of the passage in "Matilda" certainly seems to point to an intentional appropriation of Shakespeare's words and images in the two other cases.

—M. Guizot has published a new instalment of his contribution to the most popular literature of the day—that which concerns the origin and history of Christianity. The volume is called "Meditations on the Actual State of the Christian Religion." The volume which he had promised on the origin of Christianity he has postponed for the present, probably to make it more responsive to Renan's "Apostles." The first part of the book presents the picture of the Christian revival in France since the beginning of this century. The second offers a brief explanation and a judicious and rapid appreciation of the systems of philosophy, rationalism, materialism, pantheism, etc., that dispute the ground with religion. The book is well written, and quite equal to the former volume of "Meditations" published last year.

—In the last number of the "Journal of the Royal Asiatic Society" is a specimen of a proposed Assyrian dictionary by Mr. Edwin Norris, the secre-

tary of the society. Mr. Norris was the assistant of Sir Henry Rawlinson in preparing for publication many Assyrian inscriptions, and has collected a large number of words with the received interpretations on which most decipherers of the cuneiform inscriptions are agreed. The publication of this dictionary will assuredly do much for the study of those interesting monuments, and will greatly facilitate investigators who have not the patience to begin from the beginning, as did Dr. Hincks and Sir Henry Rawlinson. If the Asiatic Society do not undertake its publication, its importance certainly deserves that it be printed at Government expense. The other contents of the journal are an interesting essay on some questions of the Vedic theology and mythology, containing a discussion of the Asvins, by J. Muir; translations of some of the hymns in the Rig and Atharva Vedas, by the same; five hundred questions on the social condition of the natives of Bengal; an account of the Malay MSS. belonging to the society; a translation of the Amitâbha Sûtra from the Chinese; and a disquisition, by Edward Thomas, on the initial coinage of Bengal.

—Even though one has the latest editions of Johnston's and Kiepert's atlases, it is found very hard work to obtain accurate information of all parts of the world, or even of those that are well known. It is very fortunate, then, that a new edition of Mr. M'Culloch's valuable "Geographical Dictionary" is being issued, and certainly no person can be thought of fitter to revise and prepare the new and enlarged edition than Mr. Frederick Martin, the author of "The Statesman's Year-Book." The first volume, from A to Caspe, a closely-printed octavo of 600 pages, has just been issued by Longmans, Green & Co. It is a very great improvement on the former book, as many changes have taken place and discoveries have been made in the twenty years since that was first published. Some errors, of course, there are, as in many cases the editor does not seem to have consulted the latest authorities.

HENRY HUDSON.*

Hitherto, in point of extent and accuracy, the antiquarian's and the schoolboy's knowledge of Henry Hudson have been very nearly the same. That England was his native country was generally admitted, though some writers, misled by a translation of his christian name, have given him to Holland; it was on record that he made voyages for the Muscovy Company and one voyage for the Dutch; it was certain that, seeking a short passage to India, he was the first of white men to sail on the waters of Delaware Bay and the Hudson River; and his melancholy fate was known—that the adventurous captain was abandoned by his cowardly and mutinous crew to a death of misery, thrust out to perish on the icy, frightful shores of that inland sea which still bears his name. But his early history, his parentage, his education, his training as a seaman and discoverer—all these have been folded in obscurity so complete as hardly to have furnished food for conjecture even, and his latest biographer declares that "his doings before the 19th of April, 1607, his family connections, his social position, are equally unknown to us."

He makes his first appearance abruptly, as a man well known, in the pages of Purchas, one of whose Pilgrimes is the "worthy, irrecoverable discoverer, Master Henry Hudson." On the 19th of April of the above-mentioned year, Hudson and eleven others, mariners, partook of the sacrament of the communion in the church of St. Ethelburge, they being then about to set sail for the pole. It was a voyage undertaken for the Muscovy Company, and its object was the discovery of a northeastern passage to China. Taking this as a fixed point, Mr. Read proceeds to the study of his subject, and by some unearthing and collation of disregarded passages in old writings, and some ingenious argumentation, and a little ingenious guessing, he constructs what seems a very probable account of Hudson's career. The weak links in his chain of reasoning he hopes to see strengthened hereafter by documentary evidence which is accessible to English enquirers, and he points out some sources whence he expects the proofs that will convert his hypothesis into certainty. A brief statement, showing the manner of his investigation and giving its results, may be of general interest.

The Muscovy Company, or Russia Company, or Company of Merchant Adventurers, or Society for the Discovery of Unknown Lands, or Fellowship of English Merchants for the Discovery of New Trades, for by all these names it was known, was first chartered by Queen Mary in 1555. Fifty-two years afterwards Hudson, as we have seen, is a captain in the employ of this corporation. Now, on examination of the company's charter, it is found that one of the original corporators was named Henry Hudson. Reading in Hakluyt, it is seen that in 1560 another Hudson, Christopher, is a prominent factor and the company's agent in Russia. In 1580 a Thomas Hudson, of Limehouse, now a part of London, was a captain in the company's service. The identity of these men's names with that of the most renowned of the Muscovy Company's navigators, certainly a striking coincidence, seems to have escaped the notice of all preceding investigators, the reason probably being that the name of the elder Hudson Hakluyt spells Herdson. But this same Henry Herdson of Hakluyt, in the "Proceedings of the Court of Chancery," reign of Elizabeth, Vol. II., p. 24, is called Henry Hudson. The name of Christopher Hudson, Hakluyt himself gives variously, spelling it Hudson, Hodson, and Hodsdon. Indeed, not to dwell too long on a point with which most general readers and all students of the orthography of English names are quite familiar, the fact is stated that the name of Hudson may be found in more than twenty forms, some of them as different from each other as Hodderde from Hugeson, and both from Hoddesdonne. Henry Hudson the elder was a gentleman by birth, a man of great influence, an alderman of London, an enterprising merchant whom trade made wealthy, and a large purchaser of landed property. Thomas Hudson, his son, was likewise a person of consideration, and this the author proves by quotations of curious passages from the private diary of Dr. Dee, the astrologer, which show that this Hudson kept high company. He lived at Mortlake, very near London, and the records of that parish may show conclusively the degree of kinship between him and our Hudson. Another son of Henry Hudson's, called Henry after his father, was also a citizen of London, as is proved by "Stow's Survey," and by two entries in the books of the Court of Chancery. Christopher Hudson, there can be no doubt, was a relative of these men. He was probably the son of Sir Christopher, of the manor of Leighton Bussarde, in Bedfordshire, for the two are found joined as defendants in a suit concerning that property. In his "Index to Heraldic Visitations," R. Sims tells us that the Leighton Bussarde Hudsons were from Herts, and that the Hudsons of London and those of Kent were also from Herts.

Getting so far Mr. Read urges that the Harleian manuscripts be examined by English enquirers, for they would doubtless throw a flood of light on the question under discussion. The coats-of-arms given in the Harleian collection have already been found "very valuable in this connection." Probably, too, the papers of the family of Barne, now Barnes, would aid in elucidating the relationship between the Bedfordshire and London Hudsons. For when Christopher Hudson was absent in Russia he was informed by letter that Sir George and Lady Barne had stood his friends; and in 1580, G. Barne, son of Sir George, was lord of the manor of Leighton Bussarde. These two facts seem to show that the Hudsons and the Barnes were akin, and furthermore we know that, like the Hudsons, the Barnes were largely interested in the fortunes of the Muscovy Company. As for Christopher Hudson, he attained the first rank in the company, and his influence was at its height only six years before our Henry Hudson, master of a company's ship, made his famous voyage to Spitzbergen in 1607.

Hudson the discoverer also was, like most of the Hudsons mentioned above, a citizen of London, as may be seen by referring to the "Larger Discourse" of Abacuck Prickett. That he belonged to an influential family is proved by the fact that in 1612 vessels were sent out to search for him by order of Henry, Prince of Wales, and by the Muscovy Company, although the voyage in which he was lost was not made for that corporation but for Sir Thomas Smith, who was at the head of the East India Company. The records of that company, by the way, may contain some information, Mr. Read thinks, about other voyages which Hudson may have made for it. And as to what influential family this of Hudson's was, a little light may be got from the history of Captain John Smith, of Virginia. Smith knew Hudson before the latter made his voyage in 1609. To have known Hudson previously to that time he must have known him between 1604 and 1606, when the two were in England together. Now Smith was then eager for the settlement of Virginia. So were William Barne and John Hudson and Sir Thomas Smith and, in particular, Richard Hakluyt, who was so close a friend of Hudson's and whose name the navigator gave to a promontory which he discovered. Most likely Smith and Hudson became acquaintances and friends "on account of their similar tastes and mutual acquaintances."

It becomes pretty certain, then, that Hudson the discoverer was the descendant of the wealthy Henry Hudson of London, the relative by blood of the honorable family of Hudsons of Leighton Bussarde, and a connection by marriage of Sir George Barne's and other good families. Also, it is altogether probable that he received his early training "under the fostering care of the great corporation which his relatives had helped to found and afterwards to maintain." It is very well known that the Muscovy Company had indentured apprentices of two classes, traders and navigators, the latter class

* "A Historical Inquiry Concerning Henry Hudson, his Friends, his Relatives, and his Early Life, his connection with the Muscovy Company, and Discovery of Delaware Bay. By John Meredith Read, Jr." Albany: Joel Munsell. 1866. Pp. vi. 209.

being composed of more adventurous lads than the former, but both being recruited from families of means and influence. This theory of Hudson's youthful training accounts for his frequent employment by the Muscovy Company and for his earnestness and enthusiasm in the search for the short route to the Indies—a discovery which was one of the two great objects for which the Muscovy Company was formed, and a problem which called forth so much of the emulous daring of the wonderful seamen of that wonderful age.

Even as the case stands at present, we are rather inclined to believe than to doubt that the additions to the materials of history which Mr. Read's ingenuity and laborious research have given us are as correct and valuable as he thinks them. We trust that the explorations now making in England may completely verify the statements of his essay and that their results he may give us in another essay as interesting as this.

A CRITICISM ON OUR SCHOOLS.*

The anonymous author of this interesting pamphlet will be looked upon as a benefactor by the intelligent friends of popular education everywhere. His conclusions may not be received in all their breadth, but they will not on the other hand be slighted; and he, we are sure, will be glad to see them combated, as they have already been in some quarters, because they will then certainly obtain the consideration which they merit. The careful collation of the school systems and statistics of several States—Ohio, Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts—is a service rarely performed for the public at large, and welcome even to superintendents and professors.

The author's thesis is: that the schools which do the substantial work of instructing the people—the daily public grammar schools, beyond which the vast majority of pupils never proceed in their studies—are shamefully neglected; that the high and normal schools, on which so much attention and money have been bestowed, and which, however much held up, do not by any means fairly represent our national condition educationally, are failures and a fraud on tax-payers; and, finally, that it is the duty of the State to confine itself to the thorough teaching, by the most competent persons, of the simplest branches of knowledge, and leave to private enterprise and endowment institutions fitted to give a more extended training to those who may desire it. In brief, we need the widest possible *diffusion* of knowledge, and the few have no right to special enlightenment at the expense of the many.

There are here, it will be seen, a great many points for discussion. Unhappily, the proofs are only too numerous of the general poverty of our common school appointments, especially in the rural districts; of the insufficient wages of teachers, and of a disposition on the part of parents to avoid even the requirements of the law, to say nothing of their obligations to their offspring, for the sake of the few dollars that may be saved by shortening a term. Every one knows, who has travelled at all away from the cities, the character of the district school-house, set commonly in the most desolate place the neighborhood affords, and looking like a relic of two centuries ago rather than a part of the active machinery of the present day. Inside and out alike uncomfortable, uninviting, often a blotch on our civilization; the product of the unrefined ways and deplorable apathy of the surrounding population. The author has not overdrawn the picture of these deformities, though he has not perhaps fully accounted for them; and we think his theory might have been still further modified if he had justly appreciated the causes of the meagre pay accorded to teachers. On this point incidentally he has spoken with the greatest earnestness and force, and has manifested an admirable sense of the inequality under which women labor in competition with men. We are inclined to believe that here should be fastened a good deal of the odium which he has attempted to transfer to the high and normal schools.

For the last, it is unnecessary to say that our author will have against him all the State boards of education and the chief functionaries of public instruction. Their testimony uniformly asserts the value of these institutions in elevating the standard of education in every department. Mr. Anson Smyth, the superintendent of schools in Cleveland, very ably defends the high school, on the ground that it gives popular respectability to a public school system, and stimulates ambition in the pupils of the grammar schools, of which it furnishes a large number of the teachers. He even goes so far as to say: "Strike down the high school, and every other department would stagger under the blow." Mr. George W. Minns, on the other hand, the principal of the California State Normal School, agrees with our author that it is a mistake to qualify teachers for any but the common schools, and hence that "an extended course of instruction in the arts and sciences or in the languages" is out of place. The subject is a very tempting one, and we should like to pursue it further if space permitted. Our own opinion is, that the public would not be wronged by the continuance of all the grades of free schools now in operation, but that very great improvements are desirable in them all—improvements which a few more pamphlets like the one before us would contribute powerfully to bring about. If we trusted less to systems and more to personal appeals, less to examination committees and more to public discussions and lectures on the duty of education, we should witness a very different feeling from that which now prevails in the community. The difficulties of the school have their root in the home, and the blast that shall arouse the parents is the one most needed. When their eyes are opened to the importance of the grammar schools, they will be the last to demand that the high and normal be abolished.

*"The Daily Public School in the United States." J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia. 1866.

Patriotic Poems. By Francis De Haes Janvier. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.)—A recent English writer, criticising poetry, seems inclined to think that the number of different metres which the poet has at command furnishes some sort of a test of his poetical power. It is a test that would have its practical conveniences. Should it once come into general use the immensely disproportionate labor of the readers of verses would be reduced, and of the two classes it would then be the writers who would have to work the harder. But this is not to be hoped for. It is just as well, perhaps. The new standard would do a good deal for many poets, and would, for instance, put Mr. James Percival's claim to the revered appellation beyond the doubt which now exists in his case; one half-page of a modern Pindaric ode maker would guarantee fame. But on the other hand how worthless would such a test be in the case of Mr. Janvier:

> "Glory to God! we humbly bend
> In grateful adoration;
> And mingled prayer and praise ascend—
> Thanksgiving from a nation!"

The mere fact that his "Laus Deo," a hymn of thanksgiving to the Deity, and the profane "Yankee Doodle," both run in the same metre would be held proof of the most pinching poverty in respect of rhythmical forms, and of the author's consequent worthlessness as a poet. We should have to condemn as a stupid person, hopelessly prosaic, without taste and without thought, a man who has found publishers for a book of "Patriotic Poems," the contents of which are printed on beautiful, tinted paper with the widest of margins to the pages, and every line of which, if we except a few on the subject of "Rams," begins with a capital letter. A stanza copied from the last named piece will show that capitals were not dispensed with in some of its verses without good reason:

> "After these there came Rams
> not inclining to fights—
> Rams resembling good Josh-
> -ua's Gibeonites—
> Which were drawers of wa-
> -ter—Hydraulic Rams—
> Quite domestic and com-
> -monly found with their Dams!
> May such Rams still contin-
> -ue to thrive and increase,
> With the limitless Ram-
> -ifications of peace!"

It is evident that if it is once determined to begin the alternate lines at all and then to begin them in the middle of a word, beginning them with small letters is allowable. We cannot but think, however, that they are thus without the sole claim which otherwise they, in common with the rest of the book, would have to the name of poetry, and on the whole we would recommend to Mr. Janvier that in future editions these alternate verses be stricken out.

Four Years of Fighting. A volume of Personal Observation with the Army and Navy, from the first battle of Bull Run to the Fall of Richmond. By Charles Carleton Coffin. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866.)—How far contemporary critics are justified in praising a book because, though not useful now, it may possibly be of some use to posterity, we are not prepared to say. But Mr. Coffin's volume may be read with some pleasure by us of to-day, whether or not it fulfils his anticipation and goes down to the future historian. It is a book which makes evident the very decided difference between fresh news and stale news, for once it was letters from the seat of war and then it was read with an eagerness, in many homes with a trembling eagerness, which contrasts with the somewhat languid interest it awakens now. But not in this generation can the story of the war lose its fascination even when it is poorly told, and Mr. Coffin does not tell it badly. He was rather above the average of war correspondents in ability and education. And in all parts of the country, from the very outbreak of hostilities to their close, wherever events of most interest were occurring he was very apt to be within eye-shot. Perhaps his only literary merit is perspicuity. We could wish he less often fell into a fault which we suppose may be due to his efforts to be clear—a way of popping out pellets of sentences which reminds us of bean-shooting. "Life was a blank. She had lived in her master's family and was intelligent. She was the daughter of her master. She was high-toned in her feelings. The dancing and shouting of those around her were distasteful. It was to her more barbaric than Christian. She was alone among them. She felt her degradation. Freedom could not give her a birth-right among the free." The author often writes in this way. It is

possible that the translations of "Les Misérables," which war correspondents used to study for the sake of the description of Waterloo, have overpowered his judgment.

THE EUROPEAN CONGRESS.

EXCEPT in the Italian peninsula we have now in all Europe the spectacle of a sort of moral insurrection of public opinion against war. No greater contrast could be imagined than what we witness on both sides of the Alps. What do we see on the southern side? A whole people preparing for the final struggle—the Parliament, the King, and all parties unanimous for war; 25,000 volunteers rushing to arms in a few days at the name of Garibaldi; the patriotic ardor of the nation silencing all personal interests, endangered by an unexampled financial crisis; twenty millions of people adopting the same *mot d'ordre*, and shouting to-day "Venice!" with as much unanimity as they did "Rome!" a year ago; an avowed determination to accept any ally, whoever he may be, who may help Italy to fight her last battles; a sort of cold and calculated ardor which throws all minds forward, certain as they are that a defeat would soon oblige France to protect the new kingdom of Italy.

On the other side of the Alps what a difference! Let us look at France first. Here nobody was prepared for war; the Liberal party was by degrees and amidst many difficulties conquering a little more ground. Its voice was no longer despised; the debates of the parliament were once more becoming worthy of a great people. The Emperor himself, amidst all the triumphs of peace and civilization, felt that his own despotism was losing its sternness and severity; the political atmosphere was changing by degrees, less terror and hatred was diffused through it. Strong as our sympathies are with Italy we fear that a new war, which may perhaps give her Venetia, will not give us liberty. But it is not only our liberalism which is alarmed, it is also our patriotism. For if war should begin, in the present confusion of Europe it is impossible to see how and where it will end. Bismark, who has deceived Austria in the question of the Danish duchies, may deceive us also, though he may at first be our ally. Indeed, he owes it to his own reputation and to his professed principles. Though the actual position of affairs has nothing alarming for France, we cannot but think of the dangers which may arise when once Italy will be satisfied, when Austria will have settled her difficulties with Prussia at the expense of the smaller German states.

But the hostility to war seems even stronger in Germany than in France. From the Northern Sea to the Adriatic, from the Rhine to the Vistula, we hear nothing but imprecations against the bold minister who speaks of inaugurating a policy "*of fire and blood.*" Above the noise of the petty passions, hatreds, and jealousies of the German governments, great or small, is heard a solemn and lugubrious note, which every hour and every day grows more audible. It is the protestation of the Germans against a war which they consider a civil war, against a policy which they deprecate as a secession from the German Bund. In vain do the governments speak to their martial ardor; in the armies themselves the professional spirit of the *état-majors* does not descend in the ranks; the Prussian regiments of the *Landwehr* openly denounce Bismark. It is not among the workmen of Westphalia or the peasants of Silesia that this great minister could now "breathe freely," as his Imperial friend in France says he does among our laboring populations. No imprecations are heard against young Blind even in Berlin, and Bismark probably still wears the coat of mail which saved his life from the hands of this young fanatic.

In order to form a correct view of the feelings of the German people, you must read the resolutions passed at Frankfort in the great meeting which took place in that old free town. Nobody dared to advocate openly the Bismarkian policy. The friends of Prussia, Gotharians, Hégémonisten, members of the National-Verein, merely spoke in favor of the neutrality of the smaller states, a neutrality which, in my opinion, they could no more preserve than Kentucky or Tennessee did theirs in your great war. The democrats who have left the National-Verein openly attacked the centralizing policy of Prussia; their ideal is a federation of states similar to the American confederation, and in order to hinder Prussia from becoming a great military despotism they are even willing to side with Austria in the present struggle. How is it that war finds so much favor on the south of the Alps, so little on the north? The reason is very apparent and need not be sought among very high considerations. By war, Italy can gain a province; by war, Germany can only lose one. Since she has conquered the Danish duchies and Kiel, the port which she coveted, Germany has no further territorial acquisitions to make. No matter how many small states you give to Prussia and how much you add to the kingdom of Fritz, Germany, as Germany, must lose something by these arrangements, for the Gaul will ask for his part. This sentiment is clearly perceptible in the resolutions of the Frankfort meetings and in the language of the German press. The Germans would not regret much, perhaps, the loss of Venetia (though, in 1848, the revolutionary and democratic parliament of Frankfort declared that the line of the Adige was essential to the security of the German Confederation), but they would probably not be resigned as easily to the loss of the beautiful provinces of the Rhine, which they consider a part of their natural domain.

The universal resistance of public opinion to war in Germany has already borne its fruit; the proposition of a congress, very timidly brought forward at first, is now adopted. "Vite un Congrès," sung Béranger, under the Restauration, at the time of the Congress of Laybach. But then congresses were the meetings where kings decided the fate of peoples; now the people force the kings to sit round the tables of congress, even if they would prefer to ride in front of their armies.

Is there, however, much to expect from this approaching congress, which will meet the 5th of June? I dare not venture to say so. I do not see how it is possible to give even a half satisfaction at the same time to Italy, to Austria, to Prussia, to Russia, and to France. While diplomacy will be at work on her *toile de Pénélope*, more than two millions of men will be under arms; perhaps Garibaldi will get restive and will throw the spark into the magazine. It strikes me that the sovereigns who are to decide our destinies are less anxious to avoid war than to throw the responsibility of it on each other. Among all these Cæsars none will cross the Rubicon first. If Austria is willing to abandon Venetia to Italy, which I suspect she is, she may be indemnified either by the Principalities, or by some Turkish provinces, Montenegro, Herzegovina, Bosnia, and even Albania; Prussia may be satisfied with the Danish duchies; but how will the accounts be settled between Prussia and the French Emperor? There, I fancy, will be the great difficulty, as the present events have inflamed German patriotism to such a point that the annexation of even a small province to France in the Rhenish territories will meet with great difficulties. Let us, however, trust in our great ruler and often repeat to ourselves, "l'Empire, c'est la paix!"

A. L.

PARIS GOSSIP.

M. BACH'S DREAM.

PARIS, May 25, 1866.

THE report of the singular adventure which has created so great a sensation here—viz., the revealing of a couple of airs and the words of a song to M. Bach, of this city, in a dream or vision—determined your correspondent to undertake a visit to that gentleman in order to ascertain from him what amount of truth there might be in the romantic story that has so deeply stirred the curiosity of this lively and incredulous city. Accordingly, having learned the address of M. Bach, I proceeded to the house indicated, No. 8 rue Castellane, opening out of the broad and busy rue Tronchet, just behind the Madeleine. To my great vexation I found that M. Bach had ust flitted, driven away, probably, by the enormous rise of rents in that part of the town; the portress, however, gave me the new address of the professor, No. 61 Avenue des Ternes, and thither proceeded your correspondent only to find that the descendant of the great Sebastian was taking, with his family, advantage of the sunny holiday, and was away for the afternoon. But, being bent on seeing M. Bach, and learning from him the particulars both of the "vision" itself and of the yet more surprising events which are said to have happened since then in connection therewith, I went again to the house two days ago, and had the satisfaction, at last, of finding him at home.

Having sent in my card, I was ushered into the parlor, where I saw the beautiful old spinet which holds so prominent a place in this strange affair. The parlor—the picture of neatness and order—shows evident traces of the refined and antiquarian tastes of its master. The clock over the mantelpiece dates from the time of Louis XIII.; the prints on the walls are all old and interesting; bits of old porcelain and other stray waifs of the past are scattered about the room, the centre of which is occupied by a long case of ancient coins, whose collection has been one of the "favorite pleasures" of the professor's life. The precious spinet, of oak, ornamented with much fine carving, tasteful gilded arabesques, intermingled with turquoises and gilded fleurs-de-lys, is placed, for the present, on a harmonium that stands near one of the windows.

As it may not have been given to all your readers to see a spinet, let me describe the curious old instrument in question.

The spinet is to the modern piano what the black and bitter sloe is to the golden "magnum bonum," or luscious "green gage," of modern gardening. It is the small, weak, modest beginning of the long series of "improvements" which have resulted in the glorious scope and tonality of Erard's pianos. It consists of a box, about a metre and a half in length

rather more than half a metre wide, and without legs, so that it was portable, like a violin, enclosed in a case. When played upon, the spinet was placed upon a table, or on the old-fashioned stand, shaped like an X, and called after that letter. The greater part of the box is occupied by the wires, very small and weak in comparison with those of a modern piano, but disposed in the same way. In the front of the spinet is a key-board, containing four octaves, identical with those of the piano in point of musical sequence, and the white and black keys arranged in the same order, but of smaller dimensions. These keys, when played upon, move a set of wooden sticks, about the size of a finger, the tops of which are furnished with metal points that strike the corresponding wires.

My contemplation of the particular spinet which has now become so famous was interrupted by the entrance of its owner, who, being made acquainted with the object of my visit, assured me of his perfect readiness to inform me of all the circumstances of the affair. I must premise that M. Bach, great-grandson of Christian Bach, one of the sons of the immortal Sebastian Bach, is himself between sixty and seventy years of age, in delicate health, but in full possession of all his mental faculties, a busy composer, and highly esteemed by his brother artists, both as a musician and as a thoroughly upright, honest, and amiable man. He is very well known in this city, having come hither when very young, received his musical education at the Conservatoire, and resided here ever since, engaged as a composer and teacher of music. "My son Louis picked up this instrument," said M. Bach, "at a bric-a-brac shop. Knowing my liking for curiosities of the kind, he at once presented it to me. Being, as you see, of remarkable beauty and finish, and in so unusual a state of preservation, this acquisition afforded me very lively satisfaction. I wished to learn something of its history, but the dealer from whom Louis had bought it could only tell him that it had just been brought from Italy, by the person from whom he had purchased it, shortly before. I spent most of the day in examining my new treasure, and, at last, having, as I thought, ferreted into every part of it, I discovered the inscription: '*Roma*, 1564,' showing where and when the instrument was made. I amused myself with examining and playing on the spinet during the evening, and went to bed with my thoughts still running on my new acquisition. During my sleep I dreamed—as you have seen it stated in the journals—that a foreigner, elegantly dressed in the costume of the French court in the middle of the sixteenth century, with the pointed hat, slashed garments, broad-toed shoes, and numerous ribbons of that day, came towards me, bowing and smiling, and told me that the spinet now in my possession had formerly belonged to him, having been presented to him by his master, King Henry III., whose favorite musician he was; that the king had been greatly in love with the beautiful Princess Marie of Clèves, Marquise d'Isly, whom he had first seen at a hunt, and wished to marry her, but that this lady had died in a cloister; that the king used often to sing a song he had composed in memory of her, and that he (the musician) would then usually play a 'saraband' he had composed, to amuse the king in these moments of sadness; that the man in the dream had then sung and played the song and the saraband on the spinet, and that he had wakened in tears, touched by the pathos of the song." In short, M. Bach repeated the whole story, as your readers may remember it, vouching for the truth of the published account in every particular, even to the finding, to his unbounded amazement, of the copy of the two airs and the words, which he saw lying upon his bed when he opened his eyes next morning.

This mysterious production, which Mr. Bach showed me, is written on the blank half of a sheet of music paper, on the other half of which he had been engaged, the day before, in writing down something that he was in the midst of composing. The notes are written like those now in use, but the clefs are different, so that it has been necessary to transpose the song and the saraband (both of which have been published) into those in ordinary use. The words of the song, like the notation, are written very small, with extreme neatness and delicacy, apparently in pencil, and many of the letters are formed with the exploded "Gothic tails" in use in the time of Henry III.

The historic particulars since discovered by M. Bach and his friends show that an Italian musician, named Baldazzarini, or Baltazarini (for the name is variously spelt), was in great favor with Henri III., and also that the young Princess of Clèves, whom the king fell in love with at a hunt, was shut up by the ambitious and unscrupulous queen-mother in a convent, where she was believed to have died of poison. The old and rare *Journal de l'Etoile*, a sort of gazette then published, and now to be seen at the Bibliothèque Imperiale, adds that the king went to the convent and demanded to see the corpse of his lady-love, but that the abbess refused to let him do so, alleging that "decomposition had begun," but, in reality, it was thought, because she feared that the traces of poison would be discovered.

But the strangest part of this strange story is still to come. M. Bach assures me that, at the period of his dream, he had never even heard of the so-called "spirit manifestations" of modern times, and that, being utterly unable to account for the page of written music found on his bed, he was immensely perplexed, agitated, and troubled by the occurrence. "The dream alone," said M. Bach, "would have struck me as a very remarkable one; but, still, I should have regarded it as a dream, and should not have been made uneasy about it. But what was I to think of the tangible, visible proof of somebody's having been really there, afforded by the presence of this written music, this actual copy of the verses I had heard in my dream?" He spoke of the occurrence to his friends, who mentioned it again to all their acquaintances, and a host of literary men, artists, and others came to see him and to hear the surprising recital from his own lips. Altéric Second published a full account of the occurrence in the *Grand Journal*, from whose pages it was copied far and wide. And as, among the numerous visitors attracted by the strange story, came several firm believers in the developments of modern "spiritualism," M. Bach soon arrived at the conclusion that the occurrence in question was of this nature.

"About a month after my dream," continued M. Bach, "I had a violent headache and a nervous trembling of my hand that I could not account for. I felt ill and uneasy. Suddenly, having heard of 'writing mediums,' the thought struck me, 'perhaps Baltazarini is wishing to make me write!' I can't imagine what put the idea into my head; but I took a pencil and held it on a sheet of paper. I lost my consciousness at once, and my hand wrote a verse of four lines saying that the king had given the spinet to Baldazzarini. The turn of this verse being obscure, my hand then wrote as follows: 'King Henri, my master, who gave me the spinet you possess, had written a *quatrain* on a piece of parchment, which he had nailed inside the case, and sent to me. Some years afterwards, having to take a journey, and fearing—as I took the spinet with me to play on—that the parchment might be torn off and lost, I took it off, and, that I might not lose it, I put it into a little hiding-place to the left of the key-board, where it is still.'

"As at that time my spinet had been lent to the Retrospective Museum in the Palace of Industry, I could not ascertain whether this was true or not. But as soon as the spinet was brought back to me, my son and I searched carefully for this parchment, but could see nothing of it. At last, having taken it almost to pieces, we found a niche under the hammers so small that we could not get at it without taking out several of them; and there, hidden under the dust and cobwebs of three hundred years, we found a piece of parchment, blackened by time, thirty centimetres long, seven and a half wide, on which, when we had cleaned it, we found the verse alluded to, and running thus:

"'Moy le Roy Henry trois octroys cette espinette,
A Baltazarini, mon gay musicien,
Mais sis dit mal sõne, ou bien [ma] moult simplette,
Lors, pour mon souvenir dans l'estuy garde bien.'"

This parchment, which your correspondent has seen and copied, has a nail-hole in each corner; it is also pierced all around with a multitude of very small holes, which seem to show that it has been nailed all round with very fine nails. The writing and signature are exactly similar to those of Henry III. in authentic documents, and there can be no doubt that the piece is authentic, however obtained.

"No one could imagine," continued M. Bach, "the meaning of the word *ma*, surrounded by a line, as you see. But one day my hand was again moved involuntarily, and these words were written: '*Amico mio*,' the king joked about my accent in the verse he sent with the spinet. I always said *ma* instead of *mais*."

M. Bach and his friends have told me a number of other particulars relative to this singular affair, all extremely marvellous and all confirmatory both of the occurrence and of the historic truth of the statements thus strangely made; but these I really dare not give in this place, lest some of your readers should begin to doubt the sanity of your correspondent, who, faithful to the duty of a mirror, has but given you a faithful reflex of one of the topics which has been exciting the curiosity of the Parisians.

The unexpected length which my letter has already reached warns me to lay down my pen without venturing to enlarge on the remaining notes on my tablets, or describing the unrivalled collection of whistles made by M. Clapisson, and now sold by auction; the "Parlor Volcanoes, starry and perfumed, price fifty *centimes*," which are ousting the odious "Serpents of Pharaoh" from Paris drawing-rooms; the absurd literary quarrel between Edmond About and Paul Féval; or the "new and splendid" plan of the Quadrilateral, now being hawked about the streets in anticipation of the war which is keeping Europe so long in the agony of the doubt of "To be, or not to be!"

STELLA.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON RECONSTRUCTION.

THE Committee of Fifteen, after six months of constant labor and anxious thought, have presented their final report to Congress. Including, as it does, some of the ablest minds in the legislature, and having had unrivalled opportunities for obtaining information, the conclusions of the committee are entitled to the respect of those who may differ from them, and will, so far as they relate to practical measures, command the unanimous assent of all who intend faithfully to adhere to the party which carried the war to a successful close. A great majority of that party would, we are convinced, prefer that Congress should go further than the committee have ventured to recommend, but they will none the less cordially support the propositions of the committee, so far as they go.

These propositions, which may now be considered certain of adoption by Congress, and almost certain to be ratified by three-fourths of the States at present lawfully organized, are in the form of constitutional amendments, providing, (1) for the extension and protection of civil rights in accordance with the new law on that subject; (2) for the distribution of representation substantially upon the basis of suffrage, but without holding out inducements for the enfranchisement of women or of rebels; (3) for the exclusion from all offices, national or state, of certain classes of forsworn rebels; and (4) for the security of the national debt, and the repudiation of all claims on account of emancipation or rebel property destroyed in the war.

The third of these propositions was substituted in the Senate for the scheme of temporary disfranchisement originally reported by the committee. The change makes the general plan far less severe in its operation upon the Southern people, without diminishing in the least the actual security given to the nation. The common sense of the public almost unanimously pronounced the original plan impracticable, and therefore declined to discuss its abstract justice. We believe that loyal men generally were pretty well agreed that it would not have been literally *unjust* to have excluded rebels and their sympathizers from voting for many years, but it was plainly impossible for the general Government to enforce their exclusion from the ten or twenty thousand polls of the South; while the existence of such a restriction would lead to a vast amount of perjury and prolong the bitterness of the war. The solution of this difficult question finally reached by the Senate is very satisfactory.

In support of the measures of legislation proposed by it, the committee have just made a further report, corresponding to that which in French legislative proceedings is called an *exposé des motifs*. This report is an able state paper, drawn up with the consciousness that upon it a great party must take its stand, and that upon its reasoning Congress must depend to maintain its position before the country. It will be universally read, and deserves a careful study.

The report first sets forth the difficulties under which the committee labored in procuring the commonest information respecting the condition of the South. Six weeks elapsed before a single item of authentic intelligence could be obtained from the President, and then all that was furnished consisted of copies of the new constitutions in three States, some newspaper paragraphs relating to one other, and not a particle of information concerning the other seven States! The committee make no comment upon this extraordinary fact further than to say that the evidence was incomplete and unsatisfactory. But this simple statement conveys a terrible sarcasm upon the statesmanship of the high official who, on such a beggarly array of facts, did not hesitate to urge upon Congress the instant admission of all the eleven States, and actually vetoed a bill because that body did not obey the advice which he founded upon newspaper scraps! Or, if we are to assume that he had better statistics at hand, we must accept the equally unwelcome conclusion that he sought to force Congress into following his recommendations while deliberately withholding from it the documents upon which he had formed his own opinion.

The committee fully justify the deliberation with which they have acted. They found it necessary to examine into the affairs of eleven States, each having its own special characteristics, with a view to prescribing a uniform rule for all. The work was hastened by the appointment of sub-committees, each having a district in charge. But, under the most favorable circumstances, it necessarily occupied a long time; and there is more danger that the investigation was not thorough enough than that too much time was bestowed upon it.

The report makes some excellent points in support of its conclusions. The fact that the new constitutions or amendments thereto, and the ordinances repealing or repudiating the acts of secession, were not submitted to a popular vote, is dwelt upon with emphasis. (We may here remark that there were three exceptions to this rule, and that the fact that the Executive did not give the committee correct information upon the subject is another illustration of the neglect with which he treated the requests of Congress for such information.) The significant circumstances that none of the States embodied a denial of the right of secession in their constitutions, and that, with one exception, none of them have declared their ordinances of secession null and void *from the beginning*, are also referred to. The odious insolence and ingratitude of the South, in return for the generous spirit of forgiveness and clemency manifested by the victorious North, are set forth in calm but forcible language.

The most important feature of the report is, however, its emphatic assertion of the exclusive jurisdiction of Congress over the whole subject, and its refutation of the claim made on behalf of the Executive for the control of all questions pertaining to the reconstruction of the Union. On this point the committee use no uncertain language, while scrupulously observing the respect which every co-ordinate branch of the Government should show toward the others. The report says: "As President of the United States, he had no power except to execute the laws of the land. *Those laws gave him no authority over the subject of re-organization.* . . . It was not for him to decide upon the nature or effect of any government which the people of these States might see fit to adopt. This power is lodged by the Constitution in Congress. . . . We cannot, therefore, regard the various acts of the President in relation to the formation of local governments in the insurrectionary States, and the conditions imposed by him upon their action, in any other light than as intimations to the people that, as commander-in-chief of the army, he would consent to withdraw military rule just in proportion as they should, by their acts, manifest a disposition to preserve order among themselves, establish governments denoting loyalty to the Union, and exhibit a settled determination to return to their allegiance; leaving it with the law-making power to fix the terms of their final restoration to all their rights and privileges as States of the Union. . . . Any other supposition, inconsistent with this, would impute to the President designs of encroachment upon a co-ordinate branch of the Government, which should not be lightly attributed to the Chief Magistrate of the nation." Again, at the close of the report, the committee say:

"All the so-called legislation of State conventions and legislatures has been had under military dictation. If the President may at his will and under his own authority, whether as military commander or chief executive, qualify persons to appoint senators and elect representatives, he thereby practically controls the organization of the legislative department. The constitutional form of government is practically destroyed and its powers absorbed in the Executive. And while your committee do not for a moment impute to the President any such design, but cheerfully concede to him the most patriotic motives, *they cannot but look with alarm upon a precedent so fraught with danger to the Republic.*"

These are words of true wisdom, bravely spoken, from the right quarter and at the right time. Every reader of constitutional history knows the vast importance of public precedents. Scarcely any of the usurpations which it cost England years of struggle to escape, originated in any evil design. A king or a minister believed that the public good might be promoted by a temporary stretch of power. The power having been once used, the next king exercised it for his own aggrandizement, and the next to please a favorite, until the people found that a yoke had been fastened upon them which might in time bow them to the earth. It behooves the people of America to take warning by the

experience of their ancestors. The President of the United States is invested with powers which make him far more independent of the people, during his term of office, than any monarch of England has been for generations past, or ever will be again. Under the pressure of a terrible danger and of a supposed necessity, one half of the nation cheerfully acquiesced in usurpations of power by Mr. Lincoln which it is now settled were justified by no law. Under the pressure of a supposed political necessity, the other half are now urging Mr. Johnson to usurpations far more dangerous, inasmuch as they would be irremediable if once successful. The act of Gen. Burnside, in banishing Vallandigham, has been in effect set aside by the recent decision of the Supreme Court, and no more constitutes a precedent than the rebellion itself, though acquiesced in and even indorsed by Congress. But if Congress should, in a moment of weakness, yield to the dictation of Mr. Johnson, and admit the persons elected, in pursuance of his orders, by a constituency into which he admitted and from which he excluded those whom he deemed it right to admit or to exclude, the precedent would be one disastrous beyond calculation, and, being entirely beyond the control of the courts, could never be got rid of.

It is, therefore, the first duty of Congress to stand firm upon this point—that the election of its members shall not be in any way interfered with or regulated by the President, or by any officer of his appointment, except in pursuance of some positive statutory enactment. No matter though his interference was made from the best of motives; no matter if it was indispensable to preserve order, or indeed indispensable to secure an election at all; no matter if in the case in hand its results were for good unmixed with evil, it is the sacred duty of Congress to reject such elections without hesitation. The result of submission may to-day be unqualifiedly good, but for to-morrow it is inevitably evil, and evil only. We rejoice that the committee have seen this so clearly, and stated it so well. This country is placed in fearful peril for the future by the growth of executive power in the past, and if there must be a conflict between the executive and legislative departments, let it come now and be determined once for all. A despotism established by revolution will be speedily overthrown by revolution; but a despotism established by slow encroachment may last for centuries. Far better will it be that traitor violence should break up this Congress, as has been threatened, and that we should pass under the yoke of Davis and Vallandigham for four years, than that we should transmit to our children an unbalanced Constitution and a legislature elected and acting under the dictation of the Executive, in accordance with solemn precedents sanctioned by both the great parties of our day.

In asserting the power of Congress to summon conventions in the disorganized States, the committee maintain a doctrine which we have heretofore urged in these columns, and suggest the question why they have not recommended provision by bill upon this subject. We presume that they have been actuated by a desire to come to a compromise with the Executive; but if so, we cannot see why they should not have so stated. Our own judgment has been that Congress should exercise this power. We cannot but think it dangerous to admit the revolted States to their former share in the Government merely upon the faith of ordinances which, as the committee show, are not really binding upon their people, and which never, directly or indirectly, received the sanction of a majority of the electors. Yet this, after all their keen criticism of the pretended process of reconstruction, is what the committee propose. It certainly cannot be the plan really preferred by any member of the majority, and is an extremely liberal offer of compromise with the President and his friends. If it is not accepted, we sincerely hope that Congress will resolutely act upon the doctrines rather than the positive recommendations of this report, and commence the work of reconstruction at the very foundation.

In conclusion, we congratulate Congress and the country upon the firm, temperate, and dignified tone of this admirable paper. Coming from a committee which has been made a target of abuse, which has been charged with atrocious designs, with usurpation and corruption, and, by inference, with an intent to introduce the guillotine and the assassin's knife, the report is almost uniformly calm in its tone, free from any evil imputations against its adversaries, and apparently unconscious of the storm of denunciation that has beaten upon its authors. Yet no speech in Congress, however violent and bitter, has manifested a sterner resolution, a more inflexible determination, than it does. There is far more strength and firmness in it than in any of Mr. Johnson's incoherent speeches. There is far more real dignity in it than in any of Mr. Seward's tawdry despatches.

TO GOVERN WELL, GOVERN LITTLE.

We have learned by bitter experience that large uneducated communities are unsafe members of a family of free states, and that the education of all the people is therefore an interest of national magnitude. Conventions of teachers, a portion of the press, some representatives in Congress, and many thoughtful persons, who have a keen sense of the great dangers of dense popular ignorance, are urging the establishment of a National Bureau of Education, though a bill for that purpose has just been defeated in the House. Before we abandon ourselves to a pleasing confidence in this remedy for the admitted evil, it would be well to have a clear idea of the nature and functions of such a bureau. If we accept the French or German idea of a bureau of education, we shall establish at Washington a new department of the Government, comparable in dignity and powers with the War Department or the Post-office Department, with its secretary, its undersecretaries, and its regiment of clerks, educating its teachers at special schools, commissioning them after suitable examinations, assigning them to their stations, determining and paying their salaries, inspecting their work by general inspectors, promoting them according to seniority or merit, and pensioning the superannuated or disabled. Local school-taxes would no longer be voted in town meeting or city council, unless as supplementary to national grants, but instead thereof a new and enormous item would appear in the national accounts; local school committees would disappear and national inspectors would traverse the country in their stead; a rigid, uniform system of military precision and universal applicability all over the country would supersede the existing diverse, variable, and purely local methods. The boys of Maine, Florida, and California would turn over the same pages of "Robinson's Arithmetic" or "Hillard's Reader" at the same hour of the day, and all teachers, whether in Massachusetts, South Carolina, or Wisconsin, would be alike independent of local control, trained in the same methods, and governed by the same rules and the same central authority.

To describe this system is to demonstrate its absolute inapplicability in America. It is a system entirely consonant with the traditions and habits of a nation which accepts its government as a grace of God, and order, education, religion, and a modicum of individual liberty as a grace of the government. But such an instrumentality, though logical and, perhaps, expedient, or even essential, in France or Prussia, would be productive of infinite harm and little good among us, and would be so inconsistent with the American love of local self-government and respect for individual rights in the delicate matter of the education of their children, that the establishment of such a bureau would find few if any advocates. That the European departments of public instruction are useful to their people is, therefore, no argument for the creation of an American bureau of education, for any bureau to be established here must be utterly unlike the European bureaus in nature and functions. The only possible work for a bureau of education at Washington would be, first, the collection of statistics concerning education all over the country; and secondly, the publication of these statistics and other appropriate information at the public expense and for gratuitous distribution. The federal Government has not even the constitutional right of inspecting existing schools, much less the power to compel the establishment of new ones. In these days of constitution-mending it is, perhaps, unsafe to mention so serious a defect in the work of the fathers, lest another amendment should be hastily added to the list, already formidable enough; but it is clear that a bureau of education at Washington could have, under the existing provisions of the Constitution, no other function than the collection and publication of educational statistics and information, and that for the discharge of even this limited office it would have no special facilities. Nearly every Northern and Western State has already a secretary for education

or State superintendent of schools, and bulky reports upon the condition, statistics, wants, and prospects of their schools and colleges are annually printed. More unsatisfactory reading than these reports it would be hard to find. In Massachusetts statistics of reasonable accuracy and completeness are procured by making the forwarding of certain prescribed returns a preliminary condition to the receiving of aid from the considerable State school fund. But even in Massachusetts, the Board of Education has no power to enforce compliance with the statutes of the State concerning education, as abundantly appears in every recent report of the board. In the greater number of States, the education reports are avowedly incomplete and untrustworthy upon the most important matter, the school statistics, and they are too frequently full of commonplace crudities about popular education and of indiscriminate laudation of schools and colleges which every competent judge knows must be very defective and greatly in need of just criticism. If State officials in their own States cannot collect accurate educational statistics, what chance would a national official have, who would bring no superior powers or better facilities to the task and who would have to encounter in all the States a jealousy of national interference, and in the Southern States a bitter antipathy to education in general and to the Government's education in particular? To arrive at any trustworthy results, such an official would have to be clothed with extraordinary powers never delegated to the central Government by the States, and in themselves repugnant to truly liberal principles and to wise practice.

It can hardly be pretended that a bureau of education should be established simply for the purpose of diffusing information about educational methods, books, discipline, and the like, among the people. There is already information enough on such points accessible to all who want to be informed. The truth is that, under stress of extraordinary difficulties, we are tempted to resort to remedies which constitutional limitations and the well-considered and deliberately chosen practice of peaceful times should alike warn us against. Since the war began there has been exhibited a marked tendency to bureau-making. Some of these bureaus, like the Bureau of Navigation and the Freedmen's Bureau, are avowedly mere temporary necessities which the war created and a well-established peace will end. But others, like the Bureau of Agriculture and the so-called National Academy, seem to have been permanently established, and we are further threatened with a Bureau of Manufactures and a Bureau of Education. Now these bureaus may possibly be so ineffective as to do no great harm in themselves, but they all have one mischievous effect. They propagate and give countenance to the grave error that Government agencies have the power to foster and promote these great national interests. It should never be forgotten that all real growth and progress in agriculture, commerce, manufactures, science, or education is from the people, never from the Government. The Government may hinder, but cannot help; a bureau may record progress, but never originate or cause it. In matters touching education, science, or manufactures, the best instructions which the people could give to their chosen representatives would be—let us alone. The loyal States certainly feel no need of Government interference in their educational affairs. The true function and bounden duty of the national Government in the Southern States is to keep the peace between all classes of citizens, and to make life, property, and personal liberty as secure there as they are in New York. Genuine freedom of speech and action really secured, cotton, education, and suffrage may be safely left to take care of themselves. Those that want and work for either will get it.

A SOUTHERN ELECTIONEERING DOCUMENT.

In the end of March last the Texas Reconstruction Convention had just adjourned. Its action on most of the questions brought before it had displeased loyal men within and without the State. Governor Hamilton, for one, was known to be thoroughly dissatisfied, and a number of his fellow-citizens in Austin, being of like mind, requested him to make them a political address. This he had long before promised himself he would do. Driven from the State at the beginning of the rebellion when to stay at all would have been courting death, and to stay and speak out would have been death upon the instant, he vowed that he would yet return and live a free citizen in Texas, exercising the right of denouncing secession and all its works. He therefore complied readily with the invitation of his friends.

Evidently his oration is the harangue of a Texan to Texans. "You say we acknowledge the Constitution of the United States! Almost every one acknowledges that much when they are under, and the adversaries' thumbs are in their eyes, and hands upon their throats." Beyond a doubt it is the far South-west which speaks in that; the metaphor was taught by customs happily local. But the Union men of Texas have printed the speech, and it circulates as an electioneering document. The orator of the day really was the new party in the South speaking plainly to the whole people of Texas—expressing passionate, bitter feelings as well as political opinions, for the skeletons of Union men are still waving from the limbs of trees in Texas, and bleaching unburied in the weather; expressing political opinions less guardedly and warily, perhaps, than it may be expedient to express them in the party platform, for parties work in harness; expressing, therefore, not the present, not the immediate future, but the distant future of the State, yet still uttering sincerely the true voice of the Union party South, and, therefore, to be heeded by the South, which the party is one day to govern, and by the North, to which for some time to come it must look for encouragement and help as it proceeds to make certain what the war made possible—a North and South really one.

Perhaps the first thing which strikes the reader is the Unionists' trusting reliance upon the Government and belief in the extent of its power. "There is a power in the Government," the speaker says, "which will protect the people whatever may be their opinion or their color. . . If we will not make a republican form of government for ourselves, it will be made and given to us, and we will [shall] not be asked whether or not we accept of it." And by the general Government, he warns his hearers, he does not mean President Johnson alone; "You secessionists are trying hard to take that view, men who cannot repress their hate against the Government and are continually spitting their venom upon it, who are not only traitors to the Government but traitors to truth and freedom and will live and die so," and who are vainly hoping that Andrew Johnson may turn traitor first to his own history and then to his country. But Congress is a part of the Government as well as the President, and the part which the South is most concerned with; and when he says Congress he means the majority in Congress which the secessionists like to call Sumner's and Stevens's crowd, but which, as secessionists will find, really represents two-thirds of the loyal people of the United States. And in his republican form of government there is a place for negro voters. "In the name of God, if a negro has as much sense as I have, and as much honor, and more philanthropy, he is a better man," and a negro certainly ought to vote as soon as he is prepared for it; not before he is prepared for it, unless the conduct of the secessionists makes it necessary. Negroes once voted in North Carolina, he reminds the audience. They vote now in New York, and a single negro in the State of New York may determine by his vote who shall be President of the United States. This is no part of the creed of the secessionists, of the infamous political leaders who lied to the people of Texas and deceived them till they were induced to make war on a Government which most of them loved; who believe the horrible doctrine, that the laboring man ought to be kept ignorant and at the will of the capitalist; who proclaim that the free school system of the North is a magnificent failure! These men will not let "the negro vote because he is not educated, and they will not let him be educated because they do not wish him to vote." But they tax him to educate their own children. They declare, in the face of facts, that the nigger won't work; "and fair-haired young men, who have not done an honest day's work in all their lives, are asking, Where shall we get laborers? But the question is, Will white men work? They will not in this country if they can help it."

So the speech goes on strenuously maintaining the doctrines of the federal supremacy over States, of the inviolability of the national debt, of the danger of trusting unrepentant rebels who laugh at the oaths they take, of the right of all men to be the equals before the law of any men, and the right of all men to try to be the equals of any men in all respects.

These are not new truths, but it is new to hear them from the stump in Texas, where hitherto "the ready rope and the convenient limb" have been the simple machinery by which all opinions were reduced to one pattern, and that a very different one from this; and it is strange, indeed, to know that there is actually in the field, prepared for a political campaign, with a full ticket of candidates, an organized party which contends in Texas for what might be called the true Northern principles, if it were not better to call them the true Southern policy. And before it attains power, only too long before it can attain power, it will have purged itself from the only one of its distinctive marks which its friends in the North would gladly see obliterated—the bitterness of its natural hatred against its adversary.

ROADS.

About this period of the year there is, all over the Union, or at least all over the Northern States, a general repairing of the roads. The frost is fairly gone. The scars the snow and the winter torrents have left on the highways have to be removed. The season for riding has fairly set in, and ways have to be made safe and pleasant for the great swarm of buggies, wagons, rockaways, barouches, gigs, and chaises, which issue from their winter hiding-places as soon as the spring mud has dried. The roadmasters, contractors, and selectmen accordingly go to work with great zeal and assiduity to put the public highways in order, and the way in which they attempt to do this is so extraordinary that nothing but long habit prevents the public from enjoying its absurdity. There is, perhaps, no way in which we can bring the nature of their process so fully home to the mind of our reader as by stating that, except in very rocky or mountainous districts, there is, perhaps, hardly a mile of road north of Mason and Dixon's line which, after receiving the last touches from the road-mender, is not capable, if the traffic on it be suspended, of producing a luxuriant crop of potatoes, cabbages, or of any other garden vegetable. The reason of this is, that the highway is the only portion of our Northern country which is every year systematically and richly manured. Most city readers, even, are probably aware that, roads being generally slightly elevated, there runs along on each side of them a hollow or ditch into which the rains sweep most of the mud from their surface as well as the mould of the adjoining fields, the dead leaves of the trees, and a large quantity of other decaying or decayed vegetable matter. These, consequently, form on the road side deposits of soil or manure of great value for agricultural purposes, and which farmers, if they were wise, would cart away and spread over their weary fields. It accumulates, however, without disturbance during the summer, fall, and winter, and in the spring comes the road-mender and scrapes it out, sometimes with a spade, sometimes with a plow and yoke of oxen, and carefully spreads it on the middle of the highway wherever he sees a hollow place. Most intelligent foreigners who witness this process, and are not familiar with the agricultural theory of roads, are apt to imagine that it is dictated by malice or carelessness—that the farmer wants to clean his ditches out, and, to save himself trouble, dumps the contents in the road, in sheer indifference to the comforts or convenience of travellers. And nobody who was familiar with the result could honestly say that this suspicion was entirely unjustifiable, for the stuff that is thus put on never hardens. After rain it becomes a quagmire; two or three days of sun convert it into dust, which horses and wheels raise into thick clouds, rendering driving in dry weather something only to be undertaken under pressure of necessity. It is not unnatural, therefore, to ascribe the putting of it in to malignity or selfishness. Nature, if left to herself, converts a track made over most parts of the country into a tolerably good road in time. The rains wash away the loose and soft clay from the surface and bring us rapidly down to "the hard pan," which, if kept tolerably level by filling the hollows with gravel and picking out protruding stones, is perhaps as good a highway as we can have without paving or macadamizing, except in very miry districts where the subsoil itself is soft. But this our road-menders are careful not to do. They pile on the "hard pan" all the soft, glutinous, gelatinous substances to be found in the neighborhood, or, in other words, supply the materials for the two great pests of American country life—the mud and the dust. On the by-roads this nuisance is not so serious, because they are very rarely repaired, and one can accordingly often jog over them, if with a good deal of jolting, at least with eyes unbleared and lungs and nostrils unchoked. But the post-roads and great thoroughfares no trouble is spared to make impassable. Whatever ploughing and piling up soft dirt can do to make them killing to beasts and offensive to men is done with almost amusing conscientiousness. We never pass a party repairing a road in this way that we are not touched by the simple, unconscious, and unabashed air with which they dump the manure right under one's wheels.

As there are a good many very worthy people who think this the proper way to make or repair a road, we may be pardoned for stating that ever since the days of the Romans it has been an acknowledged canon of the road-making art, that the first requisite of a road is hardness. The wheels of vehicles must not sink in it. Rain must not affect it beyond making it dirty. There must not be on it anything which the sun can convert into deep dust. The Romans found out, as soon as the empire began to extend, that nothing but hard highways diverging from the capital to every corner of their dominion would suffice to bind it together. The result was the construction of those magnificent causeways, composed of large square blocks of hewn stone, crossing hill and dale, and piercing right through forest and swamp for hundreds or thousands of miles as the crow flies in every direction, and bringing home to the inhabitants of the remotest provinces, as nothing else could, the extent of the imperial power. "Far as the eye could reach," says the latest historian of the empire, "stretched these mysterious symbols of her all-attaining influence, and where the sense failed to follow the imagination came into play, and wafted the thoughts of the awe-stricken provincial to the gates of Rome and the prætorium of the venerable imperator." When she fell the roads went gradually to decay. During the Middle Ages nothing was done to repair them. Many of the great lines were totally abandoned. Forests grew over them, the soil covered them, and the return of civilization found the modern world toiling through the mud of the self-same tracks across country which Cæsar had got rid of a thousand years previously. In short, the art of road-making was lost, and was not revived till the close of the last century and the beginning of this, when good macadamized or paved roads began to make their appearance in all the countries of Western Europe, and had become general before the railroads took away the greater part of their importance.

With us, however, the smallness of the population compared to the area over which it was scattered, rendered any means of inland communication better than a cleared track through the forest out of the question. There was neither the money nor the labor to spare for anything better, and the sea and the rivers offered ample facilities for the transportation of merchandise; carriages were scarce; people performed most of their journeys on horseback, and we had hardly become conscious that our roads were bad, or rather that we had no roads, when railroads were invented. They, of course, became at once the great highways of the country, and the common roads relapsed into the apparently complete insignificance in which we now find them. That the public has not always been content with the "dirt road," however, was shown a few years ago by the number of plank roads that were constructed; but it is safe to say that but very few people who have not seen the network of roads by which continental Europe and England are covered, or those of the Central Park, in New York, have any adequate idea either of what a good road is, or what a luxury it is to those who live along it or have occasion to use it. The notions of the farmers about what constitutes a good road are revealed in the kind of thing which they dress up in spring, and call a good road—a bank of soft earth, slightly convex, and as far as contour goes sufficiently near perfection, but allowing wheels in wet weather to sink axle-deep in mud and in dry weather axle deep in dust—in other words, differing in no respect from the adjoining fields except in the absence of grass and in being smoothed off.

This horrible simplicity of ours in the matter of roads, and, in fact, in all matters connected with travelling, is rendered more remarkable by our luxuriousness in other things—hotels, for instance—and by the fact that there is no people in the world who ride in carriages so much for pleasure. We believe there are not less than twenty carriages kept in America in proportion to population, for mere recreation, for the one kept in any European country, and, if we put aside the hacks in the great cities, in the use of which Europeans, for obvious reasons, far surpass us, we believe it is safe to say that for one vehicle hired in any European country for recreation, forty are hired here; so that there is, perhaps, no country in the world in which the condition of the roads is of so much importance to so large a number of persons. Why, then, are they not better?

That their length is so great in proportion to the population, may be a sufficient answer as far as regards the West, but not as regards the Eastern States. The roads round Boston, or New York, or Philadelphia are in precisely the same condition as those of Iowa or Minnesota; that is to say, they are hard or soft, wet or dry, according to the nature of the soil over which they pass, although they lie in some of the most densely peopled districts of the western world. Nor is the great cost of macadamizing any answer either. There are no richer communities to be found anywhere than those of our Eastern States—as compared say with Ireland or Switzerland, they may be called

enormously wealthy—and yet both of these latter countries are covered with macadamized roads of the most extraordinary smoothness and hardness, always in perfect repair, and exhibiting, in the case of Switzerland, engineering triumphs of the most remarkable kind. The cost of some of the Swiss roads, such as that which has lately been completed across the Brünig Pass, or that which ascends from Valais to Loèche, must have been enormous. And yet the Irish and Swiss roads are paid for and kept in repair by a population of poor farmers by rates levied on the counties or cantons. To be sure, in the case of the Swiss, good roads are part of their stock in trade, furnishing a strong attraction to tourists; but this by no means covers the whole case. On the other hand, roads may be found in our Eastern States, running between miles on miles of villas or neat farm-houses, to the owners of which the cost of macadamizing the whole county would be a trifle, but who, nevertheless, toil through mud and dust from year to year with saintly resignation.

We are driven to the conclusion, therefore, that it is because our people do not know what good roads are that they go without them, and for this reason we look upon the roads in the Central Park as possessing a value far beyond that which lies in the convenience they afford to promenaders. They are real educators. Nobody who walks or rides over them, and sees what wear and tear they save in horseflesh, in harness, and carriages, is ever likely to be content again with the dirty lanes which the towns and villages of the country districts offer to the wayfarer, and in fact we already see macadamized roads spreading around New York.

We should hardly have dwelt on this matter at such length, important as it is in a material point of view, but for the bearing it has on that most serious problem over which so many Americans are now puzzling, of where and how to live. We are constantly deploring the growing tendency to crowd into the cities; but of all the things which contribute to make the country repulsive as a dwelling place—to make life in it dull, monotonous, gloomy, and not always healthful—the badness of the roads stands first. It makes exercise on foot impossible except in the fall. It doubles the labor of horses and makes it necessary to keep two to do the work of one; it doubles the cost of carriage repairs; it makes social visiting difficult even between near neighbors, and in fact during two-thirds of the year relegates all who cannot afford to keep large studs to their own houses and gardens. The road outside is in winter a river of mud; in summer, a pit full of dust; and it may be safely said, in fact, that children are able to be out of doors a far greater number of hours in the course of the year in the city than in the country, owing to the fact that in the former they have a paved sidewalk from October until June.

OZONE.

Something less than thirty years ago a Swiss chemist, named Schœnbein, discovered the curious fact that when a bit of phosphorus is exposed to the air, or to oxygen gas, a portion of the oxygen will be transmuted into a new and peculiarly energetic condition. In view of the pungent odor of this modified or active oxygen it was called ozone by its discoverer, from the Greek ὄζω, smell. This ozone exhibits a remarkable power of oxidizing, and so destroying, many chemical substances. Most of the vegetable coloring matters, for example, are quickly bleached upon being exposed to it; and a vast number of foul and unwholesome gases and vapors may readily be put out of existence by virtue of its oxidizing power.

Soon after the discovery of ozone, it was noticed that there is usually a small proportion of it in the atmosphere. This fact at once excited much attention and has led to much research. It is now known that the ozone, as a general rule, is particularly abundant in the open country and at sea, while in the air of large cities there is comparatively little of it at any time. It fails altogether in the air of filthy or pestilential localities, and in that of places where many persons are crowded together, as in the habitations of the poorer classes, in churches, theatres, and hospitals. Ozone can rarely be detected in the neighborhood of cesspools, or of the openings of sewers. Sometimes no trace of it can be found to the leeward of a stable or manure heap, or of a city even, at the very moment when there is an abundance of it to windward.

This deficiency of ozone in the air of crowded localities, or in that which has been in any way polluted, was at once explained by the reducing action of organic matter. It was admitted that volatile organic substances—and of these many stenches are known to be composed—upon escaping into the air must quickly be oxidized by the ozone which is normally contained in it. From this the inference was drawn not only that the atmosphere contains within itself the means of its own purification, but also that the purifying agent most immediately concerned is ozone. Experiments upon the disinfecting power of artificially prepared ozone were quickly undertaken, some of them, as those made by Scouttetten in France ten or twelve years since, of quite an elaborate character. It was then shown that air in which putrid meat had been suspended could be at once deodorized by a small quantity of ozonized air. So, too, ozone was proved capable of purifying the air of hospitals and that of apartments which had purposely been rendered particularly offensive by scattering in the rooms fermenting manure and sewer water.

The subject has latterly again been attracting a considerable degree of attention among physicians, particularly in England and in this country, and at the present moment ozone bids fair to become one of the most popular among the disinfectants, in spite of the danger from fire which attaches to some of the processes by which it is usually obtained, and notwithstanding other inconveniences which still attend its preparation by any of the methods in use.

Of all the methods of obtaining and employing ozone as a disinfectant, the old process by phosphorus appears to be still the one most frequently resorted to. Dr. Moffatt, of England, recommends the following modification of the usual process as being well suited for purifying the sick-room. Rather more than half a pint of water having been placed in a wide-mouthed quart bottle, a piece of wet cork, carrying a flat piece of phosphorus with a cleanly cut surface, is placed upon the surface of the water and left to float there. The mouth of the bottle is loosely covered, but not stopped, with a large cork or bit of wood. The bottle with its contents is then placed first in one part and then in another of the apartment to be purified, until the peculiar odor of ozone is perceptible or until its presence has been clearly indicated by test papers. The purifying process may be performed night and morning, or oftener, as may seem desirable. In order that ozone shall be formed freely by this method the temperature of the apartment in which the apparatus is placed should not be lower than 50° or 60° Fah. The exceeding inflammability of phosphorus, and the danger of having it about, even where none but judicious and experienced persons handle it, must however always be borne in mind as one very serious objection to this substance as a means of disinfection. Another easy method of forming ozone is by means of ether vapor. A few drachms of ether are poured into a large bottle, which is then shaken so that the air within it shall become pervaded with the vapor of ether; a glass rod, which has been moderately heated in the flame of a spirit-lamp, being now plunged into the atmosphere of vapor with which the bottle is filled, a quantity of ozone will immediately be formed. A correspondent of the "London Lancet," Dr. Day, has recently been experimenting upon ozone obtained in this manner. He finds that a portion of the ozone, which has been prepared in this way, will remain upon or about the bottle for a number of days, and that after the bottle has once been thus charged, as it were, it may be employed as a very convenient means of disinfection. In the instance which first attracted his attention to this persistence of the ozone, he was surprised by finding ten days after the expiration of an experiment with ozone that the bottle which had been employed was still highly ozonized, although it had been left open and freely exposed to the air. To study more closely this phenomenon, a large glass vessel was ozonized by the same process, and after a few minutes the interior of it was thoroughly rubbed with a towel. It was found that although the towel had become charged with ozone, the glass vessel still retained the power of decolorizing a solution of indigo in sulphuric acid, and of decomposing iodide of potassium, sulphuretted hydrogen, or, in other words, of exhibiting the reactions of ozone. These properties were retained by the glass and the towel for several days, and similar results were always obtained when the experiment was repeated. It was even found that ozone can be obtained by means of some samples of ether without the intervention of heat, it being merely necessary to pour a small quantity of this active ether upon cloths, which thereupon become charged with ozone. Dr. Day states his inability to determine as yet the peculiarity of these active samples of ether upon which their efficacy depends. He inclines, however, to the opinion that these samples have been long kept under conditions favorable to the absorption of oxygen, and that the process of ozonification has probably been stimulated by exposure of the ether to light. This ozone-bearing ether is, however, not readily obtainable. Out of more than thirty samples of ether which were examined by Dr. Day, only one was found which answered the purpose thoroughly, and this was known to be upwards of eight years old. Of the other samples, three or four answered tolerably well, while many gave absolutely no reaction for ozone. It had already been noticed by Schœnbein that a small quantity of pure ether left exposed to diffused daylight during four months, in a bottle which was occasionally shaken, became charged with ozone.

It is a well-known fact that oil of turpentine, a substance analogous to

ether in many respects, becomes highly charged with active oxygen after having been some time exposed to light and air. Linseed oil and oil of lemons, among other things, have been found to be capable of generating active oxygen in the same way, though to a lesser degree. Dr. Day now makes out a list of several other substances which will, under certain conditions, generate and retain the active oxygen. He has succeeded in obtaining the reactions of ozone with carbolic acid, creosote, pyroligneous acid, kerosene, naphtha, coal-tar, and chloroform. The reaction from the chloroform, however, was very feeble. Most of these substances, it will be noticed, are more or less nearly allied to oil of turpentine; and most of them, moreover, are already well known as disinfectants.

Another of the methods suggested for obtaining active oxygen for purposes of disinfection, which deserves mention in this connection, consists simply in dropping small quantities of dry permanganate of potash into oil of vitriol. The mention of this method of preparing oxygen in a condition of activity calls to mind another very closely allied to it, viz., the preparation of the so-called oxygenated water, which has been of late years highly recommended by Dr. Richardson and other physicians. In preparing this water, powdered peroxide of barium is added, little by little, to a quantity of very dilute muriatic acid, and to the clear solution which will be obtained enough sulphuric acid is added, in the diluted condition, to throw down all of the baryta. The solution thus obtained is, of course, nothing more than Thénard's well known "peroxide of hydrogen;" but just what relationship this peroxide of hydrogen bears to ozone, or to another active modification of oxygen, called antozone, or what the respective values of these several agents as disinfectants may be, are problems which still await solution.

In the same connection allusion may properly be made to a process, invented by Dr. Richardson, of applying to purposes of disinfection the apparatus for atomizing fluids, already described in THE NATION (Vol. II., No. 46). A disinfecting liquor is prepared by adding iodine to the solution of peroxide of hydrogen, just mentioned, until saturation occurs; and to this is added a quantity of a strong solution of sea-salt. Dr. Richardson's idea is that he thus prepares a liquor which may be regarded as sea-water, rendered active by being charged with free iodine and ozone. This solution, placed in one of the small hand-atomizers, can be diffused into the air in the finest state of subdivision at the rate of two fluid ounces in a quarter of an hour; but in an ordinary bed-room or sitting-room, when the liquor is diffused at half this rate, the air will so quickly become charged with ozone that test papers will be deeply colored by it in five or ten minutes. For charging the sick-room rapidly and thoroughly with active air, or, as he regards it, with sea air, Dr. Richardson maintains that this plan is the most effective yet known. The apparatus can be put in action instantly and at any moment; and in the sick-room could be used by the nurse at stated intervals, in accordance with the directions of the physician.

In employing either of these methods, or, in fact, in applying any disinfectant or any medicine, care and judgment must be exercised, lest too large a dose be administered. In itself, ozone is an irritating gas capable of exerting a very unpleasant effect upon the lining membranes of the throat and respiratory apparatus. In the sick-room, therefore, it must neither be exhibited with undue frequency nor evolved in excessive quantity.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday, June 11, 1866.

WE have dates from London to June 1. The financial situation in that city had but slightly improved, though three cargoes of bullion from this side had reached the Bank. The week's statement only showed an increase of £21,000, which implies that our gold was shipped to the Continent as fast as it was received. The most important changes reported by the recent arrivals are an advance of 1d. to 1½d. in cotton, and an advance of 2 to 3 per cent. in Erie, Illinois Central and 5-20 bonds. So far as the advance in our stocks is concerned, that was doubtless due to purchases for export to this country. They will net the buyers a loss, as the advance in gold on this side from 130 to 140 more than counterbalances the fall in the stocks in London. Among other securities which have fallen heavily in the panic we notice Atlantic and Great Western bonds, which have gone to 48, partly in consequence of the failure of the Consolidated Bank, through which institution they had been in part negotiated. It is appalling to reflect what the consequences might have been in London had we not been in a position to come to the assistance of our English friends with large remittances of coin.

The situation here is unaltered. Money is easy at six per cent., and some of the banks would like to lend for long periods at that rate. So abundant is the volume of currency that the westward drain, which usually affects our market at this season, is not felt at all. The importations at the port, for the first time in many months, were last week less than $2,750,000; the export of produce $1,634,555, and of specie $4,220,456. In five weeks we have shipped to Europe thirty millions of gold.

Gold fell on Friday to 138⅝, but since rallied to 140¼. To day, after selling at 137½ at 3 P.M., it stands at 139¼. The market is in a condition which tempts speculators to venture upon a corner, and operations of the kind must be expected. Nothing can now deprive speculators of the control of the market, except heavy receipts of cotton, which cannot in any event be expected before October. Exchange has been in fair demand at 110 for bankers' 60 day bills and 111 to 111¼ for short sight. Mercantile bills are scrutinized with great care.

The stock market presents no new feature. Operators in Erie have succeeded in making the stock scarce, and 1-16 to ⅛ of 1 per cent. was paid on Tuesday and Saturday for its use for delivery. As there must be somewhere or other in Wall Street about 110,000 shares of Erie, the pinch can hardly last very long. New York Central, of which Wall Street must hold 200,000 shares, was kept scarce for a couple of days by the clique, and then relaxed. How much stock they contrived to sell during the pinch is not known, though it cannot have been much. The price has since fallen two per cent. Pittsburgh has declined 3 per cent. on further efforts by the clique to unload. Michigan Southern, Fort Wayne, and Rock Island keep pretty steady. The silly movement in Boston Water Power appears to have exhausted itself. Wall Street is getting too wary to be caught by such transparent tricks. Something more than the mere pushing up the price of a stock by persistent clique-buying is now required to tempt the public to purchase.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 4.	June 7.	June 11.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	105¾ex.int	105¾	105¾	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102	102⅜	102¼	....	⅛
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102	102¼	102¼	....	....
10-40 Bonds	96	96	96⅛	...	⅛
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅜	102⅜	102⅜	....	....
New York Central	98⅜	98	97¼	....	¾
Erie Railway	62⅛	62⅛	62⅛	....	⅜
Hudson River	110¾	110	109⅝	....	⅜
Reading Railroad	108⅜	109	109¼	¼	....
Michigan Southern	80¼	79	79⅛	⅛	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	85	83¾	83¾	....	....
Chicago and North-western	83¼	80¾	80¼	½	....

	June 4.	June 7.	June 11.	Advance.	Decline.
Chicago & North-Western, Preferred..	58¼	61	60½	....	⅛
Chicago and Rock Island.....	93	92¾	92⅝	....	¼
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago.....	96¼	97¼	96	....	1¼
Canton.....	60	60	59¼	....	¾
Cumberland	45¼	46	41½	....	4½
Mariposa.....	12½	12	11⅛	....	⅜
American Gold	143¼	142⅝	139½	....	3⅛
Bankers' Bills on London.....	109⅛	109⅞	109⅞	....	....
Call Loans	6	6	6	....	....

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Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866..... 189,024

Total profit for eleven years..... $1,896,330
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash. 1,107,244

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

ALFRED EDWARDS, President.
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RECEIPTS for the year, over - - - - - - 700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year - - 69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid - - - - - - 419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid - - - - - - - - 944,042

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J. GOODNOW, Secretary. L. J. HENDEE, President.

Assets January 1, 1866, - - - - **$4,067,455 80**
Claims not due and unadjusted,..... 244,391 43

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TWENTY-FIRST ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

OFFICE, 112 AND 114 BROADWAY, N. Y.

January 1, 1866.

Amount of assets, Jan. 1, 1865		$3,658,755 55
Amount of premiums received during 1865	$2,684,804 86	
Amount of interest received and accrued, including premium on gold, etc.	257,260 54	
		2,342,065 40
Total		$6,000,820 95

DISBURSEMENTS.

Paid losses by death	$490,522 03	
Paid for redemption of dividends, annuities, and surrendered and cancelled policies	294,698 53	
Paid salaries, printing, and office expenses	71,523 95	
Paid commissions and agency expenses	216,405 53	
Paid for advertising and physician's fees	31,542 41	
Paid taxes, internal revenue stamps, war contribution, and law expenses	14,203 80	
		$1,118,901 25
Total		$4,881,919 70

ASSETS.

Cash on hand and in bank	$250,036 56	
Invested in United States stocks, cost (market value, $2,140,775)	2,115,431 25	
Invested in New York City Bank stocks, cost (market value, $54,475)	52,561 50	
Invested in other stocks, cost (market value, $334,015)	333,923 15	
Loans on demand, secured by U. S. and other stocks (market value, $55,858)	48,500 00	
Real estate (market value, $250,000)	140,819 74	
Bonds and mortgages	250,747 02	
Premium notes on existing policies bearing interest	1,186,988 21	
Quarterly and semi-annual premiums due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	242,451 02	
Interest accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	60,980 59	
Rents accrued to Jan. 1, 1866	1,879 12	
Premiums on policies in hands of agents and in course of transmission	197,601 54	
		$4,881,919 70

The Trustees have declared a return premium as follows: A Scrip Dividend of FIFTY PER CENT. upon all participating premiums on Life Policies in force, which were issued twelve months prior to Jan. 1, 1866, and directed the redemption in full of the dividends declared in 1863 and 1864.

Certificates will be redeemed in cash on and after the first Monday in March next, on presentation at the home office. Policies subject to notes will be credited with the return on settlement of next premium.

By order of the Board.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

During the year 5,138 new policies were issued, ensuring $16,324,888.

BALANCE SHEET OF THE COMPANY, JAN. 1, 1866.

Assets as above, at cost (Market value, $5,018,449 06.)		$4,881,919 70
Disposed of as follows:		
Reserved for losses, due subsequent to Jan. 1, 1866	$78,841 45	
Reserved for reported losses, awaiting proofs	26,000 00	
Reserved for special deposit for minor children	285 76	
Amount reserved for reinsurance on all existing policies (valuations at 4 per cent. interest)	3,520,297 66	
Reserved for:		
Dividends declared prior to 1863, due or payable on demand	118,211 88	
Dividends, 1863 and 1864, now to be paid	232,895 00	
Dividend, 1865 (present value)	315,042 00	
Dividend, 1866 (present value)	406,117 00	
Special reserve (not divided)	184,228 95	
		$4,881,919 70

MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.

ISAAC C. KENDALL, Vice-Pres't.

WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

THEODORE M. BANTA, Cashier.

CORNELIUS R. BOGERT, M.D., GEORGE WILKES, M.D., } Medical Examiners.

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1926

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Topics of the Day.

THE reconstruction resolutions, as amended by the Senate, have passed the House, Mr. Stevens concurring, in a speech dashed with melancholy foreboding, and which, considering the physical condition of the speaker, it is impossible to read without emotion. But Mr. Stevens seems to have only now learned certain lessons which most men have acquired before they reach middle life. He gives as one of his reasons for acquiescing in the present resolutions that he has found "that he lives amongst men and not amongst angels; men as intelligent, as determined, and as independent as himself, who, not agreeing with him, do not choose to yield their opinions to his." It really makes one sad to think of the enormous amount of labor which reformers waste owing to their forgetfulness of this little fact. The division of one's fellow-citizens into angels and devils is a most inconvenient one, for political purposes at least, and anybody who insists all his life upon considering this classification as final is pretty sure to have, like Mr. Stevens, to mourn at the close over many withered hopes. Nobody but an angel or the Pope is entitled to treat difference of opinion, either in politics or religion, as necessarily proof of moral depravity. Mr. Stevens has fought a good fight in his day and has earned the right to be disappointed; but there is in all such expressions of despondency as his a trace of distrust of Providence. God does not wholly commit the work of regenerating the human race either to anti-slavery associations or Congressional majorities, and we may be sure witnesses their failures and disappointments with perfect equanimity, and without the smallest wavering of purpose.

THERE being indications in various quarters of a desire to have Jefferson Davis liberated on bail, and possibly relieved even from the formality of a trial, Mr. Boutwell, on the 11th inst., moved that it was the opinion of the House that he should be held in custody and tried by the laws of the land. We still feel satisfied that the trial, if it ever comes off, will be a farce, and that, so far from helping to "make treason odious," it will surround the very existence of such a crime with a fog, and we believe that one great object of the long postponement of the trial was to give time for the growth of such an indifference in the public mind as would render this result possible.

IF the Fenians in council of war lost their reputation for secretiveness, they are winning it back again in the more accustomed field of the court of justice. Military secrets they shrewdly published to all the world; in the witness-box, where they go to tell the truth and the whole truth, they shut their mouths and tell nothing. Lover or Griffin should be alive to depict Commissioner Betts's court-room. Of course, Mr. John McKeon sees British gold and the emissaries of England buying up judges and juries in order that his clients may be crushed; the Fenian witness, to the delight of his friends, bothers completely the prosecuting attorney; the black Orangeman, the faction-fighter in every word he speaks, is a swift witness against "this Fenianism," which he considers a bloody revival of popery, whereupon the audience cries "Oh! oh! it is, is it?" and hisses and execrates, while the commissioner threatens that the room shall be cleared unless order is maintained, and by and by the sheriff has to clear it. The movement is dead. Mr. Ancona, aided, to everybody's surprise, by a majority of the House, galvanized it into an appearance of life the other day, and, as the sole result of this action, we shall probably have a report on the neutrality laws, and English and American observance of them, from the Committee on Foreign Affairs. "President" Roberts has been set at liberty, having decided to give his parole to appear when wanted, and has put forth a proclamation which he dates from Ludlow-Street jail—a dungeon in which he stayed just long enough to rattle his fetters, speaking in a figure, and jump furiously the length of his chain by way of showing his ineradicable hatred of the British lion. It is most improbable, we suppose, that any more armed expeditions will leave our territory for Canada. The summary execution of the misguided Fenian prisoners by the Provincial authorities would do more to light the flame again than anything else which is likely to happen.

THE ship carpenters of this city have succumbed in the strike which they have maintained since the 2d of April for an eight-hour rule of labor. They have, of course, inflicted a heavy loss on their employers, but only at the expense of their own resources, while the object of their combined action has been utterly defeated. They not only had no claim on the public sympathy—being unable to present a solid grievance—but they have alienated that sympathy from the eight-hour movement as a whole, which has been proved in their case guilty of mismanagement or lack of principle, or both, and to have made scarcely any advance in its modes of obtaining success over the ordinary coercive trade organizations.

WOMEN'S right to wear men's clothes has been tried this week before the Metropolitan Police Commissioners in the case of Dr. Mary E. Walker, and decided, as far as the police are concerned, in the lady's favor. It is, nevertheless, we believe, a misdemeanor for women to dress like men, but if the police refuse to execute the law, of course it becomes a dead letter. Dr. Walker justified her course by alleging the present style of female dress to be productive of immorality—one of those propositions whose value lies mainly in the impossibility either of proving or disproving them; but something very like it is constantly heard in political discussions.

THE President has in his work of pardoning at last reached the rebel privateersmen, one of whom, Lewis M. Coxsetta, of South Carolina, was purified from his guilt in this way last week. Semmes is still kept waiting, but we have no doubt his character is strengthened by

the delay, and that whenever the pardon does come it will convert him into an unusually valuable citizen, before whom Stevens and Sumner will have to hang their heads.

Some apprehension was entertained that a mass meeting of Staten Islanders on Tuesday last would result in an attack upon the policemen at Seguin's Point. It passed off quietly, however, though there were one or two "Peaceably if we can, forcibly if we must" placards, and the memory of nine years ago was recalled. The speakers generally advised the audience to respect the constituted authorities, and declared their belief that the Board of Health officers could be ousted, by legal means, from the territory seized; at any rate, Staten Island could keep the affair in mind when members were to be chosen for the next Legislature. It is to this remedy, if it shall prove one, that the islanders will probably be driven; for the reports in circulation about an injunction having been laid upon the Board by Judge Barnard seem to have been incorrect, and the opinion of lawyers appears to be rather in favor of the seizure than against it.

The Committee on Foreign Affairs have recommended certain appropriations for the payment of the expenses attendant on our participation in the Exhibition of 1867 which the public creditors may hear of without trepidation. Forty-eight thousand dollars in coin is set apart for furniture and fixtures, which may or may not be enough—all will depend on the nature and size of the fixtures; but the compensation prescribed for the "principal agent of the exhibition," a man on whom the success of our appearance in it will largely depend, and whose accomplishments ought to be vast and varied, must have been fixed in a moment of wild extravagance. It is neither more nor less than two thousand dollars per annum. The cost of living in Paris is now as great or greater than that of living in New York, so that the fortunate "principal agent," if he has a family, will have to issue "bonds," like the Fenian republic, in order to secure the means of paying for his board and lodging. If a single man, he may be able to maintain himself upon it in tolerable health, by dining at the cheap restaurants in the Palais Royal and cutting down his allowance of shirts, but, as we are all interested in his presenting a clean and tidy appearance, we respectfully urge upon Congress the propriety of offering to provide for his washing bills as an "extra." The "ten professional and scientific commissioners" who are to be appointed by the President are to have one thousand dollars each for their travelling expenses. It will cost them five hundred dollars each to cross the Atlantic and return, so that they will have as much more to cover any liabilities they may contract in Paris. We hope they will be careful of their money, avoid auctions, bric-a-brac shops, and crack restaurants, and keep early hours.

The acceptance of the proposed conference at Paris on the part of the Powers which are likely soonest to become belligerent, has been attended with a good deal of reservation, explicit and mental. It seems destined to be a meeting at which everything that needs to be settled will be objected to as not in order for discussion, and which will dissolve at the first gun-shot beyond the Alps. Its failure will be Napoleon's revenge on Europe for its refusal to assemble at his call during the late Polish insurrection. The date fixed for the present conference, the 18th of June, is not without significance as that of the battle of Waterloo. It may be an ugly reminder of the day which begot the "odious" treaties of 1815.

The reform bill is in such a bad way in England, and its defeat is now considered so certain, that the enemies of the ministry are loudly calling on it to resign, and its friends to dissolve Parliament. The last check it received came in the shape of a defeat by a majority of *ten* on a motion to introduce a provision into the bill for the punishment of bribery and corruption. It is still uncertain which course Mr. Gladstone will pursue. Mr. Lowe is gradually becoming the champion of the Tory party, and is the ablest debater it has had for many a day, besides being the least scrupulous and most cynical.

CONGRESS.

Washington, June 13, 1866.

The fact frequently demonstrated, that the House of Representatives is more sedulous of manifesting its sympathy with the cause of popular freedom all over the globe than careful of diplomatic prudence, was manifested in the votes on the Fenian business on Monday. Almost unanimously refusing to table a resolution of sympathy, which went so far as to instruct the Committee on Foreign Affairs to bring in a bill repealing the neutrality act of 1818, under which the President's late proclamation was issued, the House then consented to refer the subject to that committee, upon the express assurance of Mr. Banks, its chairman, that they would report upon it. This bodes little regard for Great Britain on the part of the immediate representatives of the people.

As I write, the House has passed, after only three hours' debate, by vote of 120 yeas to 38 nays, the joint resolution submitting to the States certain amendments of the Constitution, as it came from the Senate. The vote was not full, from the absence of over thirty members on sick leave, etc., but the relative majority of the Radicals is increased by two or three unexpected votes from the border States. It stands now at over three-fourths of the whole House reliably certain upon most issues. There is much gratulation among members at the net result of the session thus far.

DIARY.

Monday, June 11.—In the Senate, the House bill requiring all disbursing officers of the United States to deposit moneys only with the Treasurer or Assistant-Treasurers of the United States, was passed. The day was spent in considering the Steamboat Inspection bill and the bill securing land titles in California.

In the House, Mr. Ancona offered a resolution looking toward a repeal of the neutrality law of 1818, and expressing sympathy with the purpose of the Fenian movement. The House refused to lay the resolution on the table—yeas, 5; nays, 112. The House then referred the resolution to the Committee on Foreign Affairs—yeas, 87; nays, 35. The Senate resolution appropriating $120,000 to enable the President to conclude treaties with certain Indian tribes was passed. Mr. Boutwell offered a resolution that it is the opinion of the House that Jefferson Davis should be held in custody as a prisoner, and subjected to a trial for treason. Adopted—yeas, 105; nays, 19. Messrs. Rousseau and Price made speeches upon reconstruction.

June 12.—In the Senate, House bill making appropriations for certain rivers and harbors was passed. Also passed, House bill further to provide for safety of passengers' lives on board steamboats. The report of a committee of conference on the disagreeing votes of the two Houses on appointments to West Point Military Academy, was agreed to. The report retains the feature requiring a selection to be made of one in five of the most meritorious candidates recommended by Congressmen and by the President for cadetship.

In the House, the report of conference committee on West Point appointments was agreed to. The rest of the day was consumed on District of Columbia matters and private bills.

THE FREEDMEN.

Gens. Steedman and Fullerton have made their second report to the Secretary of War, from Augusta, dated June 4. They begin by imputing maladministration to Gen. Saxton because his successor, Gen. Scott, has "greatly reduced the issue of rations to freedmen." The charge of extravagance is opportunely made public at the very moment when we are officially told that "reports of great destitution are coming in from South Carolina, and Gen. Scott, the assistant commissioner, has asked for authority to issue an *increased* number of rations;" and while famine is imminent in Alabama. The outrages of the outlaws in Edgefield County, S. C., are coolly laid at the door of the Bureau, on the testimony of "intelligent and influential citizens," when nothing is more notorious than the fact that the forces at the command of the Bureau have been so diminished everywhere that it could and can hardly enforce its proper authority, let alone hunting down well-mounted bands of marauders from the late rebel army. Such attempts as these to justify the President's hostility to the Bureau are too clumsy to excite apprehension in the minds of its friends.

—At the recent session of the South Carolina Conference of the African M. E. Church the temperance committee made a report deprecating the use of tobacco. The report was amended so as to pledge the members of the conference to abstain from tobacco *by the next session* of the annual conference.

Notes.

LITERARY.

In the report of the French Minister upon the Universal Exhibition to be held in Paris next summer there occurs a sentence which is worth some thought: "International exhibitions promise to become perfect representations of modern society in its various forms of activity." As a help to render them perfect representations, the French Government proposed to publish historical reports setting forth the progress of the nation for the last twenty years in literature, science, art, education, and material prosperity, and requested other nations to do the same. In order to illustrate the activity of English civilization, the Committee of Council on Education have determined to exhibit a complete collection of English periodical literature of the day, containing one specimen of every newspaper, review, literary, artistic, or scientific journal, magazine, tract, pamphlet, play, street-ballad, or the like, published in Great Britain or the Colonies during the year 1866. Mr. Charles Collins, of the South Kensington Museum, is entrusted with the arrangement of the collection. The task which Mr. Collins has undertaken is enormous and one of vast labor. Such exhibitions are very useful, and, if they are to be held periodically, will be of great interest to students of social science, as showing the relative improvement in the taste of the lower classes. We are not aware that any one has undertaken to write any records of the progress of the United States for the Paris Exhibition, though it would have been a task fully worth while, as showing to our neighbors what this country has really accomplished, and as giving to ourselves a true statement of what we had done, which might act as a useful check on indiscriminate self-laudation. At all events, a collection of the kind contemplated by the English Government can be easily made here. It would be extremely interesting and useful to ascertain from inspecting such a collection the average culture of the American mind, as displayed in the quality of the literature. Here we are emphatically a reading public, and almost every town of moderate size possesses one or more newspapers. It would be a curious enquiry whether the quality of our reading-matter is above or below that of England for similar classes of persons. It would be well to accompany each newspaper and journal with the number of its subscribers, and if possible the extent of country over which it is circulated. Cannot some of our education societies, or the Smithsonian Institute, to which such a task especially belongs, take the matter in hand at once, and secure an adequate representation of the literary activity of this country?

—On Saturday, May 21, died at Paris Francis Mahony, well known to all as "Father Prout," the witty contributor to "Bentley's Miscellany" and "Fraser's Magazine." Mr. Mahony was born at Cork, in 1805, but left Ireland early and was educated at Jesuit schools in France and Rome. He took priest's orders, but the life was not to his taste, and, after having been expelled from the order of Jesuits, he turned himself to the profession of literature. With Dr. Maginn and Sergeant Murphy, both Cork men, he made a trio that were the raciest contributors that "Fraser's" ever had. He was familiar with many languages, and wrote Greek and Latin verse with great facility. He often used to impose on his friends by fictitious classical quotations, and was famed for making Latin originals, credited to some poet of the Middle Ages, for modern poems, whose authors he would then accuse of plagiarism. His translations into Greek of "The Groves of Blarney," "The Night before Larry was Stretched," and some of "Moore's Irish Melodies," showed much humor. The "Prout Papers" were collected and published by Fraser in 1836. After being long out of print, they were republished, in 1860, in "Bohn's Illustrated Library," with etchings by Maclise. The last years of his life he spent in Paris, where he was correspondent for several London newspapers. He was always orthodox, and his abilities were highly esteemed by the authorities of the Church. It is stated on good authority, and is confirmed by Father Mahony's own assertions, that he was at one time offered a cardinal's hat, on condition that he should devote himself entirely to the interests of the Church. The bargain was agreed to, but afterwards fell through when it became known that he had his own peculiar opinions as to the use of liquor allowed a church dignitary.

—The election at the French Institute to fill the chair of M. Clapisson resulted in the choice of M. Gounod, the composer of "Faust." His competitors were Félicien David, who received sixteen votes, and Victor Massé, who had only one. M. Gounod himself obtained nineteen. The musical section of the Académie des Beaux Arts now consists of MM. Auber, Carafa, Ambroise Thomas, Reber, Berlioz, and Gounod. M. Gounod was born in 1818, and studied music with Lesueur and Halévy. He remained in Italy after completing his studies, until 1843, and did not begin writing for the stage until 1850.

—In addition to the books of Shakespeare mentioned in the last number of The Nation, we have to record the publication of the two concluding volumes of François Hugo's French translation with the title of "Les Apocryphes," containing "Titus Andronicus," "A Yorkshire Tragedy," "Two Noble Parents," "Pericles," "Edward III.," and "Arden of Feversham." An entirely new French translation by Emile Montégut is about to appear in two hundred parts, illustrated, at fifty centimes each. The first volume of a Hindostani translation has also been published at Bombay.

—There are in Italy 210 public libraries, containing in the aggregate 4,149,281 volumes. Besides these there are the libraries of the two Chambers, of the Council of State, and many easily accessible large private collections. There are also 110 provincial libraries and those of 71 scientific societies. In 1863, which is the last year for which we have statistics, 988,510 volumes were called for by readers, of which 183,528 related to mathematics and the natural sciences; 122,496 to literature, history, and philology; 54,491 to theology; 70,537 to philosophy and morals; 193,972 to jurisprudence; 261,869 to the fine arts; and 101,797 to other subjects.

—The *Pall Mall Gazette* states that Gen. Lyon, late of the Confederate army, has discovered another lost city in Mexico, in the district called by the Indians Metaltaloyuca, situated about one hundred miles west of Tuxpan, in the State of Vera Cruz. Trees, hundreds of years old, are growing among the ruins. The walls of many houses are standing, and on them are paintings and other ornaments, and carved doorways and images abound. Several temples were found, and in one a statuette, on the reverse of which was a cross. The doors of the houses were generally closed with blocks of stone, and there were other indications that the city had been abandoned by a preconcerted movement.

—A remarkable discovery has lately been made by Mr. Parker, one of the founders of the British Archæological Association at Rome. He was groping about the river side opposite to the Cloaca Maxima, with his photographer, endeavoring to get a good view of the mouth of the Cloaca, when he nearly ran against three large stone corbels projecting from the wall in the face of the cliff. They had holes in them, evidently for the purpose of receiving large chains, and their facings are carved in the form of lion's heads of Etruscan character. Mr. Parker thinks they were made in the time of Camillus, after the taking of Veii, and were removed at a later date, and probably replaced by Sylla, who constructed extensive works on the Tiber. His reason for this supposition is that the heads are fastened in with cement, and cement was not used before the time of Sylla. The heads are not quite alike, and one seems of much later date than the others. It is probable that there were similar corbels on the other side to support the other ends of the chains, but this place is occupied by the foundation of a mediæval house. All are just above the remains of the Pons Sublicius.

—A curious account of the great Ti-ping rebellion in China has just been published in England: "Tiping Tien-Kwoh; the History of the Tiping Revolution. By Lin-Le." Lin-Le is apparently a Chinese version of Linley, the writer being a European who served as an officer under the Ti-ping chief. The book contains the story of the writer's personal adventures in the war, with accounts of all the chiefs of the rebellion, and of their objects, derived from personal intercourse with them, as well as a summary of the doctrines and belief of the Ti-pings. The story is very interesting, and told with straightforwardness and simplicity, though, as to many particulars, the reader cannot help being a little incredulous. Lin-Le appears to look upon the Ti-pings as highly civilized Christians, who observe the laws of Christian marriage, have family prayers, baptism, Christian burial, a strict observance of the Sabbath, and a freedom from barbarous vices. The religion which they professed, however, resembled Christianity as Mohammedanism does Judaism. Hung-shui-tshuen, its chief founder, professed to have gone to Heaven, and there to have received certain revelations which are described in the strange book called the "Trimetral Classic." One of its verses says that the Deity

> "Bade him (Hung-shui-tshuen), together with the elder brother,
> Namely, Jesus,
> To drive away impish fiends,
> With the co-operation of angels."

The "impish fiends" is the complimentary description of the Imperialist soldiers.

—Trübner's "American and Oriental Literary Record" has reached its fourteenth number. Its success has shown that it has met the wants of

many literary men, in bringing to their eyes some account of the hitherto unrecorded current literature of the world. It is cosmopolitan in aim, including lists of the recent publications in China and India, as well as in Brazil and the United States. It has, also, bibliographies of special subjects, as of Hindu law, of Zoroastrian literature, and of English parliamentary papers. The last number contains a catalogue of the literature of the Argentine Republic, lists of Cuban, Armenian, and modern Greek books, as well as of Sanskrit, Gujarati, Marathi, Bengoli, and Hindi literature.

SCIENTIFIC.

Evidence of a Former Cold Climate in Europe.—Oscar Schmidt has found in the neighborhood of Gratz, the capital of Styria, two hundred feet above the Mur, the ancient dwellings of the marmot, with the skeletons of four individuals. As the marmots inhabit only the regions bordering on the snow-line, this discovery leads back to the diluvial or drift period, when, by the extension of the glaciers, the upper Alpine animals and plants were kept down in lower levels than now, evidences of which have hitherto been found almost exclusively in Switzerland.

Among recent discoveries indicating the co-existence of man with animals now extinct, that of the musk-ox in France, by M. Lartet, is important. At the present time, this animal is only found in the arctic regions, does not descend below sixty degrees of north latitude and ranges as high as seventy-five. The remains just referred to show that they existed at least fifteen degrees further south. Since their habitat is strictly arctic, their presence in France would seem to indicate a climate much colder formerly than now. Another discovery of far greater interest and significance comes to the support of this view. In 1864, M. Lartet, in company with the late Dr. Falconer, the eminent English naturalist, and Mr. Christy, visited the department of Dordogne, in the southwest of France, where there had been previously discovered pieces of the antlers of the deer with figures of animals rudely engraved upon them. During the stay of the naturalists just mentioned there was found a broken plate of ivory evidently formed from the tusks of a large elephant. When the fragments were fitted together, Dr. Falconer noticed that there was engraved upon the plate the figure of an elephant, the most remarkable feature of which was the indication that the animal was provided with long hair. No such elephant exists at the present time; but, as is well known, the celebrated mammoth, discovered in 1799 by Mr. Adams, imbedded in the ice near the mouth of the Lena, in Siberia, was provided with long coarse hair, portions of which may be seen in the museums of St. Petersburg and of the Garden of Plants, in Paris. The discovery of the engraved ivory at Dordogne, while alone it cannot be admitted as positive proof, yet, in connection with other observations, clearly points to the existence of the mammoth in France, and as a contemporary with man. For in the rude stone age to which the ivory must be referred, it is difficult to conceive of man's having any other knowledge of the outward characters of animals than that which comes of personal observation.

In this connection it may be stated that the welcome news has been received and communicated in a letter from C. E. de Baer, of St. Petersburg, to the Academy of Sciences, in Paris, that another frozen mammoth has been found. It was first observed by a Samoeide in the neighborhood of the Bay of Taz, on the eastern arm of the Gulf of Obi. The Academy of Sciences in St. Petersburg has commissioned a distinguished naturalist, M. Schmidt, to make as complete a study as possible of these interesting remains and of all the circumstances connected with their burial in the frozen earth where they now lie.

Development of the Eggs of Fishes.—The conditions under which the eggs of fishes are developed, and the young come to maturity, are much more varied than is generally supposed. While the greater portion scatter their eggs broadcast, and no longer care for them after they are laid, some are truly viviparous, and others deposit them in carefully made nests, where one or the other of the parents watches over them until they are hatched; such is the case with the common "bream," the "hassars" of Demerara, the small catfish or "horned-pout," the "stickle-backs," so well known in our aquariums, and several other species. The "pouts" are followed by their young as a hen is followed by her chickens. With the "stickle-backs" the care of the nest, and, for a time, of the young, too, falls to the lot of the male, for here, as with some other species, the female has the strange propensity to eat her own eggs as soon as laid. Against this curious habit he acts as protector, and in the performance of this duty his fighting qualities are often called out. In a few species the eggs are carried in some way about the outside of the body of one of the parents. In the "trompetti" of Guiana they are attached to the under side of the abdomen and forward fins and even of the head, each egg being supported by a slender thread with a cup on the end of it; these threads grow anew with each successive brood of eggs and disappear from absorption soon after the eggs are hatched. The "pipe-fishes," or "sea-horses," are true marsupials, a pouch being formed on the under side of the body; this is strictly analogous to the pouch of the kangaroo and opossum. It is the prerogative of the male to be the bearer of this pouch, and to carry the eggs until they are hatched; and even after this, for a time, the young go out from it and return again for shelter, just as do the young opossums from that of their mother. Among some of the siluroids, or "catfishes," there is a still more remarkable mode of gestation, in which the eggs during the whole period of their incubation, and the young for a long time after, are carried in the mouth. In Guiana the kinds commonly sold in the market and known by the names given them by the negroes, with whom they are favorite articles of food, as "javra-bakkas" and "ujinge-ujinges," during the breeding season, are offered for sale with their mouths literally crammed with eggs or young; the former in every stage of development, and the latter in different stages of growth after having acquired their mature shape.

Prof. Agassiz, in a letter to M. Milne Edwards, printed in the "Annales des Sciences Naturelles" for April, records the discovery of additional species having this singular mode of gestation. During a month passed at Teffé, on the Amazon, devoted to embryological studies, he ascertained that many species of different genera of chromids carry their eggs at the back part of their mouth, in a pouch connected with the upper pharyngeal or throat-bones, also in a cavity in front of the first gill-arch. He also observed, what had not been known before, that some species of the loricarias carry their eggs attached to the broad membranes which surround their mouths, and hang from their lips. Finally, he has discovered that other species, as the hypostomes, sit upon their eggs after the manner of birds. This is probably only for the purpose of protection, since the temperature of their bodies is not known to rise above that of the water.

Flight of the Flying Fish.—Mr. Horace Mann, in the proceedings of the Boston Society of Natural History, has brought forward additional evidence in relation to the manner in which the flight of these fishes is sustained. The so-called flight has been asserted by some naturalists to be only a long leap, the fish projecting itself from the water by a vigorous action of the tail, just as the salmon does in ascending falls, the large fins acting as a parachute, but never as wings after the manner of birds. A few observers have claimed that they really flew. Mr. Mann's observations sustain this last view, as appears from the following facts. These fishes leave the water at a very low angle, of only five or six degrees, and during their flight change their direction so as to rise over the crests and descend into the hollows of the waves. The motion of the fins was distinctly seen under favorable circumstances, as when they flew near the ship and the sun-light struck upon them so as to be reflected to the eye. The motion is not constant but somewhat intermittent, though kept up during the whole flight. The extent of their vibrations is quite small and is indicated by a more or less shady space, or glimmering, which corresponds with the arc through which they move. In some instances they flew to the distance of seventy-five or a hundred yards, barely touching the water, from time to time, and at others thirty or forty yards without touching it at all.

A Point in Cookery.—No one but a German could have had the patience to invent the following "process of quickly (!) cooking soft and rendering easily digestible dried peas." The dried peas are covered with cold water and left to soak during twelve or fifteen hours; the water is then poured off, and the moist, swollen peas are placed in a covered vessel, which is set in a tolerably warm place and left there during forty-eight hours. Under this treatment the peas begin to germinate, they become rather soft, and a certain amount of sugar is produced within them. On now cooking the peas, says the chronicler, they will be quickly done, and will be found to have an agreeable taste, to be easily digestible, and to exhibit almost precisely the same characters as fresh green peas.

BEETHOVEN'S LETTERS.*

To his interesting collection of the letters of Mozart, Dr. Nohl has now added another of the letters of Beethoven, by no means, however, so interesting; for they not only add very little to what we know of Beethoven from the life of him by Schindler, but are in themselves for the most part merely

* "Beethoven's Letters (1790-1826). From the Collection of Dr. Ludwig Nohl. Also his Letters to the Archduke Rudolph, Cardinal-Archbishop of Olmutz, K. W., from the Collection of Dr. Ludwig Ritter von Köchel. Translated by Lady Wallace. With a Portrait and Fac-simile. In two volumes." London: Longmans, Green & Co. 1866.

tedious details of business or pitiable exhibitions of temper. And for one so much given to writing as Beethoven was, it is rather surprising indeed that letters of a more attractive sort have not been found, especially as Dr. Nohl conjectures that twice as many as he has been able, after infinite labor, to present in this collection may exist scattered over Europe. Yet, meagre as the work is, it will not fail to find many readers; for it introduces us once more to the presence of the great master, whose personality it is so necessary to comprehend in all its originality in order fully to understand his works.

Of Beethoven, the man, therefore, we propose now to say a word as explanatory of his letters, as, indeed, the best criticism upon them; for, unlike the letters of Mozart, or the still more charming letters of Mendelssohn, they do not in themselves present his whole character. The strange, weird outlines they suggest must be filled up from other sources.

Born in Bonn, in 1771, the life of Beethoven was contemporaneous with that great intellectual development in Germany which has made it such a power in the present century. While Herder and Lessing and Goethe breathed a new spirit into criticism and philosophy, Glück and Bach and Mozart and Händel led the way to that eminence in music which Germany has ever since maintained; and Beethoven carried on the work they began. Like a being who has descended from an ideal world to redeem this, he was in perpetual struggle with the past; and his early days in Bonn, before he had attained a full consciousness of his task in life, were his only happy ones. They were to him, as has been so well said, what the sweetly fanciful larghetto of his second symphony has been to the world, an undisturbed because unconscious happiness. His father and grandfather were musicians before him, and he showed early great musical genius. At the age of fifteen he was made organist of the court chapel at Bonn, and at the age of twenty-two went to Vienna to study under Haydn. Mozart had died a year before, and it was only once, on a flying tour to Vienna in the winter of 1786–7, that Beethoven met him; and how Mozart recognized his genius is illustrated by a curious anecdote. Beethoven had acquired much reputation for his improvisations upon the piano, an exercise in the genuineness of which Mozart had no real belief, fancying that the pieces to be played were secretly agreed upon beforehand. He resolved, therefore, to test Beethoven, and gave him as a subject a chromatic figure, the motive of which contained the opposite subject of a double figure. Beethoven instantly detected the deception, and, reversing the motive, improvised a regular double figure; and the lively Mozart slipped away into an adjoining room to say to those he found there that here was a youth the world would hear of.

The placid mind of Haydn, however, could less understand the soaring genius of Beethoven, and they soon separated. The immediate cause of the rupture, indeed, is said to have been the fact, which Beethoven one day accidentally discovered, that Haydn neglected to correct his errors. That was, in Beethoven's eyes, a *crimen læsæ artis*, and he broke from him at once; and when, notwithstanding, it was suggested to him afterwards, at Haydn's instance, that in the compositions which he was publishing he should call himself Haydn's pupil, his proud, curt reply was that he had indeed taken lessons of Haydn, but had learned nothing from him. And that answer is the key to the history of his subsequent career, with its ceaseless effort to ascend up out of the present and out of the past to dwell in newer regions and among sublimer thoughts.

Shortly afterwards, the Prince Lichnowski took him into his palace, and the princess watched over him with the care of a mother; his whims, and they were many, were consulted; he enjoyed the best society, and he had fully, as yet, his sense of hearing. There was nothing to disturb his repose, as it finds expression in his first and second symphonies, in his first six quartettes, in the septette and first twelve piano sonatas. But beneath this apparent calm there was a turbulent, restless spirit at work in him, which drove him presently out into the dreary world to battle with its routine and to vivify it anew. Kind as his patrons had been, he felt it better to hunger and be misunderstood than not to be himself, supreme in his own sphere. And he gained what he sought, but he gained it with that strain of discord in his finer nature which is to the soul of the artist what the shadow of a cloud is to a landscape. The desire not to improve, but to recreate the world, to make it different from what it was in kind as well as degree, was the error which ruined his earthly peace; for he persisted in judging all relations of life by the unattainable ideals which drew him on in music. Yet it was out of this opposition to the reality, out of this dualism of his life, which was to him a sorrow and bitterness known to but few beside him, that there came, after long struggle, the final victory of his later creations.

It is not, however, to his compositions that we wish now to advert, but to that moral superiority which, in spite of his infirmities of temper and his eccentric habits, marks the career of Beethoven from the first day we have any knowledge of him to the last. For to appreciate these letters, sterile as most of them are, one must understand the real elevation and the unquestioned purity of Beethoven's life. In the midst of a corrupt city and a still more corrupt court, in an age of license, exposed to all the seductions which beset genius of an order like his, he preserved ever a lofty virtue and a hatred of whatever was impure or even equivocal. Thrown, as he was, into every-day contact with the proudest and richest nobility in Europe, rank and wealth remained to him ever matters of absolute indifference, mere accidents of this temporal material life. Hence, in his political sentiments he was practically a republican. A devout reader of Plato, he longed to see all institutions modelled upon the plan prescribed in the "Republic." "Plato's Republic," says Schindler, "was transfused into his flesh and blood." It was his firm belief that it was Napoleon's real intention to republicanize France upon similar principles; and it was not till the news came that Napoleon had caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor of the French that he was undeceived; when, tearing off the title-page of his "Sinfonia Eroica," containing the dedication of that work to Napoleon, which he was just on the point of despatching to Paris, he flung it upon the floor with a torrent of execrations. The tragic end of the great conqueror, however, is said to have reconciled Beethoven to him, for, as he remarked, he had predicted it himself in the "Dead March" of this symphony.

At Töplitz, in 1812, he was walking one day with Goethe, when they saw at a distance the whole Imperial family approaching. With his usual stately deference, Goethe stepped aside and stood with his hat off, bending low, until they had passed him. Beethoven, on the contrary, pressed his hat yet more firmly on his head, and walked, with folded arms, through the thickest of the throng. Princes and pages made a path for him, the Archduke Rudolph took off his hat, and the Empress bowed. There may be a difference of opinion upon the question of manners, but there can be none as to the honesty of Beethoven's convictions. It was Goethe's remembrance, it may be, of this uncourtly freedom that led him to take no notice of Beethoven's letter, eleven years afterwards, soliciting a favor which he could easily have granted to the poor composer wasting away under the burden of his task. To be sure, as Mr. Lewes says, there is no evidence that Goethe received the letter, but also none that he did not receive it, and posterity will no doubt dwell a good deal on the latter fact.

But the worst trials of Beethoven's life, it must be confessed, were chiefly of his own creation. His "evil principle" was in the shape of his two brothers; one of them an apothecary, who would send his card to him on a New Year's Day inscribed "Johann van Beethoven, Landowner" (*Gutsbesitzer*), and Beethoven would return it inscribed "Ludwig von Beethoven, Brainowner" (*Hirnbesitzer*),—a harmless pleasantry, certainly, but it indicates the bearing of the apothecary, bursting with pride at his success, when we remember that he refused to his face the slightest aid to the brother who had helped him to it, while he plundered him behind his back. The other was a banking officer, whose chief injury to Beethoven was in dying and leaving a son for him to take charge of. The mother was an immoral woman, and Beethoven was forthwith plunged into law suits, while the youth plunged as soon as he could into dissipation. An incident in one of the lawsuits affords a singular instance—alas, how bitter to Beethoven!—of what one may call his splendid simplicity. It was intimated to the court that the word *van* being of Dutch origin, and not ennobling a family in Holland, could not ennoble one in Germany, and Beethoven was accordingly asked to produce proofs of his nobility. "My nobility," he exclaimed, "is here and here," and he pointed to his head and put his hand on his heart. But that sort of nobility it was impossible for the court to understand, and they ordered his case to be transferred to the court for commoners, where he lost it, though he gained it in the end.

Helpless and awkward in every movement, spilling inkstands over his piano, breaking furniture when it came in his way; so tempestuous in his anger that if a waiter brought him the wrong dish of meat he would throw it, gravy and all, in his face, or if his cook gave him musty eggs for his soup would spatter her with them from head to foot; dashing the water over himself in his rooms in such floods that scarcely any one would have him for a lodger; sending a lady who had asked for a lock of his hair a tuft of goat's hair, and then apologizing when she discovered the deception, and never afterward speaking to the person who had suggested it to him; suddenly quitting a summer retreat, where he was supremely happy, because his host persisted in making him profound bows whenever he met him in his walks; constantly changing his abode from the north side of the city in May to the south side in August, and often having three lodgings at a time; this small, thin man, with his great head covered with bushy grey hair, and little brown eyes flashing bright or fixed and motionless as his thought possessed him, with long furrows in his chin, laughing like an ape in the midst of the wildest disorder, books and music and half-eaten luncheons and half-

emptied bottles, sketches for quartettes and Stracchino cheese, all mixed up together, deaf, and cheated and slandered—this great man, who they said never loved, though he never lived an hour without loving; who they said was parsimonious, though if he saved any money at all it was for a dissolute nephew who would have left him to die alone,—this abused Beethoven, who looked upon Händel as the greatest composer that ever lived, who silenced bores with a sarcasm and forgot his pupils for weeks together, and in his philosophical discussions would never permit the mention of thorough-bass or religion, which he declared were exhausted subjects—this man, so full of contradictions and absurdities and genius, was one of the kindest and purest of human beings. He who can comprehend his noble heart will not fail, as Schindler well says, to rank the man as high as the artist.

Of the divinity of his art no man ever had a purer conception. "Music is like wine," he says, "inflaming men's minds to new achievements, and I am the Bacchus who serves it out to them, and when they grow sober they shall find themselves possessed for ever of a spiritual draught." Solitary and poor, with so many infirmities that he was often tempted to curse his existence and to learn resignation from Plutarch, it was virtue alone, with its inspiring ideal, which upheld him in his misery and kept him from suicide. Shut out in great part from the world, tortured by suspicions, betrayed by those he loved, restless, anxious, wasted in body and mind, communion with God was his solace and his great strength. "I must live alone," he says; "yet I know that God is nearer to me than to my brothers in the art. I hold converse with him and fear not, for I have always known and understood him." Music, like her sister arts, was to him based upon morality, which was the fountain-head of all genuine inspiration. "Speak of me to Goethe," he says, "and tell him to hear my symphonies, and he will agree with me that music alone ushers man into the portals of an intellectual world ready to encompass him, but which he may never encompass." Goethe was spoken to, but Goethe understood not.

Sorrow illumined by the reconciling light from above, the martyrdom of earth glorified—that was Beethoven, says one of his critics. And the sorrow of earth, how it followed him to the end! In the summer of 1826, his nephew, driven desperate by his bad courses, attempted suicide, a crime which the law in Austria ascribes to a defect in religious education. The case was investigated, and the unfortunate youth committed to the charge of his uncle, with the injunction to leave Vienna in twenty-four hours. Returning home in the autumn, Beethoven caught cold, and his last sickness came upon him. He kept his bed, and his nephew went off to the billiard rooms and told the marker at one of them to send a physician to his uncle; but the marker was himself taken sick before he could do so, and, being carried to the hospital, remembered his commission, and the attending surgeon set off instantly to visit Beethoven. But it was too late; several days had elapsed, and the hand of death was heavy upon him. Yet his eccentricity never left him. When the landlady brought him an almanac to prove that the week was up and his rent was due, he sang the interrogatory motive of the quartette in F, op. 135, "Must it be?" and the woman, entering into his humor, stamped with her foot and said, "It must be!" and those words now stand in the superscription of the work.

The last thing he did was to make his nephew, who had so infamously abandoned him, his sole heir, and then musing said: "Do you hear the bell? The scene is shifting;" and it shifted, indeed, for the next act opened upon another world, whence we still seem to hear the echo of his words: "For my works I fear not. No evil can befall them. Whosoever shall understand them shall be freed from the misery that burdens mankind."

SHAKESPEARE'S DELINEATIONS OF INSANITY.*

Considering this book of long expected essays as a grateful tribute to the genius of Shakespeare by a most enthusiastic admirer, almost a worshipper, of the prince of poets, they can, of course, only be spoken of with praise. As a contribution to the study of Shakespeare they hardly command great or unqualified admiration. The writer being a physician to the insane, the chief thing of value to be expected in his work was that it would be the testimony of an expert in reference to the madmen and imbeciles whom the poet brings before us. And he does give us such testimony; but its value seems to be that of corroborative evidence only. To what we knew from other witnesses he adds almost nothing; and what he does add, and what he says when not speaking professionally, we are but doubtfully willing to receive. Still the essays will be found pleasant reading for an idle hour. We have most of us been *Rosalind's* lovers, and friends of *Valentine*, and confidants of *Romeo;* and who that has been will refuse to listen while one who also has known them and loved them chats with us of their sayings and doings, although what he tells us we have heard, perhaps, a hundred times before?

Much more than this the first few pages of the volume rather discourage us from expecting; for, after hearing two leading propositions which the author lays down at the outset, we are indisposed to trust confidently in his judgment or his information; and we read on, naturally distrusting theories and suspicious of facts which the author has seen fit, whether they need it or not, to support by extravagant assertions.

Shakespeare, Dr. Kellogg says, on the subject of physiology, anticipated the scientific discoveries and deductions of nearly two centuries; from the physiology of his own times it is quite evident that he could have derived no assistance whatever; in his age even the vitality of the blood was denied, and the denial has been the prevalent doctrine until quite recently. And these statements he supports by three quotations, one of which is from the play of "King John," where *Prince Henry* says of the king:

> "It is too late; the *life of all his blood*
> *Is touched corruptibly;* and his pure brain
> Doth, by the idle comments that it makes,
> Foretell the ending of mortality."

Another is the passage where *Romeo* asks the apothecary for a dram of poison, such

> "As will disperse itself through all the veins."

And another is where *Hamlet's* father tells his son how he was poisoned with juice of hebenon,

> "*Whose effect*
> *Holds such an enmity with blood of man,*
> That, swift as quicksilver, it courses through
> The natural gates and alleys of the body."

The italics are not ours, but the doctor's, and it is upon the italicized sentences that he relies for proof of the assertion not that Shakespeare's physiological knowledge was great and remarkable in a man of that period, but that it was peculiar to himself. Yet this is an assertion which ought not to have been made in all its breadth. Very little reading in the dramatists contemporary with Shakespeare would have convinced Dr. Kellogg that he was making too large a claim for his favorite. Thus, in a play of John Ford's, he might have heard *Giovanni* say to *Annabella*, whom he is about to kill:

> "Give me your hand. How sweetly life doth run
> In these well-colored veins; how constantly
> This pulse doth promise health."

And if it be said that Ford wrote plays for nearly ten years after Harvey had promulgated his great discovery or rediscovery of the circulation, it may be answered that it was never the habit of play-writers to put into the mouths of their characters as incidental remarks the expression of abstruse theories in science. The popular belief on this subject was not so far wrong as Dr. Kellogg seems to think. Marston more than once says "life-blood," and that is a word which does not show Marston totally ignorant of the vitality of the blood. No more do these other words of his, where *Antonio* murders little *Julio*, so revenging himself on the child's father:

> "It is not thee I hate or thee I kill,
> Thy father's blood that flows within thy veins
> Is that I loathe."

And in Beaumont and Fletcher's "Philaster," when the false page *Bellario* confesses her love for the prince, she thus describes the tremor into which she was thrown at first sight of him:

> "My blood flew out and back again as fast
> As I had puft it forth and suckt it in
> Like breath;"

language which makes it pretty clear that, whatever may have been the scientific squabbles of the Humoralists and Solidists, the blood of the poets had plenty of warm life and motion. Again, and lastly, this same John Fletcher, who died in 1625, three years before Harvey's discovery was made public, makes *Thenot* assure the *Faithful Shepherdess*, who thinks he comes to visit her because he has been charmed or has drunk some hurtful potion,

> "No beating vein conveys infection
> Dangerous to the heart."

The other of the two leading propositions of the author relates to Shakespeare's acquaintance with morbid psychological states, and is even more sweeping than the one just spoken of.

"To suppose," he says, "that Shakespeare obtained his knowledge of insanity and medical psychology from his contemporaries or from works on those subjects, is simply absurd;" and then he goes on to say further that "insanity was uniformly regarded by the contemporaries of the poet as an infliction of the devil. All the unfortunate sufferers by this dreadful malady

* "Shakespeare's Delineations of Insanity, Imbecility, and Suicide. By A. O. Kellogg, M.D., Assistant Physician State Lunatic Asylum, Utica, N. Y." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1866. Pp. 204.

were supposed to be possessed by Satan." Does Dr. Kellogg imagine that Thomas Kyd conceived of lunacy as diabolic possession merely when he makes old *Hieronymo* go distracted? *Horatio*, his son, is stabbed in the garden, and the bereaved father, the servants say,

——"now his aged years should sleep in rest,
Grows lunatic and childish for his son."

And there are the unfortunates in Decker's hospital; none of them had a devil,

——"yet do they act
Such antic and such pretty lunacies
That spite of sorrow they will make you smile."

Nor is there anything astounding in the knowledge of the proper treatment of lunatics which is displayed by the physician in "Lear" who tells *Cordelia*

"Our foster nurse of nature is repose,
The which he lacks,"

when we hear Marlowe's *Edward II.* complaining from his dungeon,

"So that for want of sleep and sustenance
My mind 's distempered."

Dr. Kellogg with his great love for the poet will not feel inclined to give him a diminished admiration because it cannot quite be proved that Shakespeare was a medical man inspired. It was just as he excelled his contemporaries in depicting the workings of sane minds, and just because he excelled them in this, that he excelled them all in delineating the disordered movements of a mind distraught. To attempt placing his superiority on other grounds would be not beneficial but injurious to his fame.

Our author divides his book into three parts, the last treating of Shakespeare's suicides, for whom *Othello* stands representative. Under the head of Shakespeare's insane he ranges *Macbeth* and *Lady Macbeth*, who, he thinks, are not insane—still, the one saw an air-drawn dagger and the other walked in her sleep; *King Lear*, who is an admitted madman; *Cordelia*, not that she is mad, but because she shows the spirit which should govern all who come in contact with those who are mad; *Ophelia*, who certainly was crazed; *Hamlet*, whom Dr. Kellogg thinks so; and, very strangely indeed, *Jacques*, for no reason, apparently, except that Shakespeare calls him "the melancholy *Jacques*." Shakespeare's imbeciles constitute the second list, which is headed by *Bottom*, *Dogberry*, *Elbow*, and *Justice Shallow*, who, to our mind, is very unfairly treated when he is written down an imbecile. Still more unfair is it to give that name to the grave, affected steward of the lady *Olivia*, *Malvolio*, who "thought nobly of the soul," and whom our author looks on as the "brainless fop," whose "external, personal qualities are with him all sufficient, all in all," the prototype of the modern dandy in "flashy vest, tight boots," etc. *Bardolph* is another witless person, and so is huffing *Pistol*, with his wonderful power of quotation, and *Nym*, and last of all comes the singular imbecile *Caliban*, whom *Prospero* makes begotten by a devil on Sycorax his dam, and who seems to Dr. Kellogg to bear so strong a resemblance to a Port Royal or Fortress Monroe contraband that he gravely calls those negroes our Southern Calibans.

Of the character of *Jacques* Dr. Kellogg takes an original view. He finds in it a representation of a delicate shade of incipient melancholia. We find a shade of humorous melancholy in it, for *Jacques* is like all humorists; but what a perversion of language, as men count language outside of lunatic asylums, it is to call *Jacques* an insane man. And how plainly it is seen to be a mere perversion of language when, the insanity being assumed, the doctor proceeds to account for it and tries to find which "great mainspring of his mental and moral machinery has been broken and destroyed." He discovers which one it is in the following passage. *Jacques* and the duke and his companions are in the forest, and *Jacques* is moralizing. He promises, if invested with the motley, to speak his mind with perfect freedom—

——"and I will through and through
Cleanse the foul body of the infected world,
If they will patiently receive my medicine."

The duke cries fie on him and declares that the new preacher would do most foul sin in chiding sin:

"For thou thyself hast been a libertine
As sensual as the brutish sting itself,
And all the embossed sores and headed evils
Which thou with license of free foot hast caught,
Wouldst thou disgorge into the general world."

Giving its literal meaning to this remark, the utterance of which he stigmatizes as a very ungentlemanly act on the part of the duke, and giving the word libertine the special meaning which it bears to-day, the author is "forced reluctantly to believe" that the profligate life led by *Jacques* before we meet him in the forest of Arden had been so punished by disease as to disgust him with the world, and he had become transformed from a debauchee to an impotent railer at pleasures which he could not share. We would a little rather have met *Jacques* among the imbeciles, if it was necessary that there should be an essay about him at all. Apparently a sane man who has once been put into the *Journal of Insanity* finds it as difficult to get released from the doctors as a sane man who has been put into an asylum.

In the view of *Lear* here presented we find nothing new except the theory, briefly enunciated and unsupported by anything but the essayist's authority as a physician, that the king had always been partially mad. He dissents from *Regan's* and *Goneril's* opinions of their father that he was a passionate man, always peevishly or fiercely wayward, inconstant, and impetuous, and also from the opinions of the critics, that the bitter insults and heart-sickening injuries of his thankless, wicked daughters, operating on a loving, vain, generous, domineering soul, raised within it a storm sufficient to overthrow a mind naturally not too strong. That *Lear* was a man who might easily be driven mad when placed in such circumstances as the poet has thrown around him, anybody will admit; that *Lear* was always more or less insane, everybody would rather see proved before they assent to it. But they would rather not see it proved. Medical psychology might gain, but poetry would lose if the tremendous drama of "Lear"—the spectacle of a mind destroyed by unnatural injuries, of the greatest of calamities inflicted by the greatest wickedness—were changed into Dr. Kellogg's *Lear*—the ravings, the sublime ravings, of a person laboring under frequent attacks of mania, together with practical directions for the management of the patient.

The Prince of Denmark, of course, is insane. Into the general question of *Hamlet's* madness we do not intend to go. This is a not unfair statement of Dr. Kellogg's theory: Suddenly, in the twinkling of an eye almost, when he has learned that his uncle, *Claudius*, has been guilty of great crimes, the "lion-hearted" nephew, who hitherto had shown "no weakness, no vacillation, no want of energy, no infirmity of purpose," goes crazy. His intellect continues to be acute and is not greatly shaken. But in the paroxysm, the volcanic eruption, consequent upon a sudden revelation of the fact that his uncle had killed his father, the man's will is paralyzed and thenceforth useless. Force and energy vanish. This is shown by his first exclamation after the radical change has occurred:

"O all you host of heaven! O earth! What else?
And shall I couple hell?—O fie—hold, my heart;
And you, my sinews, *grow not instant old*."

Adopting this theory, of course everything that is hard in *Hamlet's* character and actions is easily accounted for, "insane with lucid intervals" being an explanation which, it is hardly too much to say, will fit the life and character of any man except men always insane. This particular theory of an almost instantaneous paralysis of *Hamlet's* will, of his moral nature, is, we believe, a new one. That such paralysis is in itself, scientifically, a medico-psychological possibility, we are willing to receive, on Dr. Kellogg's word. That in the case of *Hamlet*, as Dr. Kellogg describes him, the cause, as Dr. Kellogg describes it, is adequate to the production of the effect, seems to us a thing not to be received, and we should prefer considering the problem unsettled, particularly as in our opinion the facts in the case do not require any theory of insanity as insanity is usually understood outside of jury-boxes.

The pleasantest reading which we find in the book, and we think the most discriminative Shakespearean criticism, we find in the little essay entitled "Launce." As an average specimen of the author's style and of his general weight and force we extract a sentence or two from it:

"*Launce*, like many in life of far greater Christian pretentions and of far greater intellectual if not moral proportions, appears not to have been unsusceptible to the influence of money in the formation and direction of matrimonial alliances. With him, as with others, wealth appears to have been a cloak whose ample folds were sufficient to cover a multitude of vices, for though she have 'more faults than hairs,' the wealth was all powerful to 'make the faults gracious.'"

If an orthographical error is noticed in the first line of the extract, we would say that it is by no means the only proof of carelessness that we have observed in reading the book, which, however, is quite neat in most respects.

A Summer in Skye. By Alexander Smith. Popular edition. (Alexander Strahan, London and New York.)—Our opinion of this book was given on page 788, Vol. I., of THE NATION, and it only remains for us to speak of its present appearance or re-appearance, for it comes to us this time under a different imprint. We must say, then, that for a "popular edition" it imputes indisputable good taste to the people implied, and that the fastidious persons whom it precludes from purchasing it are very much to be pitied for the deprivation, or very much to be envied for the excellence of the typographical standard which puts them outside the pale. We are afraid that the public which will consume this edition is after all a limited one, and we are not sorry—at least on the public's account. There are better models of style than Mr. Smith's, and livelier reading than his "Summer in Skye," and better sources of information about the Scotch man and nature and scenery.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

THE UNITED STATES AND THE FENIANS.

THE House of Representatives took the extraordinary step, on Monday last, of referring, for consideration, to the Committee on Foreign Affairs, a proposition for the repeal of the neutrality laws, for the avowed purpose of letting the Fenians get at the Canadians and the British Empire generally. There is, of course, very little chance that the committee will report in favor of any such scheme, or that, if it did, its report would be acted upon. The object of the mover, Mr. Ancona, was, probably, to secure the Irish vote this fall, and that of the majority generally was, probably, partly to express their sense of the manner in which this country has been treated by England, and partly to place Mr. Johnson in a somewhat odious light before a class on whom he has now largely to rely for support and commendation of "his policy." The Fenians have been greatly elated by what has taken place, but they will probably find out, when the proper time comes, that in this as in other cases "fair words butter no parsnips," and that the office of avenging American wrongs will not be allowed to fall to them.

A good many people, of more sense and discrimination than the Fenians, however, will probably be somewhat befogged by Mr. Ancona's resolution—the more probably, as he and those who followed him were careful to "demand the previous question," in accordance with the amiable custom which we discussed a fortnight ago, for the express purpose of preventing discussion upon a matter which stood pre-eminently in need of thorough discussion. His resolution was just one of those which will not bear discussion, and for the defeat of which discussion is intended. There was absolutely nothing to be said for it, and if anybody had attempted to defend it, the chances are that everybody else would have been ashamed to vote for it after a full exposition had been made of the arguments in its favor.

That this language is not too strong to be used about it, will be apparent to anybody who considers what the real question is which presents itself to the American public when deciding upon what course should be pursued towards the Fenians. It is not whether the Fenians have good cause for making war on England. It is not whether Ireland is entitled to national independence. The Fenians may have "the holiest cause that tongue or sword of mortal ever lost or gained," and yet it may be highly wrong for them to assert it, or make preparations to assert it, on American soil. If all the people in the world who are, or think themselves, oppressed or outraged were to establish themselves here for the purpose of fitting out expeditions against their enemies, the United States would speedily be converted into a pirates' den. All kinds of mock wars would be got up for purposes of plunder. There would be numberless companies organized by needy gentlemen for the purpose of conquering Russia, Prussia, Austria, Spain, and Great Britain, and various other foreign powers, and their operations would consist mainly in the robbing of enemy's merchantmen. These wars, too, would possess the (to one of the parties at least) pleasing peculiarity of being interminable. There would never come a time when the Fenians would be found ready to make peace with England, the Hungarians with Austria, or the Poles with Russia. When a belligerent has only an "office down town," or "desk room," there is clearly no bringing him to terms, except by buying him out; and even if he were bought out, there could be no security that he would not declare war again next day if he found himself short of money.

Nor has the behavior of England to the United States during our war the least bearing on our duty towards Roberts, Sweeney, and company. England either fulfilled her obligations towards us or she did not. If she did, we are doubly bound, first by law and then by gratitude, to see that hostile expeditions are not fitted out against her on our soil. If she did not, it is our prerogative to exact satisfaction of her. But whether we shall exact satisfaction or not, and, if we do exact it, when we shall do it, is for the President and Congress to decide, and their decision it is the duty of the army and navy exclusively of the United States to execute. It is impossible to enforce this doctrine too strongly. There is a vague notion afloat that when the country has been wronged by a foreign power, anybody who happens to know of it, and likes to take the risk, is justified in taking a shot at the wrong-doer, and is entitled to the sympathy and support of the public if he comes to grief in so doing. Naval officers in particular have very loose ideas on this subject, and every now and then break away from their instructions for the purpose of carrying out some policy or other which they have evolved from the depths of their own consciousness, and think the Government ought to adopt. We hold, however, that the national honor is and ought to be lodged in the hands of the Government; that it is the business of the Government only to take care of it, and that all attempts on the part of individuals to take this duty out of their hands is more than an impertinence. It is an attempt to undermine the discipline on which our whole political fabric rests, and to destroy the responsibility without which our whole system of government would be a clumsy sham. It is absurd to hold Mr. McCulloch answerable for the proper administration of our finances, and Mr. Seward for the proper conduct of our foreign affairs, and the President and Senate for the maintenance of the national honor, the national dignity, in the eyes of the world, if a portion of the war-making power is reserved for any Roberts, or Sweeney, or B. Doran Killian who can persuade a band of adventurers and ragamuffins to follow him with fife and drum to the frontier.

We also object to the Ancona resolution, and we think the silence which most journals, except the *Evening Post*, have observed with regard to it to be very reprehensible, because that resolution in terms gives the sanction of Congress to the disgraceful and humiliating theory that occasions may arise in which the United States may be either unwilling or unable to avenge its own wrongs, or to vindicate its own honor, and ready to leave the task to brigands surreptitiously organized in defiance of its own laws. If there is any good reason to be found in our relations with England, either past or present, why Canada should be invaded or English commerce cut up, General Grant or Admiral Farragut is the proper person to do it, and the President to decide when it is to be done. Mr. Johnson is not by any means our ideal chief magistrate, but we think far too highly of him ever to wish to see him entering into an alliance offensive and defensive on behalf of the American people with "President" Roberts of the Bowery.

CAPTAIN LEMUEL GULLIVER AS A PUBLICIST.

WHEN that only authentic traveller, Captain Lemuel Gulliver, was sojourning in Houyhnhnm land—the country where horses are the reasoning race and men the beasts of burden—his four-footed master used to question him as to the customs and history of the strange region from whence he came. Among other things he was curious to know the causes for which the Yahoos of Europe (such being the designation in that country for the inferior race) went to war with one another, after he had come with infinite difficulty to know what "war" meant. Captain Gulliver, with an accurate knowledge of history and international law which would have done credit to an ambassador, told him that "sometimes the quarrel between two princes is to decide which of them shall dispossess a third of his dominions, where neither of them pretend any right. Sometimes one prince quarrelleth with another for fear the other should quarrel with him. Sometimes a war is entered upon because the enemy is too *strong*, and sometimes because he is too *weak*. Sometimes our neighbors *want* the things which we *have*, or *have* the things which we *want*, and we both fight till they take ours or give us theirs;" with much more excellent discourse as to this particular phase of our Christian civilization.

Now, although it was so long ago as the 9th day of May, 1711, that Captain Gulliver first set foot on the shore of that interesting country, which, unhappily, hath never been re-discovered, the history of Europe for the last three years could not be more accurately described than in

these words of this admirable voyager more than a century and a half ago. For instance, the Duchies of Schleswig and Holstein have appertained to the crown of Denmark for more than four hundred years. They appertained to the crown, as we apprehend, and not to the person of the monarch, inasmuch as the throne of Denmark was not hereditary but elective for two hundred years later—though, as the choice always fell in the line of descent of Count Christian of Oldenburg, through whom they were annexed, we may be mistaken in this particular. A little more than two hundred years ago, in 1660, the reigning monarch, Frederick III., afforded Louis Napoleon one of the many historical precedents, on a small scale, for his *coup d'état*. By skilfully concerted manœuvres he succeeded in making himself absolute king, with the crown hereditary in his family. Although Frederick III. thus, like his predecessor King Claudius,

> —"from a shelf the precious diadem stole
> And put it in his pocket,"

there was this special distinction between this conveyance of his and *le crime du deux décembre*, that his larceny was accompanied by no bloodshed. It is altogether likely that there will also be another difference in the remoter consequences of the two acts, inasmuch as the Majesty of Denmark transmitted his sceptre through six or seven generations of descendants down to the year 1863. But that is aside from our purpose. Holstein, though a dependency of the Danish crown, was a member of the Germanic Confederation, which Schleswig was not, the former duchy being mainly German in the constitution of its population. Our readers will remember the Schleswig-Holstein war which arose in 1848 for the purpose of separating them from Denmark, but which was put down by the rest of Europe and their relations left *in statu quo*. In 1852 the late king, Frederick VII., in contemplation of the extinction of the direct line of Frederick III., like a prudent prince thought to provide for the peace of his dominions by having the succession settled during his lifetime. He accordingly, with the entire good will of his subjects, selected his near relative, the present King, as his successor, who ascended the throne on his death, in 1863, as Christian IX., with apparently as good a title to all the dominions belonging to it as could be given.

For Frederick VII., by way of making assurance doubly sure, called in the great Powers of Europe to sanction his arrangement. Accordingly, France, England, Austria, Russia, and Prussia united in the treaty of 1852, by which the succession to the Danish crown and its dependencies, including the duchies, was secured according to the king's plan, Russia renouncing any claim of hers to Holstein on the failure of the male line. To this arrangement almost all the other lesser powers —Sweden, Holland, Belgium, Spain, Portugal, Sardinia, Tuscany, Naples, and Greece—also signified their assent. There was also a possible claim to Holstein, since the Salic law, excluding women, was in operation there, as we stated a few weeks ago, which might be urged by the Duke of Augustenburg. This claim was of a very dubious quality, and probably could not have been maintained; but to make everything comfortable and extinguish every adverse title, a handsome pecuniary equivalent—about, if we remember right, two millions of dollars—was paid to put an end to this pretension. If ever an estate was satisfactorily settled during a man's lifetime, surely it was that of Frederick VII. So he slept with his fathers, and Christian reigned in his stead. But not in peace, for the dispute as to the duchies arose at once, or at least as to Holstein. The Diet of the Germanic Confederation set up the Augustenburg claim, notwithstanding the renunciation of it by the family for a valuable consideration. The success of Italy had revived and made more intense the idea of German unity, and hence arose the excitement in Germany on this matter, when it was thought that Holstein at least might be severed from Denmark and erected into one of the small principalities. The pretext was that the Confederation had not been a party to the settlement. But it would have kindled afresh the fires of revolution yet smouldering beneath the ashes of the reaction if this agitating question had been submitted to the decision of the Diet. But the principal members of the Confederation were consulted, and Würtemberg, Hesse, Hanover, and Saxony assented to the arrangement. Denmark not consenting to divest herself of one of the ancient jewels of her crown, the Diet ordered federal execution, or the enforcement of its pleasure by the combined arms of the Confederation. Accordingly, Hanover and Saxony, notwithstanding their accession to the treaty of 1852, took armed possession of the duchy. The King of Denmark did not resist this demonstration, as the Diet had the constitutional power to give the order, and retired behind the boundary line separating Holstein from Schleswig, ready to resist an attack there, and awaiting the vindication of his rights under the treaty by the signataries thereof.

Up to this point Prussia and Austria had been only distant spectators. But now Prussia, inspired by Bismark, was moved to put herself at the head of the Confederation and vindicate the injured rights of Augustenburg, and Austria joined with her to see that she did not go too far. So they marched with 80,000 men upon the line of the Dannewerk, behind which were 15,000 Danes arrayed against them. This little band made a gallant resistance; but what could they do? The 80,000 bayonets were irresistible arguments. Then followed the Conference of London proposed by England, into the particulars of which we have not room to enter. The great Powers had the power, if they had the will, to compel the fulfilment of the treaty of 1852. But it could only be done by war, and England could not venture to fight, with America standing ready to reciprocate her neutrality towards herself. And France saw that a fight could hardly go wrong for her, and that without her armed interference, at least till it was well over. Prussia and Austria demanded the cession of both the duchies as the right of the Duke of Augustenburg. The French Mephistopheles suggested leaving the question to the suffrage of the population. Holstein was first offered, and then a part of Schleswig besides, only leaving Denmark a defensible frontier. But Mephistopheles only murmured, "Let the people decide by universal suffrage."

This solution could not be accepted by any of the Powers on general principles, and especially by England and Russia, as the vote would be a foregone conclusion against Denmark. So the Conference broke up, the war went on, the fifteen thousand fought a good fight against the eighty thousand; but the plucky little dwarf had to yield to the two overgrown giants, and the two duchies were ceded by the King of Denmark, by the treaty of Vienna, in 1864. It would seem now as if the federal execution was complete, and that the two executing Powers had nothing to do but to leave the disposition of the duchies in the hands of the Diet. Not at all. The Hanoverian and Saxon troops, which occupied Holstein by the orders of the Diet, were peremptorily ordered by Prussia to go about their business, which they did. Then the coast was clear for Augustenburg, who could be put in possession of his rights at once. Nothing of the sort. He was told to go about his business, too, until the syndics of the crown could settle the law of the matter. In the *interim*, by the Convention of Gastein, Prussia was to hold Schleswig, and Austria Holstein. In due time those learned pundits, the syndics, pronounced their oracular decision—and what was it? Why, that neither the Duke of Augustenburg nor the Confederation had any rights in the duchies—that they belonged to King Christian IX.! Of course they must be restored to him. Oh, no; he had ceded them to Austria and Prussia, and so they were the lawful owners in fee! Could Gulliver have invented a case more pat to illustrate his public law? The Confederation which had no right to the duchies goes to war with the rightful owner for the Duke of Augustenburg, who also has no right to them. Prussia and Austria, who never pretended to have any right to them, came to the help of the robbers, and, having wrested the prey from the owner, claim that it belongs to them! At least Prussia does, for Austria does seem a little ashamed of her share in a transaction which only inures to the advantage of her Germanic rival, and holds that the duchies should be given up to the Confederation. Out of this quarrel between these accessories about the booty a general war impends over Europe! Italy seizes the opportunity to get Venetia. Prussia sides with her as against Austria. And France eggs them on for the pickings that will be sure to fall to her share. Prussia and Italy may prevail against Austria, but France will get Sardinia and the Rhine frontier, for permitting it. And thus another axiom of the sage Gulliver will be illustrated, that "war is justifiable when we need a town or territory to make our territories round and compact." Public morality would not seem to have mended much since his Houyhnhnm course of lectures on the subject.

SOME OF OUR SOCIAL PHILOSOPHERS.

THE riddle of the painful earth is naturally more guessed at in the middle of Yankee land than in other regions. Down South one rather exacting social problem and the nocturnal patrol duty which its presence entailed, distracted all attention from other questions of like nature. These are mostly of recent growth, and our Southern brethren were still bowing down to Dr. Johnson in literature, Dr. Jalap in medicine, Dr. John Knox in religion and theology; and in sociology, so far as it has been studied, Dr. Nott and Mr. Legree were pretty good authorities up to a very recent date. The negro and the Jewish Scriptures of the Old Testament beat the Gospels and the Reformers quite out of the field. In Baltimore, to be sure, the author of "Emily Chester" was produced, but that apotheosis of goose-flesh was preceded by nothing like it and followed by nothing like it—it was paroxysmal and exceptional, and, besides, before it was published, Maryland was a free State.

Here, in New York, we have Carl Benson, and we used to have Fanny Fern, who now and then shed us a ray of light on social questions. But the latter has long been mute, we believe, and the fern leaves are blown away, vanished out of sight and out of mind. The former makes less impression than, with his abilities and opportunities, he ought, and we fear will never be very useful to American society. He seems to look at it from the window of his family coach; but this vehicle is so uncommon a *locus standi* for observers in this country that not many people can be at all expected to see things as he sees them, and he can never address a thoroughly appreciative audience till we get ourselves all ranged in ordered classes, with the proper gulf fixed between Dives and Lazarus, and Dives and Lazarus properly placed relatively to the gulf and each other. But that, it is likely, will never happen, Democracy being so much in love with itself. Though it is unwashed, ungrateful, fierce, and a failure, and makes the judicious grieve for these its many faults, it adds to them impudent self-complacency and robust perverseness; to commit suicide because only its friends like its behavior, and other people are really compelled to confess themselves hardly satisfied with all it does, it quite refuses. Privileged classes it will not set up, and talking to it about them is of no use whatever—labor lost.

In Massachusetts, however, we count them not by ones and twos; they are many. There are Mrs. Stowe, and the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table, and Gail Hamilton, and Timothy Titcomb, and the author of "Moods," and the author of "Young Knighthood," and not a few more who, if they do not speak for themselves, need never, in Massachusetts, be at a loss for some league or association to speak for them. If Carl Benson habitually conceives of existence from the point of view of a wealthy gentleman with town-house and country-house, to whom life comes in seasons—as the season for woodcock, for yachting, for returning to the city; who possesses butler, picture-gallery, library, and many ounces of plate, Mrs. Stowe as habitually conceives of it as a succession of forenoons with chores and housework, and an occasional story of a squirrel to a small nephew hanging round the bread-tray, and a succession of afternoons with knitting and a book at home; abroad, a soldier's aid association, perhaps, or Dorcas society; perhaps a run into Messrs. Williams & Everett's; and perhaps a call on Mrs. Marvyn, who, we suppose, must now be reading "Ecce Homo," or pensively perusing "Les Apôtres," for the improvement of her time and mind.

She is shrewd and humorous and often poetical, but above all things she is matronly and motherly. "Uncle Tom's Cabin" is slavery exposed; but slavery as it affects the mansion of the master and the hut of the slave, the domestic relations, the life of the hearthstone, and only incidentally is it revealed in its other aspects. It was the shiftlessness of its household management more than its wickeder features which was most trying to the soul of Miss Ophelia. Dred, and Agnes of Sorrento, we are not, as yet, familiar with, but the "Minister's Wooing"—certainly it was carried on amid notable housekeeping and much dress-making—and Dr. Hopkins's singing angel of a Mary Scudder, Mrs. Stowe, with characteristic wisdom, makes an excellent plain cook, as knowing that if the road by way of the eyes and ears is the shortest to a man's heart before marriage, after marriage, even in the case of saintly men, the shortest road lies down his throat. And nowadays being wise with the wisdom which it gives to bear, to nurse, to rear, to watch, to lay out the dead, to comfort the living, to order the household well, to chronicle small beer, and devise recipes, she naturally takes to the chimney corner, talking kindly, sensibly, wittily, and sometimes, let us confess, just a little prosily, as one may in one's own chimney corner; and all the young married men, and young married women, and those who contemplate matrimony, and gentlemen whose wives now and then nag viciously and show temper and will not be amenable to the voice of reason, and wives themselves, who, after all, it is to be remembered, can frequently on those occasions plead that inflictions sore long time they bore from servant girls, and these latter, perpetual emigrants—all may sit at her feet and learn of her the proper conduct of life in kitchen, parlor, and pantry.

The Autocrat of the Breakfast Table evidently by preference would be autocrat of the Monday morning breakfast table of an evangelical church-going family. It is a fresh sermon that he likes to take for the text of his monologue. And as it is not always Monday morning, he shrewdly gets board at a table where there is a divinity student, and so the dissection of dogmas is always in order. The particular dogma of future punishment and the hopeless eternity of it get attention in "Elsie Venner"—a scientific romance of the destiny which a physician can discern in blood and nervous tissue, the physiologist's flat contradiction of the Westminster divine. This is the motive, as the French would say, of works which not the Westminster divine himself would deny flow from a reservoir of observation and thought, and a natural fountain of wit and humor.

Timothy Titcomb Holland has such a Tupperian talent for truisms that his talent for truths can hardly be immense, so we hesitate the less about refusing to take his word when he informs us that in writing to young men and young women he is as a brother. A brother is of some particular sex, we at once reply, displaying an astuteness which reminds us of Timothy himself, and a conclusiveness which does not remind us of him at all. To him, as Shakespeare says he could, the poet of imagination all compact might give a local habitation and a name; but for us to decide upon where it is that he belongs is as difficult as it might be easy, and must be impolite, to say what it is that he writes. We had the advantage of reading him for the first time in an italicized copy of his works, too, for, before we had it from the library, it had passed through the hands of several young ladies. But this fact was of more value in showing us that he wrote either too feebly or just feebly enough for a young ladies' boarding-school than in aiding us to discover why he should write at all, or from what standing-point he viewed the world. Perhaps he knew some of the families too often to be seen which have on their book-shelf five secular books—Abbott's "Life of Napoleon;" "The Prince of the House of David;" a gift-enterprise illustrated work on India, China, and Japan; Headley's "Washington and his Generals;" and a combination volume containing the "Proverbial Philosophy," Henry Kirke White, and Pollok's "Course of Time"—and knowing them, decided to write as one who had found a market, and deliberately addresses these numerous families of the house of Titcomb as Mrs. Stowe addresses families in general, and Carl Benson our first families, and the Autocrat families with evangelical altars.

Of the sex of Gail Hamilton, whose new book is the cause of this article, there is not the least doubt. She is an unmistakable woman when Mr. Gilfillan is not her theme, not without the pertness and tartness with which every Halicarnassus is acquainted, with the audacity which knows it is charming, with a trifle of what a bachelor disputing with her might call the female tendency to brag that if she cannot argue she can *feel*, with the alleged willingness of lovely, lively woman not only to speak her mind, which is much, but to speak anyhow, which is something more. To charge her with occasionally dealing in platitudes is not possible, however, when her reader is just from the one weak, washy, everlasting flood of him of Springfield, whose greatest achievement is that actually to one collocation of words he has given a new meaning, or a new force to the meaning already supplied him. Flat as Holland now signifies a deader level than ever. Gail Hamilton, as she confesses, is theological, for she cannot help it, being essentially a Puritan. Mr. Vallandigham would not recognize her, nor Colonel L. P. Milligan, of Indiana, and we doubt if Mrs. Hemans would, or most painters in the grand style, or Professor Charles Kingsley (but this is a historical question), or any Englishman with "The Scarlet Letter" in hand; but let a man study the last developments of the spirit of Puritanism in its adopted and more kindly home, learn what Palfrey and Lowell can teach him, and visit Concord, a thing which can be thoroughly done without travelling, and he perceives that Gail Hamilton is a graceful twig, frequently a switch, perhaps, of the old Protestant stock. Equally with Cotton Mather or Jonathan Edwards she lives in a world which has heaven close above it and hell close underneath it, though hers is not exactly the heaven and hell of two hundred years ago; but the difference is not in the boundaries of her earth nor in the nearness of them. So, down on the farm in the hay country, the meeting-house in sight, the ancient church of Ipswich and the ancient church of Chebacco, with their incidental villages, not far away, she is theological and polemical and religious by virtue of being alive. "Summer Rest," her last volume, with a title, by the way, as pretty and as inconsequent as it ought to be, will show all her characteristics, warlike and otherwise, her surface flippancy and foolishness, her real earnestness and honesty, her womanly goodness and her good sense, her keenness of thought, her independence, her horrible and shameless puns, her frolic and sly humor, and dry humor and wit, and her eagerness to do to-day in her

generation what her Puritan fathers were doing generations ago in their day—working in the fear of God to free, so far as it may be freed, the human spirit.

THE EXCOMMUNICATION OF NOXIOUS ANIMALS BY THE CATHOLIC CHURCH.

THERE was published a few years ago, at Chambéry, a book now almost unknown, relating to the history of the Middle Ages, entitled "De l'origine, de la forme, et de l'esprit des Jugemens rendus au Moyen Age, contre les Animaux, par Léon Ménabréa." The object of the author, who was an uncompromising advocate of all the abuses of mediæval Christianity, is to defend the ecclesiastical tribunals before which the proceedings referred to in the title were conducted, against the imputation of "barbarity and superstition;" but the evidence adduced will be thought by most readers to support rather than to refute the charge.

"These proceedings," observes he, "were originally only symbolical in their nature, and designed to revive the sentiment of justice among populations who knew no right but the right of the stronger, no law but the law of intimidation and violence. In the Middle Ages, when disorder brooded over society; when the weak had no recourse against the mighty; when property was exposed to invasion, devastation, and rapine, there was something beautiful in the thought which assimilated the worm of the dust to the masterpiece of creation, and placed the one on a level with the other. If men were bound to respect the retreat of the caterpillar, how much more ought man to respect man—how much more ought each to conform to the rule of right! These ideas, by their very exaggeration, were calculated to make a lively impression on the mind, and to excite in the people a reverence for the social virtues."

The statement of the writer in regard to the original character and object of these proceedings is in direct conflict with his proofs, and I cite this *galimatias* not merely as illustrating the weakness of his argumentation, but for the sake of the admission, on the part of a devoted admirer of the civil and ecclesiastical institutions of the Middle Ages, that at the period when those institutions were in full vigor, when the Church of which he was a faithful son had the undisputed monopoly of moral and religious instruction, when the peasant knew no authority, human or divine, but those of the feudal lord and the priest, neither life nor property were in the least secure from arbitrary violence, and the people were destitute of the very notions of right, of law, and of "the social virtues." The proceedings in question profess no such object as Ménabréa ascribes to them; they were accompanied by none of the theatrical pomp with which Catholicism surrounds public observances, designed specially to impress the multitude, but were clothed in the hard, dry forms of ordinary judicial process; they were not, like the "Mysteries," which were got up for moral effect, conducted in the dialect of the people, but in a language intelligible to none but the priesthood. Their real purpose was to increase the dependence of the people upon the Church, as a power not only holding the keys of Heaven, but as able also to secure the temporal prosperity of its votaries by protecting them and their possessions against the material warfare of Satan.

Ménabréa insists that "at the period when ecclesiastical process against noxious animals was practised, men were not blind enough (*on n'était pas assez aveugle*) to believe that brute creatures were endowed with conscience," and consequently amenable to ecclesiastical jurisdiction. When he asserts that *men*—for, in this case, we cannot well translate otherwise the convenient, non-committal French *on*—were thus incredulous, he means, of course, the priests, who, doubtless, then believed as little, the people on the other hand as devoutly, in the supernatural powers of the clergy and the efficacy of their incantations, as they respectively do to-day in the miraculous liquefaction of the blood of St. Januarius at Naples, or the distorted eye-glances of the Winking Virgin of Rimini, both of which, be it observed, have been solemnly attested as genuine by the present "enlightened" Pontiff.

Our author takes much pains to establish what he considers an essential distinction between the anathema which it was usual to fulminate against vermin, and technical excommunication. It is to be doubted whether the subjects of the proceedings themselves attached great importance to the distinction. Probably the grub, the beetle, the army-worm, and the grasshopper, if consulted, would have cared little whether they were simply anathematized or more formally delivered over to Satan by the solemn ceremony of "candle, book, and bell." We need not be more critical than they, and even the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals may well concede to Mr. Ménabréa the benefit of his distinction. But it is, nevertheless, certain that in the official documents relating to these proceedings "excommunication" is often mentioned as the object and result of them, and there is no doubt that the sentence against creeping things was often handsomely garnished with the most highly-spiced cursing and swearing afforded by the rich vocabulary of the Church.

Ménabréa makes numerous citations from the records of process against noxious animals at different periods, and at the close of his volume prints at length two interesting documents, the first an essay in defence of such proceedings, published in 1668, by Bellay, an eminent Savoyard jurist; the other a somewhat mutilated record of a prosecution instituted, or rather revived, by *scire facias*, in 1587, at the instance of the syndic of the commune of St. Julian, before the bishop of the diocese of St. Jean de Maurienne, against certain noxious insects called *verpillons* or *amblevins*, which infested the vineyards of that district. From these rolls and other evidences it appears that the forms of process did not differ from those observed by the lay tribunals in cases where the accused were human beings. There was, first, a regular complaint or indictment, then a citation to the criminal, then the assignment of counsel for the defence—in this case a sort of *advocatus Diaboli*. After these preliminaries followed dilatory or other pleadings, the testimony of witnesses, the arguments of counsel, and finally the judgment of the episcopal tribunal. Imparlances were sometimes granted in the hope of an amicable arrangement between the injured prosecutor and the contrite offender; at other times the case was hotly contested to the definitive sentence. It is recorded by the great historian, De Thou, that Barthélémy Chassanée, one of the most eminent French lawyers of the sixteenth century, laid the foundation of his fame by the ingenuity of his dilatory pleas, and the general ability with which he conducted the defence of the rats of Autun, when indicted before the bishop of that diocese. Among other things he obtained repeated postponements of the trial by urging the distance which many of his clients were obliged to travel through a country much infested with cats, which were now especially on the alert in consequence of the notoriety of the proceedings.

The foundation of the jurisdiction of the Church over destructive insects and other noxious animals was the notion, which the priests industriously propagated, that these creatures were, if not incarnate demons, at least actuated and prompted by evil spirits, and this doctrine was affirmed by an infallible pontiff, Pius VII., as late as in 1803, in a case which we shall have occasion again to refer to. The point was, indeed, sometimes questioned, and the counsel for the defence argued that the accused were "creatures of God," consuming the food appointed to them in obedience to natural impulses; but this view does not seem to have ever been generally sustained.

At a comparatively early period ecclesiastical dignitaries appear to have acted upon their own motion against noxious animals. Thus, St. Bernard, observing, as he was about to ascend the pulpit, a huge swarm of flies buzzing about the church with the evident intent of driving out the audience and so depriving them of the edification they might otherwise reap from his sermon, excommunicated them on the spot, without giving them an opportunity of a hearing. "Excommunico eas," thundered he, upon which they fell to the floor and covered it to such a depth that it was necessary to shovel them out. St. Hugh, Bishop of Grenoble in the eleventh century, visiting the baths of Aix, found them much infested with serpents. He forthwith excommunicated the reptiles with such effect that, though they afterwards now and then playfully indulged themselves in a bite, their fangs were no longer venomous. St. Grat, too, in the time of Charlemagne, volunteered to banish the moles from the valley of Aosta and the neighboring districts, to the distance of three good miles, not much, I fear, to the satisfaction of the peasants to whose fields they retreated. St. James, the Assyrian, compelled a bear, which had feloniously killed an ox employed in his service, to take the place of his victim and help to draw the materials for the building he was erecting. St. William of Ecublens, Bishop of Lausanne between 1221 and 1229, banished the eels which had multiplied frightfully in Lake Leman to a retired spot, which they never dared to leave.

The power of performing these marvels appears to have been assignable to the laity, for the veracious Hämmerlein mentions a peasant of the neighborhood of Zurich who was in possession of an adjuration by which he could compel vipers, adders, lizards, toads, and worms to decamp, without beat of drum, from any place where their presence was inconvenient. St. Grat even conferred on a cisternful of water the power of expelling all manner of evil beasts. This potent fluid was naturally in great demand, and solemn deputations were sent across the Alps, by public authority, to obtain doses of it.

The priesthood of the Middle Ages were never slow in detecting opportunities of turning an honest penny, and there was evidently no reason why the miraculous power we speak of should not be matter of as good merchandise as the sale of indulgences. Accordingly, at about the time when Tetzel opened his booth in Germany, the clergy desisted from the gratuitous,

ex-officio exercise of their vermifuge functions, and thenceforth not so much as the simple curse of a mosquito could be had from them except upon sufficient consideration. In all the later records, the *sportulæ*, the official fees, figure at every step of the proceedings, and it is uniformly provided that the final sentence shall take effect only upon full payment of all arrears of tithes due from the complainant. Indeed, the judicious Chassanée, the highest authority on this subject, expressly declares that herein lay the operative virtue of the process: *Præcipuum remedium abigendi locustas est decimas solvere.*

It must be admitted, to the credit of the priests and the people, that they often showed a certain generosity to offenders in this kind; for, though St. Eldrad enticed the serpents about an abbey near Briançon into a cave, shut them up, and left them miserably to perish, yet the prosecutor and the judges were frequently content with the simple banishment of the culprits. In such case, they were sometimes allowed to choose their place of retirement, at others confined to a specific district marked by metes and bounds. Thus, according to Hämmerlein, in a case which occurred at Chur, the cockchafers were banished to "a wild and forest region, there to dwell and not to trespass on the neighboring grounds." A like sentence was given in a similar case in the diocese of Constance. In another, in the district of Chur, after a series of pleadings, it was decreed interlocutorily that the beetles complained of should withdraw upon being furnished by the prosecutors with a suitable place of retreat, and thereupon a written contract was entered into between the beetles, represented by their attorney, and the complainants, which was regularly renewed from year to year afterwards. The ground having been duly marked out, the beetles retired to it and faithfully remained within the appointed limits. This was evidently a great improvement upon the ordinary course, where the point was settled once for all, because the annual renewal of the contract implied, of course, the payment of fees *toties quoties;* but, perhaps on account of the pecuniary scruples of the parishioners, this excellent precedent does not appear to have been generally followed. In the sixteenth century, a portion of the Spanish coast being infested by rats, they were summoned before the bishop, who, climbing a lofty promontory, commanded them to dislodge. They plunged into the sea and swam over to a desert island, where they were ordered to remain. In 1690 the caterpillars at Pont du Château, in Auvergne, were banished to a little pasture and informed that they might live there in full liberty. In the case at St. Julian, the peasants offered to allow the *amblevins* the exclusive use and enjoyment of a hundred and forty or fifty acres of upland forest above the vineyards, covered with wild cherries, oaks, planes, willows, and other trees and shrubs, together with good grass, reserving to themselves, however, the right of way through the wood, of mining, and also of using the premises as a place of retreat in war time. Although we are informed that the insects generally obeyed the sentence, yet instances of contumacious refusal to comply with its conditions were not rare. In such cases, the Church proceeded to extremities against the offenders, intoned incantations against them, sprinkled them with holy water, fumigated them vigorously, cursed them right and left, rung the bells convulsively, and, above all, circulated the contribution-box briskly; in short, treated them as if they were little better than a troop of red-shirted Garibaldians making a raid on the Patrimony.

Through the whole of the sixteenth century prosecutions of destructive insects were extremely common, and they were still frequent in the seventeenth. The last example of the sort cited by Ménabréa occurred at Thonon, in 1731. This must have been a very grave case. The demons were evidently too strong for the local ecclesiastics, for several parishes united in the complaint and addressed themselves directly to Rome for relief. Our author thinks the practice was discontinued about this time; but I learn from an article in the "Rivista Forestale" for April, 1866, that as late as 1803, in the popedom of Pius VII., a pontifical brief was issued at the instance of the proprietors of the district of Marate, in the Brianza, confirming the belief of "the ancient Church" in the infernal mission of noxious insects, and pronouncing the papal anathema on the locusts which were wasting the fields of that fertile province.

I do not know that the present Pope, Pius IX., has ever indulged his fine taste for malediction in this particular way, but if he has not, it is because the faithful have been too faithless to give him an opportunity. It is evidently his aim to make his official acts an anthology of all the follies, all the political iniquities, of his predecessors—a sort of summary of papal misgovernment and abuse. The Pontiff who sanctioned the kidnapping of the boy Mortara and the girl Coen, and who issued the Encyclic of 1864, would certainly have no scruples about exercising his undoubted power to save the devout, who had duly paid tithes and Peter's pence, from the persecutions of the entomological Satans which lay waste the vineyards. For the comfort of residents and travellers in some countries which acknowledge his supremacy, it is much to be wished that he would extend his jurisdiction to certain insects of a more domestic character. I am clearly of opinion that a good, sharp papal anathema, supported by handsome donations—and in the case of thin-skinned and heretical foreigners, who suffer most from these latter annoyances, by a little Persian Powder, sold in Italy under the name of "Polvere Insetticida"—would prove as efficacious as the most energetic malediction of the Middle Ages.

VIATOR.

ROME, April 24, 1866.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday,
June 14, 1866.

GOLD has risen again. Yesterday it sold at 146¼; to-day it has been as high as 147¾; at 3 P.M. it stands at 147¼. Exchange is in active demand, at the highest rates of last week. The steamers of yesterday, instead of taking out $2,500,000, as was expected, took out $3,750,000. The increased demand for gold and its consequent advance are due to a general impression that the trouble in London is not yet over, and that further disasters are likely to accompany the liquidation. Not a little uneasiness prevails here on the subject of the gold export. We have in this city, available for export, about $5,000,000 in the banks. When this sum is exhausted, which will be in a week if the export enquiry continues, there will be no more gold to ship, unless the Sub-Treasury—which holds, net, about $35,000,000—should undertake to supply the demand. Under the circumstances, should the next foreign news prove unfavorable, a further advance in the premium would not be unlikely. The evil consequences of the wasteful sale of fifteen millions of Government gold at 130⅛ are not yet fully developed.

Money is abundant at 6 per cent. on call, and mercantile short date paper of the highest grade passes at about the same rate. The National Bank controversy at Washington presents no new features. On the one hand, the partisans of inflation are pressing on Congress their scheme for the issue of $100,000,000 more bank currency; on the other, the conservatives in finance are urging that body to commence measures of contraction on 1st of January next. Mr. Sherman's 5 per cent. loan bill is lost sight of, for the present; it is not generally supposed that it will pass.

The stock market has been generally inactive for the past day or two. Erie has declined to 59½ (to-day it sold at 59), partly on the report of a decline in the May earnings of $325,000, making a total decrease of about three-quarters of a million since New Year, and partly on the arrival of large lots of stock from the other side. The bulls have abandoned the attempt to make Mr. Drew responsible for the decline in the earnings of the road. The New York Central clique have again pushed up the price of the stock to 99. Whether they are making anything by these turns is not known. Reading has been up to 110 on the oft-repeated rumor of a June dividend. Michigan Southern remains pretty steady at the old price; "puts" at 79 and "calls" at 81 are in the market. Pittsburgh has fallen off in consequence of efforts by the clique to unload. It seems to be understood that there will be no summer dividend, and, under the circumstances, 80 would seem a very high figure for the stock. The North-westerns have fallen back after their brief advance, and are pressed for sale at prices 2 per cent. below those recently ruling. Rock Island is lower on sales of the stock created by the recent dividend. The reopening of the Mississippi is depriving this and other parallel lines of much business which they enjoyed during the war. Western Union Telegraph, the new fancy, after selling last week at 62, has been down to 56. The consolidated concern is said to be represented by $42,000,000 of capital; earnings last year $1,500,000. Governments are in better demand, and many look for an advance in 5-20s to correspond with the rise in gold.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 7.	June 11.	June 14.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	105¾	105¾	106	¼	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102⅜	102¼	102¼	....	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102¼	102¼	102¼	....	....
10-40 Bonds	96	96⅛	96¼	⅛	....
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅜	102⅜	102⅜	....	....
New York Central	98	97¼	98¼	1	....
Erie Railway	62⅛	62⅛	59½	....	2⅝
Hudson River	110	109⅝	110	⅜	....
Reading Railroad	109	109¼	109¼	....	....
Michigan Southern	79	79⅛	79	....	⅛
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	83⅛	83⅛	82¼	....	1¼
Chicago and North-western	30¾	30¾	30⅜	....	⅜
Chicago & North-Western, Preferred	61	60½	59¾	....	¾
Chicago and Rock Island	92¾	92⅝	91⅝	....	1
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	97¼	96	97¼	1¼	....
Canton	60	59¼	58⅞	....	⅜
Cumberland	46	44½	45	½	....
Mariposa	12	11⅛	11⅛	....	....
American Gold	142⅝	139⅛	147½	8	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅞	109⅞	109⅞	....	....
Call Loans	6	6	6	....	....

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The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310	
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024	
Total profit for eleven years		$1,896,330
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.		1,107,244

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

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WILLIAM LECONEY, Vice-President.

THOMAS HALE, Secretary.

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THE NATION

For the guidance of those who may feel disposed to assist us with their contributions, we may mention that the contents of THE NATION will fall nearly under four divisions—or that, at all events, these divisions would have to be kept in mind by anybody writing for it as a volunteer.

1. References to, and concise comments on, the news of the day, with the view of fixing the degree of its importance, and suggesting its bearings upon and relation to the main current of contemporary history.

2. Reviews or comments, whether in the shape of letters or articles upon important events, and upon the utterances of those who are, or are trying to be, leaders of public opinion.

3. Accounts more or less detailed, or discussions of such occurrences in the social, literary, artistic, or scientific world as are likely to interest men or women of education and intelligence. Under this head we do not include mere gossip about nobodies, or advertising chronicles of the sayings and doings of quacks, daubs, penny-a-liners, dilettanti.

4. Critiques of publications or works of art of sufficient merit to make it desirable that the public should ever hear anything about them.

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It is STRICTLY MUTUAL, the policy holders receiving the entire profits.

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It offers to the assured the most abundant security in a large accumulated fund, amounting now to over

FIVE MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.

It accommodates its members in the settlement of their premiums, by granting, when desired, a credit at once on account of future dividends, thus furnishing insurance for nearly double the amount for about the same cash payment as is required in an "all cash company."

The annual income, exclusive of interest on investments, now exceeds

Two and a Half Million Dollars.

The following is a summary of the Company's business for the year 1865:

Number of Policies issued,	5,138
Insuring the sum of	$16,324,888
Received for Premiums and Interest,	$2,342,820 40
Losses, Expenses, and Dividends paid,	1,118,901 25
Balance in favor of Policy-Holders,	$1,223,919 15
Total Assets, January 1, 1865,	$4,881,919 70

THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

Originated and introduced the *New Feature*, known as

THE NON-FORFEITURE PLAN,

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END OF TEN YEARS ALL PAYMENTS CEASE ENTIRELY,

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By the table on which this class of policies is based, a person incurs no risk in taking out a policy. Insuring today for $5,000, if he dies to-morrow the $5,000 immediately becomes a claim; and if he lives ten years, and makes ten annual payments, his policy is paid up—nothing more to pay, and still his dividends *continue*, making

HIS LIFE POLICY

A SOURCE OF INCOME TO HIM WHILE LIVING.

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☞ The dividends paid (return premiums) exceed **$1,700,000.**

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MORRIS FRANKLIN, President.
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WILLIAM H. BEERS, Actuary.

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PATENT FIRE AND BURGLAR SAFE:

Superior to any others in the following particulars:
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GRAND, SQUARE, AND UPRIGHT PIANO-FORTES

Have taken Thirty-two First Premiums, Gold and Silver Medals, at the Principal Fairs held in this country within the last ten years, and in addition thereto they were awarded a First Prize Medal at the Great International Exhibition in London, 1862, in competition with 269 Pianos from all parts of the World.

That the great superiority of these instruments is now universally conceded is abundantly proven by the FACT that Messrs. Steinways' "scales, improvements, and peculiarities of construction" have been copied by the great majority of the manufacturers of both hemispheres (AS CLOSELY AS COULD BE DONE WITHOUT INFRINGEMENT OF PATENT RIGHTS) and that their instruments are used by the most eminent pianists of Europe and America, who prefer them for their own public and private use, whenever accessible.

STEINWAY & SONS direct special attention to their

PATENT AGRAFFE ARRANGEMENT,

which, having been practically tested in all their grand and highest-priced Square Pianos, and admitted to be one of the greatest improvements of modern times, will hereafter be introduced in EVERY PIANO MANUFACTURED BY THEM WITHOUT INCREASE OF COST to the purchaser, in order that ALL their patrons may reap its benefits.

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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, JUNE 18, 1866. NO. 58

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*** A limited number of copies of all back numbers of* THE NATION, *except No. 1, may be had on application at this office.*

Topics of the Day.

MR. THADDEUS STEVENS has come out with a magnificent programme for the settlement of the Mexican question. He is almost satisfied with our failure to drive the French out of Mexico during our late war; but was almost led, he intimates, to desire a bolder policy by the fact that Rome "declared war against a powerful nation when Hannibal was thundering at her gates." Mr. Lincoln and Mr. Seward must have overlooked this important circumstance. But Mr. Stevens is now for active and immediate operations. He cannot wait for the slow action of diplomacy, and, having compared the Mexican empire to Tripoli, Tunis, and Algiers, and Juarez to William of Orange, he proposes to lend Mexico $20,000 on a mortgage of Lower California, Sonora, Sinaloa, and Chihuahua, "which," says Mr. Stevens, "would make it perfectly safe." We should think it would; but why not make the loan a hundred millions at once?

AN aged politician is just gone. General Lewis Cass died at Detroit on Sunday morning in the eighty-fourth year of his age. Before he was twenty-five he was a member of the State Legislature of Ohio, and till he was seventy-eight years old he remained in public life, filling a great variety of offices, being, at one time and another, colonel, brigadier-general, governor, senator, commissioner of Indian affairs, secretary of war, secretary of state, ambassador to France, and only narrowly missing an election to the presidency, and filling them all with some credit, though no one thinks of giving him the name of statesman. He was a prominent figure upon the political stage in that long period which set in not many years after the Revolution and lasted till the rebellion, during which American politics were meanest and most corrupt, and he leaves behind him no very great or very enviable fame. His name will be handed down, but handed down to vague and careless remembrance, and the men of thirty years from now will think of General Cass as we to-day think of W. H. Crawford.

MR. HARRIS, of Maryland, on whom the *World*, we notice, does not bestow its gracious title of Disunionist, informed the House on Wednesday that, of course, the Southern States had a perfect right to secede; he himself did not join them only because the sovereign State of Maryland did not command it; furthermore, in point of fact, the secession was complete, and at present, with respect to the United States, the Southern States are so many foreign countries. The United States had been able to conquer them, and had given over "the noble citizens of the South to slavery and degradation;" but that had no power to change his convictions; he had always been, and still was, "an old line Democrat." The speech was a very curious combination of the view of facts which Mr. Stevens takes and the theories elaborated by a Southern State rights politician. Mr. Le Blond at once rose to his feet and, speaking for the Democratic party, denied that it held Mr. Harris's opinions. For the thousand and first time he could not see and did not believe that a thing which cannot be done by right may be done in fact. Perhaps he liked better another part of Mr. Harris's speech where the logic was looser. "Mary Surratt," as the orator impressively called her, was tried, condemned, sentenced, and then very speedily executed. "On with the gallows, the coffin, and the grave, the War Department thundered." Preston King not many months afterward committed suicide. Why? "It was the judgment of heaven upon him for refusing certain 'agents of mercy' admission to the White House on the day of the execution." But for him President Johnson might have pardoned Mrs. Surratt. And then Mr. Harris goes on to say that "Pontius Pilate delivered the body of Jesus to Joseph of Arimathea, but a worse than Pontius Pilate is here," and Mary Surratt's body is withheld from her friends! This horrible comparison we will not do Mr. Le Blond the injustice to suppose he was not more disgusted with than with Mr. Harris's deductions from the Resolutions of 1798.

THE New York *World* expresses its admiration of everything appertaining to Mr. Johnson, his policy, message, vetoes, speeches, logic, and invective, everything, in fact, which he has said, done, or produced, or failed to do, except his keeping Mr. Lincoln's cabinet in office, his delay in appointing the New York collector and in bringing Davis to trial. He will feel chagrined, when he finds how near he has come to being a perfect Chief Magistrate, to think that he should have omitted such trifling formalities.

THE *Army and Navy Journal* enjoys an honorable reputation as the first paper which applied common sense and trained judgment to the discussion of our military affairs, and it did us infinite service both at home and abroad during the war by substituting real criticism for the "gas" of the newspaper correspondents. We were, therefore, considerably surprised to find in it last week an article on the military aspects of Fenianism, in which the writer seems to have got so bemuddled by the question of "belligerent rights" that he gravely claims for the Fenians the credit of having raised "an army of 50,000 men." Nobody knows better than the *Army and Navy Journal* that there is no evidence that the Fenians ever got 10,000 men together, or even 5,000, at any one point—or that they ever had 1,000 in a state of organization; and that the collection of bands of volunteers from various quarters, paying their own travelling expenses, and without commissariat, or ordnance, or a foot of ground to brigade upon, is neither an army nor the simulacrum of an army. Articles of this kind coming from such a source are most mischievous, as they help the "centres" and "presidents" to bleed the servant girls more freely than ever.

THE proceedings against "President" Roberts, before Commissioner

Betts, have been abandoned, owing to the resolute refusal of some of the witnesses to testify, and the intimidation of others by the crowd in the court-room. Some of the commissioner's rulings were singular. No matter what the nature of the question, the witness was allowed to decline answering on the ground that he would criminate himself if he did so. Some of the questions which were fenced off in this way were about as capable of extracting an inculpatory answer as an enquiry about the weather or the crops. The prosecution, it was intimated, will be resumed before the grand jury, but nothing will come of the trial of the indictment, and, perhaps, it would be as well to let the whole matter drop, if drop it would. We trust the Canadians will not galvanize the movement by undue severity towards the prisoners in their hands.

The number of cases of cholera in this city is slowly but surely increasing, and if the hot weather had once fairly set in, it would seem safe to expect a violent outbreak of the disease. The accounts of the condition of certain tenement-houses in the Fourth Ward are, in spite of all the cleaning that has been done, still horrible in the extreme.

Governor Curtin, of Pennsylvania, proposes to have the Legislature of his own State, and, we believe, all others at the North, come together and at once ratify the constitutional amendments. We trust his suggestion will be carried out, so that by the Fourth of July the work of reconstruction may be complete.

Maria Syphax, a colored woman whose parents were servants of Mrs. Washington, has just been restored by the House to the possession of seventeen acres on the southern border of the Arlington estate, given her on her manumission in 1826 by G. W. P. Custis, respected by Gen. Lee, and interfered with by the general sale of the estate in 1863 for non-payment of taxes, under the act of June 7, 1862.

Mr. Judah P. Benjamin has been admitted to the English bar, the Benchers giving as a reason that they could not do less, seeing the readiness with which Mr. Edwin James was admitted to the bar in New York—a civility which they felt bound to reciprocate. It might be possible to arrange a general system of exchange, by which the obnoxious characters of each bar might be transferred to the other on equitable terms, and balances struck at the end of every year. Mr. Benjamin, we are afraid, however, is more indebted to his career as a Confederate for the refuge in which he now nestles, than to the auspicious appearance of Mr. James on our horizon.

The European Peace Congress has, as most people anticipated it would, proved a failure. We believe there is no case on record in which, when preparations for war had advanced so far as in this case, actual hostilities were averted by a general palaver. The great motive which, after all, is driving these great hosts to the field, is not Prussian greed, nor the general love of military monarchs for fighting, but the diseased condition of European states. The unnatural political division of the European soil is a permanent disease, which breaks out in war every twenty years, and will continue to do so until all government is based on the popular will. All wars, including our own, are caused by an attempt on somebody's part to impose on somebody else an artificial arrangement. As regards the effect of the coming struggle on ourselves, we have probably already felt it fully, if it be not a bull to say so. The long anticipation of the shock has, probably, done all that the shock itself could do. Gold is still running high, and Mr. McCulloch, having fired away all his ammunition at the speculators, and let them know it, is now at their mercy. The plan of keeping down prices by sales of gold will some day excite a good deal of amusement. Why does not the Government keep down the price of flour, which is now so exorbitant, by keeping a stock on hand and selling out on proper occasions? Nearly every argument that would justify its gold operations would justify this. There is only one way of keeping gold down permanently and paralyzing the speculators, and that is the reduction in the volume of paper, and this is the only purpose to which the Government can legitimately apply its surplus specie.

CONGRESS.

Washington, June 16, 1866.

As the fall elections approach, and dog-days draw nigh, there is an evident impatience growing among Congressmen to be gone. A disposition now prevails to limit the remaining legislation of the session to measures of cardinal importance, and a large number of bills which have been passed by the House or Senate will fail for want of time and patience to consider them in the other House. No new project stands much chance of becoming a law, and any patriotic gentlemen who may cherish the idea of persuading Congress that their pet measures are of great national importance, would do wisely to husband their time, influence, and expenses until the next session.

An analysis of the entire strength of the House majority on the constitutional amendment exhibits the following result:

Total number of members			184
Voting for the amendment	120		
Absent who would vote for it	23		
		143	
Voting against the amendment	32		
Absent who would vote against it	9		
		41	
			184
Union majority		102	

Supposing the 58 representatives to which the eleven States late in rebellion are entitled, under the existing apportionment, to be admitted, and to vote unanimously with the Democratic party, the opposition strength would then be 99 in a House of 242 members. The Democracy would then have to gain 23 members in all the States now represented to throw the Republicans into a minority in the lower branch of Congress.

DIARY.

Wednesday, June 13.—In the Senate, the House bill making appropriations for the legislative, executive, and judicial expenses of the Government for year ending June 30, 1867, was amended and passed. Mr. Sherman's bill to fund the debt of the United States was discussed.

In the House, the Senate joint resolution proposing certain amendments to the Constitution was discussed by Messrs. Finck, Rogers, and Harding, of Ky., against it, and Messrs. Spalding, Henderson, and Stevens in its favor. The joint resolution was then passed—yeas, 120; nays, 32.

June 14.—In the Senate, a bill for the better organization of the pay department of the navy was passed. The bill to fix the number and appointment of officers in the navy was amended so as to create the rank of admiral, with the annual pay of $10,000, and passed.

In the House, the credentials of Lewis Hanes, elected a representative from North Carolina, were referred to the Joint Committee on Reconstruction. The report of a Committee of Conference upon the bill to dispose of the public lands in late rebel States to actual settlers, white or colored, was agreed to. It limits the parcels to eighty acres for two years, and to one hundred and sixty acres thereafter, and requires parties entering lands until January, 1867, to make oath that they have not borne arms against the United States. Messrs. Windom and Harris made speeches upon reconstruction.

June 15.—In the Senate, the conference report on the Southern homestead bill was adopted. The House joint resolution appropriating about $160,000 to enable the people of the United States to participate in the Universal Exhibition at Paris, in 1867, was passed—yeas, 21; nays, 13. Adjourned to June 18.

In the House, a bill to establish a hydrographic office in the Navy Department, and to furnish nautical charts and books to navigators at cost, was passed. Senate bill to reimburse certain war expenses to the State of West Virginia was passed. Mr. Orth made a speech on reconstruction.

June 16.—The Senate did not sit. In the House Messrs. Julian, Niblack, and Kerr made speeches on the state of the Union. Mr. Stevens made a speech against the Franco-Austrian possession of Mexico, and Mr. Davis made a speech on the tariff. Adjourned to June 18.

THE FREEDMEN.

The Louisville *Journal* wisely concludes that "the freed people must be educated, taught self-control and all the enlightened ethics of the new era;" that "the younger negroes must be taught the elements of scholastic education;" and that "this work ought to be done by Southern men and women." It approves the action of the Episcopal clergy of South Carolina in organizing a system of education for the blacks of their respective parishes; and of the Southern Baptists, in convention at Russellville, Ky., who adopted (May 27) a report that "the former masters of the slaves should undertake their education for their new condition with energy and resolution."

—A correspondent of the *Tribune*, writing from Norfolk, gives the receipts for the quarter ending April 1 of the Freedmen's Savings and Trust Company. These amounted to $172,391 30. Of the sixteen branches the largest deposit was made at Beaufort, S. C., $46,118 78. Louisville deposited $33,033 78; Savannah and Vicksburg more than $12,000 each; Mobile nearly as much. North Carolina is poorest on the list. The largest single deposit mentioned was $700.

Notes.

LITERARY.

No better way can be found of straightening the popular mind on the question of reconstruction, which will be involved in the political campaigns of this fall, than by putting before every one, in compact shape, the official record of the various acts of the South and of the Government since the surrender of Lee. The issue is so simple that a mere statement of facts is enough for every unprejudiced person. It is very wise, then, for Mr. McPherson, the Clerk of the House of Representatives, to issue at this time the volume which he entitles "A Political Manual for 1866." In this he has included all President Johnson's orders and proclamations, his principal speeches, and his veto messages, with the bills vetoed, and the votes in Congress thereon; the action of the conventions and legislatures of the insurrectionary States; the recent legislation of those States with regard to freedmen, and the orders of commanding officers relative thereto; the various propositions reported by the Joint Committee on Reconstruction; besides all the usual political matter, records of votes, platforms, etc. The book will be published very shortly in cheap form in 130 pages, octavo, double columns. Mr. McPherson is already very favorably known as a compiler by his excellent and valuable "Political History of the Rebellion," published about a year ago.

—The fifth and sixth volumes of the German translation of Byron, by Otto Gildemeister, have just appeared, containing "Don Juan." The translator has succeeded in catching the spirit of the poem, and has kept it in his most literal rendering. The same stanza and metre are retained, and also the same odd rhymes. He not only, like Heine, rhymes *Theetisch* with *ästhetisch*, *Wasser* with *Oel Makassar*, *dreizehn* with *reizen*, but also *Europa* with *faux pas*, and *Suwarroff* with *Pfarrhof*.

—Viscount Combermere lived in two ages. He was in active service in the field ten years before the end of the last century, and only a short time ago, a field-marshal of England, he was living in and enjoying a society almost the direct opposite in character to that in which he was born and educated. He was at school at Westminster with Wynn, afterwards Speaker; with Litchfield, who became Duke of Bedford; with Henry Petty, who lately died Marquis of Lansdowne; and with Southey. In Westminster scholarship was no object; the boys were amusing themselves with drinking "hot-pot" in a cobbler's stall, with driving stages at full speed down the post-road, and with inventing conundrums that they gave to the clowns at Astley's, who repeated them with great success. After school he went to Flanders as a second-lieutenant, and in six years was a lieutenant-colonel. In India, at the Cape, in the Peninsular war, he served side by side with Arthur Wellesley, and at last won the barony of Combermere. Later commander-in-chief in the West Indies, and still later commander-in-chief of India, he gained new honors and a new title. A year ago he died, leaving an only son to bear his name, and to his third wife the duty of telling how he won it. His memoirs, by Lady Combermere and Captain Knolly, abound in interesting sketches of the many persons of importance with whom he was brought in connection. We catch new glimpses of Mary Chatham, of Georgina Townshend, and of Lady Hester Stanhope. Miss Townshend's letters contain some very entertaining accounts of George III. and the Queen, as well as of Nelson and Lady Hamilton; and Lady Hester's early show, the "young Arab."

—Iceland long ago became the reservoir into which flowed the legends of several Scandinavian races, or of one race altered by different climates and admixture of foreign blood. Norwegians of pure blood, and Danes from England, Scotland, Greenland, and the Orkneys, aided in settling it. The immense quantity of folk-lore which has been here preserved bears no proportion to the number of its inhabitants either in times past or present. The peculiar physical features of the island—the white ice rivers and the streams of red lava, the boiling springs and the volcanoes, the sky filled with ashes and the clear lakes, the long nights, the midnight sun, and the northern lights, the great contrasts of nature in a small space—are enough to account for this mass of legend. The manners and lives of the people have also contributed their share to the stories which fill the innumerable manuscripts of Copenhagen and Stockholm. Feasts prolonged late into the night gave audiences and poets; and as the family were "sitting in the dusk," the women, who have always been the chief saga-tellers, would relate the stories of the trolls. The author of the "Islendéngabók—Libellus Islandorum," Ari the Learned, owed much of his book to Thoridr, the daughter of the priest Snorri. The language of Iceland is still almost what the tongue of the Northmen was when it was understood in England, Norway, and the Northern Isles. This has especially contributed to the preservation of so many legends. A large number of these national tales were collected by Jón. Arnason, from which Messrs. G. E. T. Powell and Eiríkr Magnússon have just translated a second series of selections, with an introductory essay which treats of the whole subject of Icelandic legends, and is not only valuable to the student of folk-lore, but interesting to the general reader. The mythic series of Iceland does not consist, as in most other countries, of tales of gods, but of trolls and elves, and of variations on the ordinary fairy stories. Christianity was introduced into the country so early and took such a strong hold there that the stories of the old gods passed out of memory. Besides, they were all collected into the Eddas and Sagas, and there was no room for the exercise of the popular imagination. What was written on parchment was retained no longer by oral tradition. The tales are divided into ten classes, but they chiefly concern elves, ogres, and water-monsters, always giants, for dwarfs hardly had any existence in Iceland, and goblins and ghosts. The stories in general have a good moral tone, and, indeed, there is too much sameness in the way in which vice always gets punished and virtue rewarded at the end of the tale.

—Some of the latest publications relating to Oriental subjects are the fifth volume of "Le Maha-Bharata, Poëme epique de Krishna-Dwaipayana, plus communément appelé Véda-Vyasa, c'est à dire, le Compilateur et l'Ordonnateur des Védas, traduit complétement pour la première fois du Sanscrit en Français par Hippolyte Fauche, traducteur du *Ramayana*;" "Grammaire Javanaise, accompagnée de fac-simile et d'Exercices de Lecture, par l'Abbé P. Favre, professeur de Malais et de Javanais à l'Ecole Impériale des Langues Orientales;" "An Account of the Wild Tribes inhabiting the Malayan Peninsula, Sumatra, etc., with a Journey in Johou and a Journey in the Menang-Kabaw States of the Malayan Peninsula," by the Rev. P. Favre, apostolic missionary; "Recherches sur les Monuments qu'on peut attribuer aux six premières Dynasties de Manéthon, précédées d'un Rapport à M. le Ministre de l'Instruction Publique sur les Résultats généraux de la Mission, par M. le Vicomte E. de Rougé." This, the first fruit of the recent French scientific expedition to Egypt, is a royal quarto volume of 165 pages, with five plates in folio. To these should be added the revised and corrected third edition of the "Syriac Grammar," by Dr. George Phillips, of Queen's College, Cambridge, and "A Sanskrit Grammar for Beginners, in Devanagari and Roman letters throughout," by Max Müller.

—At the anniversary meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, held on the 28th of May, the founder's gold medal was given to Dr. T. Thomson, for his labors in the Western Himalayas and Thibet, and the patron's, or Victoria gold medal, to Mr. W. Chandless for his exploration of the Purus River. A testimonial of one hundred guineas was presented to Mr. P. B. du Chaillu, and a watch valued at twenty-five guineas to Moola Abdul-Medjid, for his journey over the Pamir steppe in Central Asia. The income of the society for the last year was £4,905 8s. 3d., the expenditure £4,307 4s. 5d. There was spent in expeditions £800 8s. 3d.

—The Russian Government is doing its part towards the progress of geographical knowledge. Not long ago an expedition explored the Kalmuk steppes, and especially the valley of the Manitch. The report is now being published. The plain of the Manitch has been found to be a salt desert which can never be made inhabitable. The Kalmuk steppe is divided into two zones; the highest is adapted for agriculture, while the other resembles the Manitch valley. A scientific expedition has also been organized by the Russian Government to proceed to the river Tchui in order to continue the scientific researches begun in 1864. It is numerous and well provided with instruments, and is divided into two sections—mathematical and physical. The former is under the direction of M. Charles Struve, director of the Pulkova Observatory, and will make astronomical and topographical observations. The latter will collect statistics of the industrial resources of Turkestan.

—Among recent English publications there are especially noticeable "Thoughts on Great Painters," by J. P. Davis; Mr. Henry O'Neil's "Lectures on Painting delivered at the Royal Academy;" "The Toilet and Cosmetic Arts in Ancient and Modern Times," by J. Arnold Cooley; "The Harmonies of Nature," by Dr. G. Hartwig, a work designed to establish the unity of creation; "The Journal of a London Playgoer from 1851–1866," by Prof. Henry Morley, consisting of reprints of dramatic criticisms published in the *Examiner*; "Twelve Months with Frederika Bremer in Sweden," by Margaret Howitt; "The Albert-Nyanza," by Samuel White Baker an account of Nile explorations; a volume of verse by Viscount Stratford de Redcliffe, called "Shadows of the Past;" "The Faire Gospeller," by the authoress of "Mary Powell;" and a translation by Lady Georgiana Fullerton of Silvia Pellico's "Life of the Marchesa Giulia Falletti di Barolo."

EDUCATIONAL.

NEW HAVEN has just concluded a "High School Discussion"—a local controversy involving important principles of wide application. Such controversies seem to come to all our growing towns, very much as the scarlet fever and the whooping-cough come to growing children. Escape is the exception. The discussion in the City of Elms, after various side issues were thrown out, seems to have turned on this radical question: Is the system of public schools maintained as a charity "for the poor and needy," or is it an institution "for the good of all," irrespective of classes—*i. e.*, for the benefit of the town, the State, the community? If the former view had prevailed, the high school would have been abolished; if the latter prevailed, the school was to be maintained. The popular verdict was given in the most emphatic manner in favor of "schools for all," and the high school was, therefore, sustained as an essential part of a vigorous and efficient system of public instruction.

—College catalogues are commonly dry enough to all but those whose names are enrolled upon them. Not so with the first annual catalogue just issued of "Vassar Female College, Poughkeepsie, on the Hudson." Like Minerva of old, this institution seems to have sprung full panoplied into being. There are thirty-one teachers and three hundred and fifty-three scholars. About half of the pupils belong in this State, and the remainder come in nearly equal numbers from New England, the Middle States, and the West. Nearly half a million of dollars, the gift of one person, has been expended on the grounds, buildings, apparatus, etc., of this institution. The regular course of instruction occupies four years. The "Bachelor's Degree" in Arts is to be conferred on those young ladies who comply with the requisite conditions. The price of board and tuition is $350 per year of forty weeks. Young men in "monastic" colleges will look with envious eyes on many of the arrangements in this "sister institution."

—The University of Virginia, which before the war was one of the best institutions in the South, has just issued a retrospective catalogue for the last five years. From this we learn that during the years from 1861 to 1865 the average number of students in all departments was fifty-four. The actual number now in attendance is two hundred and fifty-eight, who come from twenty different States. All the Southern States are represented, and there are seven students from the Northern States, including "Benjamin Wood, jr.," from New York city. Most of the former professors, Messrs. Gildersleeve, Schele de Vere, F. H. Smith, etc., remained at their posts during the war, and are now likely to accomplish more than ever for the promotion of sound learning. The former organization of the university appears to be maintained, at least in the essential features.

—"Ik Marvel," the Edgewood farmer, in a recent number of "Hours at Home," writing with respect to agricultural interests under the title *De Rebus Ruris*, has thrown down a gauntlet in the face of the managers of our so-called "agricultural colleges." Our readers are aware that a large amount of land was appropriated by Congress a few years ago for the promotion of instruction in the practical applications of science. As the effort to secure this grant was encouraged by the farmers' societies and clubs, the bill was popularly but wrongly called the "Agricultural College bill," for in fact it provided for all sorts of scientific culture quite as much as for those which relate to farming. Under this grant, scientific schools are growing up all over the country—although few, if any, of them have money enough either to establish shops for the training of mechanics, or to purchase farms for experimental culture. Mr. Mitchell, apparently yielding to the popular notion, enquires whether "the Congressional grant for agricultural colleges" is benefiting "the minds of those who hold the great mass of the land under control." He then adds:

"Looking at results thus far, I am strongly of the opinion that a few thousands devoted to the gratuitous distribution of one or two sterling agricultural newspapers would have worked more good to the farming interests than the millions which have been committed to the wisdom of the several State legislatures. Of course, I have no idea that these views will meet the concurrence of those who are fattening upon the spoils; and I reserve full discussion of the matter for some future paper, in which I shall name some of the reasons which seem to favor the establishment of experimental farms; where good methods of culture may be laid open for inspection, and some of the reasons why the scientific gentlemen who mostly control the funds are indisposed to assume their supervision and direction. Meantime, I am strongly of the assurance that the common sense of the country is largely disposed to ask of the scientific gentlemen who have been so generally the recipients of this congressional bounty some practical demonstration *upon the land* of the faith they hold and teach. There is a large respect for science in America, but there is also an infinite contempt for shirks."

In opposition to Mr. Mitchell, some of the most successful teachers of agriculture in this country have held that a farm was *not* a desirable addition to an agricultural school. Principles and methods are to be taught by books, experiment, and observation; but practice must be sought out of schools. Business management is as important in agriculture as scientific culture; but it cannot be so readily taught in an institution. A good farmer will come to books for principles; he will then apply them in the particular circumstances in which he is placed. But Mr. Mitchell is so skilful both with hoe and pen that the leaders of the agricultural colleges will find a foeman worthy of their steel.

—We have received from Montgomery, Alabama, the report of the State Superintendent of Education, presented to the governor, April 1, 1866. It is both a painful and a hopeful paper. It is like reading the "Lamentations of Jeremiah" to review with the author the record of the last four years, and trace the ruin of colleges and academies, the abandonment of schools, and the immolation of youth of tender age ("the grinding up of our seed-corn," as the executive of the State expresses it), and all this in defence of the direful system of negro slavery. It is painful to find a mixture of exultation with these sighs. Boys who ought to have been at school, says the report, "have borne their part in the great battles that have made our name and history *for ever glorious*." Battle-fields have been "consecrated by their valor and patriotism from Gettysburg to Mansfield." The college alumni "perilled their lives on the high places of the field," and "teachers exchanged the ferule for the sword, and the school-room for the camp." The desolations of war always make sad pictures, but the shameful causes of the war make these shadows still more gloomy.

On the other hand, we see light ahead. The superintendent recognizes that hereafter "our progress is to be upon new modes and new ideas." "Education is now esteemed true wealth; an inheritance beyond reverses, and that cannot be taken away." "Old habits, hereditary wealth, proscriptive position—all are more or less broken up, . . and the educated element will have peculiar advantage in the reconstruction following." No New England schoolmaster could plead more earnestly than the Alabama superintendent for an "educational revival." Even "political preaching" is invoked in behalf of "the cause." For example: "We make no apology for putting under the patronage of the Southern pulpit such a paramount interest. We are behind none in admiration of the singleness and purity which it has maintained, holding to its high theme and discarding the fanatical and political issues and intermeddlings that have elsewhere been a weakness and reproach. But (in short) the pulpit must sustain the schools. It is darkest before dawn. Alabama will soon see the sun rise."

A FRENCH VIEW OF OUR WAR.*

M. LAUGEL has long been known as one of the ablest contributors to the "Revue des Deux Mondes," and, fortunately for us as well as for his European readers, he was led to visit this country while the war was at its height and devote eight months to an examination of our society and government. Many foreigners of considerable ability have studied us for a still longer period to very little purpose. M. Laugel was, however, prepared for the task by thorough familiarity with our language and literature, and, what is of perhaps still greater importance, his connection with the country by marriage had for years not only quickened his interest in our history and progress, but made more plain to him many things in our manners and institutions which most Europeans—even the best read and most intelligent—can only see as through a glass darkly.

The difference of language and of social and religious ideas, and, above all, the difference of temperament and traditions would, at first sight, seem to render it difficult for a Frenchman to get at the secret of American life. For an average Frenchman to get a fair glimpse at man's relation to his fellows and to his God, of duty, interest, labor, rest, from the point of view, for instance, of the average American of strong religious feeling, is a feat of great difficulty. None but Frenchmen of rare powers and great culture could ever accomplish it, if it were not for the fact that nearly all French students of our society possess one qualification for the task which few Englishmen and few men of any other country can boast, and that is a thorough understanding of the exact nature and bearings of equality. This lesson, at least, the revolution of 1789 has taught every Frenchman. In fact, all Frenchmen understand it a great deal better than a great many Americans, for no Frenchman would think of asking you, by way of pushing you to the wall, if you talked of making men equal before the law, "whether you would like your daughter to marry a nigger or a hod-carrier, an argument which, in

* "The United States During the War. By Auguste Laugel." New York: Baillière Bros. 1866.

the minds of great numbers of natives, possesses to this day considerable force."

M. Laugel discusses the cause of the war; gives a clear summary of the events of the first three years of the fighting, and of the political agitation by which the fighting was accompanied, and which was part of the struggle which foreigners understood least and blundered about most frequently. This portion of the book, of course, possesses comparatively little value for Americans, though most useful and instructive to the audience to whom it was first addressed. He then gives some account of his travels in the West, and in generalizing on his observations he is engaged in that species of political writing in which Frenchmen most delight, and which, in the hands of a thoughtful and well-trained Frenchman, is a real work of art. The chapter on the "Populations of the West" is the best essay we have ever met with on what is, perhaps, the most curious and important theme in the whole range of American society. The West is the only portion of the Union where true democracy—democracy completely emancipated from the influence of feudal traditions and ideas—can be met with, and M. Laugel has sketched and analyzed it with the hand of a master. Now and then there are traces of too great a love of generalization for its own sake, and, perhaps, we might occasionally complain of too great a tendency to base conclusions of considerable importance on sentiment which is not always American. The following estimate of the influence of the German element on the American population, if not entirely new, is suggestive:

"There are in the Germanic race qualities and elements which are destined to rejuvenate the Anglo-Saxon race. The high culture of Germany has but few representatives on the other side of the Atlantic, and as yet Germany sends to America scarcely any others than the poorest and most ignorant of her children; but they carry with them the mysterious germs which in the old country have borne such marvellous fruit. In the land of their adoption, these germs will not always lie dormant; to the boldness and tenacity of the Anglo-Saxon race, they will add something new, something more simple and poetic. In a purely physical point of view much may be gained by the mixture of the two races; one is too nervous and irritable, the other too heavy and rustic; but their intellectual union will doubtless bear even more precious fruits."

M. Laugel's "Introduction" is, perhaps, that portion of his work in which his peculiar powers are best displayed, and we wish we had space to quote it entire. For acute analysis and clever sketching there is nothing like it in De Tocqueville. The following is a fine combination of both:

"An American is not fond of complaining; he is too proud and at the same time too clever; he knows that complaints are the cry of weakness; he is always contented with his house, his wife, his children, his horses, his fields, with the schoolmaster he pays, with the member of Congress for whom he has voted, the President to whom he gave his support. If he receives an insult, he says nothing to any one; he will treat his enemy as long as he can with an outside politeness, in order not to give him the pleasure of a noisy outbreak and insults. He is a sure and faithful friend, though he does not expect too much from friendship himself. He has few illusions, but he is happier than we are, for he never had any, and we suffer in losing ours. . . . . The Americans are unacquainted with those agonies of fine minds, nurtured on chaste thoughts, cradled in sweet dreams, and suddenly brought into contact with a living, cold, crowded world; they never pursue the impossible, and ask nothing but from will and intelligence. Those are the weapons that are early sharpened; they believe that intelligence leads to virtue and that will alone attain it."

Speaking of the part women in America play in softening this hard and realistic life, he says:

"Woman appears in the midst of all this like a ray and sunbeam of poetry; so hard to himself, the American always preserves for her a subtle tenderness. She is his equal, his joy, his true companion, the pride of his hearth. They sought each other, and chose freely. She did not come with downcast eyes, mute and timid, but with open hand and raised head. She is his ally and counsellor; the consoler, the inspirer. . . . *With her alone, perhaps in the world, the conjugal is stronger than the maternal love.* Her children have the future, her husband has only her."

The observation we have italicized is both striking and, we think, original. The English translation might fairly claim exemption from criticism, as we believe it is M. Laugel's own; but it is excellent. There are Gallicisms here and there, but they rather in the thought than in the expression.

MR. JOHNSON AS A MAN OF DESTINY.*

Mr. Frank Moore has given us the "life and speeches" of Andrew Johnson, Mr. Savage his "life and public services;" here is a "national man" who undertakes from a "national stand-point" to portray the "life and times" of the same heroic personage. The present biography is neither so concise as Mr. Moore's nor so full as Mr. Savage's, but its deficiencies will fortunately be less apparent now than when it was begun, some eight or ten months ago, when, in the author's opinion, "the public appetite" was "hungry for information" in regard to the President. Fortunately, too, the public has not lost its memory with its appetite, and can easily supply the omissions of the record. It can almost rehearse by heart the famous speech of a *soi-disant* Moses at Nashville, in October, 1864, which appears to have been wholly invisible from a "national stand-point." It can confidently challenge Mr. Johnson himself to repeat his much iterated fulminations against the crime of treason, and the necessity of making it odious by punishment. Not one of these does our observer reproduce, and he only vaguely suggests their existence by apologizing for them to a British reviewer as made in a period of excitement and passion, by one who never pretended to be more than human.

It is well, if possible, to reach the stand-point which shall enable us to see eye to eye with our author. We have discovered it in his assumption concerning the President, that, "from the very necessity of the case, the task devolves on him of having [*sic*] to readjust the component parts of a great empire shaken by the conflict of four years of war." We must not stop to complain that we do not perceive this necessity: that would be to kick away the stand-point at once. Granted that the said burden has fallen of right upon the said man, how shall we be persuaded that Atlas is equal to his load?

This may be effected in a variety of ways. Our author's method is to prove from the past history of Mr. Johnson that he is "the representative man" and "the man of destiny." For such a character a pedigree is desirable, though this, it has been observed, is a matter in which a man ought to be satisfied if he have an honest man for a father. A voucher for Jacob Johnson is not wanting: he was appointed porter of the bank at Raleigh by Col. Polk, who "was shrewd, sagacious, energetic, and industrious. No idler, no spendthrift, no drunkard could have won his confidence or eluded his vigilance." We are then called upon to "contemplate" the successive promotions of the son from the tailor's board to a seat in Congress. The opportunity to enlarge upon the impartial working of our democratic system as evinced in the humble origin of some of its proudest products, is, of course, not neglected. We are next told that the new representative, on engaging for the first time in debate, "managed to get the ear of the House," which, we are assured, is "a fortunate thing for a young member in the delivery of his first speech"—and much more comfortable than to get by the ears with the House. A grandiloquent extract from one of his early speeches is quoted as something admirable in a man who, eighteen years before, could neither read nor write—a defence which might be used by nine out of every ten sophomores in the land; and an argument which would assert Frederick Douglass's capacity to occupy the White House at this juncture a thousand times more forcibly than Andrew Johnson's. Still, the latter's career has been really extraordinary; and though success is not an all-sufficient test of an American messiah, perhaps, if we knew the *rationale* or philosophy of it (as our author is fond of saying), we should at once acknowledge his divine patent and commission. Let us, then, gratefully learn that Mr. Johnson's popularity has been due to his fidelity to the doctrine that "all men are on an equality." This must not be mistaken for "radical agrarianism;" it means merely "that every man, both naturally and under the law, is the equal of every other man, *under similar conditions and circumstances.*" The convenience of this doctrine in the days of slavery is apparent; it may yet suffice to cover injustice to the blacks, if color is a "condition" and a "circumstance."

From another (or is it the same?) "national stand-point," the New York *Herald*, our watchman discerns that President Johnson is no accident, but that he was nominated at Baltimore with special reference to Mr. Lincoln's demise. And if this does not reconcile us to his authority, or incline us to confide in him for the future, we must be brought to confess that "it is a well-established fact in the history of human nature, confirmed by observation in every one's experience, that a man exhibits the same traits of character in every relation of life in which he may be placed." "Any man who loves sincerely the place where his children first saw the light, or who reveres the spot where sleep the ashes of his parents, although he may have infirmities, *he may be trusted.*" "No man ever betrayed his country over whose heart crept a feeling of melancholy tenderness when he thought of the old homestead where he spent the halcyon days of his youth, or whose eyes were involuntarily moistened when recurring to the scenes and events associated with the budding and blooming of his domestic affections." Mr. Johnson, it is well known, has ever cherished a lively affection for North Carolina and Tennessee, and finds already his new home in Washington

* "Life and Times of Andrew Johnson, Seventeenth President of the United States. Written from a National Stand-point by a National Man." New York: D. Appleton & Co, 1866. Pp. 363.

very near and dear to him. Can any one imagine Robert E. Lee or Jefferson Davis looking wistfully towards Arlington Heights or towards a certain bend of the Mississippi? This inflexible President, who, as he himself says, is too old to retrace his steps, and whose future may be so distinctly deduced from his past—can it be said of him as of Governor Johnson, that he can withstand written petitions and the entreaties of friends for the pardon of criminals, and yields only to the tears and sobs of wife, daughter, or mother? This unchangeable Executive—does he still wish, as in 1850, "to see each branch of the government moving in its legitimate sphere?" This tribune of the people—does he still think it an insult, as he did in 1860, for a President to veto a bill which has received the assent of two-thirds of Congress on its first passage? These questions are not discussed from a "national standpoint," whose field of vision was probably too vast to allow their being distinguished. Besides, the author has a simple answer for all our misgivings. "How little," he says, borrowing the language of Napoleon III. in the case of Cæsar and the first Bonaparte—"how little able are common men to judge of the motives which govern great souls."

We dismiss this book with the remark that its spirit is not so detestable as its logic. It is on the whole an absurd attempt to prove that Andrew Johnson is better fitted to legislate in the name of the people than Congress itself. This delusion has its adherents, of whom Mr. Johnson is the most conspicuous, but we do not believe that it is destined to gain ground or to prevail. That our author will by and by discover his mistake we think very likely; but not till he has descended from his look-out among the fogs.

Miss Mulock's Poems. (Boston: Ticknor & Fields. 1866.)—In this book we have the author of "John Halifax" writing poems, and they are evidently the utterance of the same mind and heart which spoke in the novel.

> "The great human caldron—it boils ever higher:
> Some drowning, some sinking; while some, stealing nigher,
> Athirst, come and lean o'er its outermost verges,
> Or touch, as a child's feet touch, timorous, the surges—
> One plunge—lo! more souls swamped in Vanity-fair."

These are verses from a piece entitled "Faithful in Vanity-fair," and for the choice of subject, and the turn of thought, and the sentiment, they seem to us very characteristic of the author. It is, perhaps, considering too curiously, but we fancy, as one gets hints of men's characters by observation of their gait, that even in the movement of the verse, which appears to halt a little and go with a difficult, laborious step, one discerns what manner of person the author really is; that she is not one of the free, joyful spirits to whom poetry is truly the expression of the perception of beauty, but one of those burdened, careful souls whose law is the law of servitude to duty, to whom freedom, unconstrained spontaneity, would be terrifying. In her vocation she is teacher rather than poet; she painfully sows seed and never is purely poetical seeking flowers. When she sings of love it is from the heart she sings, and from a deep heart; but the sentiment is grave and, not without sadness, already is looking forward to cares and responsibilities; it is love in the fear of God, the union of souls to be saved. There is nothing lightsome, intoxicating, perfectly happy in it. Life is to her a time of trial and probation and labor under the great taskmaster's eye. This is a disposition of mind and these are themes which may be rich in what is poetical, and so the readers of Miss Mulock's poems will find. They will find it in the novels however, and, as we think, find that in the novels it gets more adequate expression than when the author chooses verse as the vehicle. For she is not particularly well endowed with the lighter and more superficial gifts and graces of the verse-maker. There is nothing specially fine and admirable in the dress of her thoughts. We copy the lines entitled "An Old Idea," as being a good sample of the author's usua habit of mind, and a good, indeed a very favorable, sample of her s

> "Stream of my life, dull, placid river, flow!
> I have no fear of the engulfing seas!
> Neither I look before me nor behind,
> But, lying mute with wave-dipped hand, float on.
>
> "It was not always so. My brethren, see
> The war-stained, trembling palm. It keeps the sign
> Of youth's mad wrestling with the wars that drift
> Immutably, eternally along.
>
> "I would have had them flow through fields and flowers,
> Giving and taking freshness, perfume, joy;
> It winds through—here. Be silent, O my soul!
> The finger of God's wisdom drew the line.
>
> "So I lean back and look up to the stars,
> And count the ripples circling to the shore,
> And watch the solemn river rolling on
> Until it widens to the open sea."

Asiatic Cholera. By F. A. Burrall, M.D. (William Wood & Co., New York.)—This convenient hand-book purports to be merely a study of the latest evidence concerning the disease now sitting at our gates. The compiler, while intelligently reporting the conclusions of others, is careful not to dogmatize, and the following propositions are the only ones which he endorses, "as sustained by sufficient evidence to justify a belief in them:"

"*First.* Cholera is a disease that is diffused by human intercourse.

"*Second.* The cholera dejections are the chief (if not exclusive) agents in disseminating the infectious material.

"*Third.* Certain circumstances, among which moisture in the soil has a prominent but not exclusive part, favor the spread of the disease."

Dr. Burrall therefore holds that quarantines are useful, especially in countries where the approach of the epidemic can be by sea alone. If there were not respectable physicians who denounce this view, we should say that it was not merely the sensible but the only view to be adopted; and we shall still be of opinion that, had the passengers of the *England*, the *Virginia*, the *Union*, and the *Helvetia* been allowed to disperse at once throughout this city and the country at large, the cholera would now be raging here as it did last summer in Europe. Indeed, that quarantines are not wholly effective is no better reason for abandoning them than for discouraging sanitary observances, which are also not a perfect safeguard against pestilence. Concerning the latter, Dr. Burrall gives the usual information and advice. As a valuable addition to his list of disinfectants, we may mention the ashes of anthracite coal—the plague of the housekeeper in town and in country alike. By mixing these with the contents of his privies, one may procure for himself exemption from noxious gases, and the transmutation of rubbish into a highly superior fertilizer.

Dr. Hartshorne—(*Cholera:* Facts and Conclusions as to its Nature, Prevention, and Treatment. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia)—maintains that there is a large class of facts "altogether adverse to the supposition that the cholera is either contagious or in any way dependent for transmission upon human intercourse." He does not believe that the disease is propagated by the discharges of its victims. He scouts quarantine as a preventive of contagion. His theory is:

"That the cause of cholera is a (yet undiscovered) protozoon, or primal organism, of extreme individual minuteness; which, on entering the human body, affects it as an organic poison."

Consequently, the only available measures against the cholera are such as belong to a sanitary police. As for treatment Dr. Hartshorne allows the customary choice.

The Language of Flowers. Edited by Miss Ildrewe. With an introduction from Thomas Miller. Illustrated by colored plates and numerous woodcuts, after Gustave Doré, Daubigny, Timms, and others. (Boston: De Vries, Ibarra & Co., 1866.)—There is good authority, if authority is needed, for saying that the visible forms of nature speak a very various language to nature's various votaries, and there is little to be said when one lover of flowers gives to a particular flower a meaning which to another person seems altogether wrong. It is nearly all arbitrary. The cypress may be said to signify mournfulness naturally, and the violet is fitly an emblem of retiring modesty, and the ivy expresses friendship well enough, though Bacchus used to appropriate it. But, begging Miss Ildrewe's pardon, it seems irrational enough, worse than irrational a tailor would say, to make cabbage signify profit; and is it not a funny reason for making the elder synonymous with compassion that it kindly "furnishes quack doctors with many of their most successful remedies?" As the defenders of capital punishment are fond of saying, This sort of mercy to one criminal may be the greatest cruelty to the whole body of society beside. And is the water-lily called eloquence for the same reason that it is very like awhale—comes up to the surface and blows? There is something cynical in asserting that friendship is typified by the little, ugly, formal arbor-vitæ, which has to be coaxed so much and is so little worth coaxing, which is always green while it lives, and when it ceases to be green dies. Then there is the splendid vermilion pomegranate blossom, it seems not right to connect it with conceit, unless one intends the conceits of the glowing Orientals who delight to sing its praises. And it is a sin of omission in the editor to leave out the lovely trailing arbutus or pilgrim's May-flower. As for the sins of commission, as we said before, this floral lexicography is all a field for fancy, and we can assure our readers that Miss Ildrewe is a very pleasant companion with whom to wander through it. With the sweets of the meadows, and the little green lanes, and the woods, and the glories of the gardens she is lovingly familiar, whether as they grow under the natural sky or as they blossom, almost more beautiful, underneath the new heavens and over the new earth created for us by the poets. The pictures, it is to be confessed, do not keep the promise of the title-page, and this is the more pity, for the book will be in request by young people who wish to make a pretty present.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, June 1, 1866.

THE approaching Congress of political wiseacres, convened for the purpose of doing what seems very like the work of "piecing two impossibilities together," will necessitate a prolongation of the Legislative session, and thus retard for a few weeks the migration of the gay world towards the sea-side and the German watering-places, which reduces "the metropolis of Europe," during six months of the year, to what, in fashionable parlance, is called "a desert." The Empress has just closed, with a very brilliant *fête*, the series of private entertainments which succeed to the crowded "state balls" given at the Tuileries on the return of the court to the capital; these "private" soirées, to which from five hundred to eight hundred persons only are invited, being the most agreeable things imaginable, in their way. The ladies, being in no danger of finding their finery torn to shreds

as generally happens in the state balls, come out in the most exquisite "toggery" that the combined ingenuities of the toilette-artistes can compass; and as there are always a good many among them who would be beautiful in even the simplest costume, the spectacle afforded by the gathering of fair faces, wonderful dresses, jewels, and flowers, of embroidered uniforms, court-suits, and the orders of all the knighthoods of the world, is extremely brilliant. The Emperor and Empress lay aside much of their ordinary state on these occasions, mingling with their guests, conversing with those who are personally known to them, and taking a leading part in whatever may be going on.

At the last of these pleasant gatherings, which always end with a supper "fit for the gods and the fairies," dresses of various white, transparent tissues were in the ascendant, and were the most admired. The Empress wore a dress of white tulle, trimmed with blue satin ribbons and diamonds, a diadem necklace, and earings of diamonds, torquoises, and opals, and the ribbons and decorations of various royal orders. Princess Metternich was in a white dress, wreathed with ivy-leaves bedewed with diamonds, and a head-dress to match. Beautiful Baronne de Pourtales was in white, trimmed with pink hyacinths; her fair rival, Marquise de Galliffet, also in white, with trimmings of the yellow tea-rose she so specially affects. Many of the prettiest dresses were of transparent tissues, striped or spotted with gold or silver, with coiffures of flowers of corresponding or contrasting colors mixed with tinsel.

The great *artiste*, Sophie Cruvelli, who has not been heard here since her brilliant marriage with Baron Vigier—young, immensely rich, of high character and family, and devotedly attached to her—having consented to sing at two concerts given in this city, a few days ago, in aid of a well-known charity, at the Salle Herz, that pretty little temple of the melodious muse, which professes to hold 500 persons, was crammed to overflowing. The managers had contrived to make no fewer than 800 "reserved" seats, all of which were let, long beforehand, at twenty francs each, and all to ladies; stools for the gentlemen were squeezed in wherever they could be made to stand, and let at ten francs each; the whole of the pretty *salle* was hung with garlands of flowers, the stage included, and lighted with unusual brilliance and taste. The 800 ladies present were all in ball-dresses, their hair, necks, and arms sparkling with jewels, so that, as the gentlemen were also in full dress, the scene was rather that of a ball-room than a concert. The *diva*, in whom the *woman* is admired quite as enthusiastically as the *artiste*, was received with a tempest of applause and an avalanche of bouquets; she looked very well, and sang with all her old fire and perfection, to the immense satisfaction of her friends, who were just a trifle nervous as to the impression she would make after an absence of so many years; but the triumphal success of her recent appearance in aid of a charity-concert, at Cannes, was fully equalled on this occasion. So complete, indeed, was this success that the concert was repeated on the following evening, and with the same brilliant results; the demand for places on each occasion, notwithstanding their high price, being more than double the capacity of the hall. Some little disappointment was felt by those who had hoped to see the great *artiste* in a splendid dress and covered with diamonds, for she appeared in a simple dress of white tulle, trimmed with wreaths of small ivy-leaves, a wreath of the same on her neck and wrists, and ivy-leaves in the dense masses of her magnificent black hair. It is no small proof of the excellence of this lady that her husband's family, who were at first furiously angry at what they considered a disgraceful *mésalliance* on the part of the baron, are now amongst the most devoted of her worshippers, and equally proud of her grace, her virtues, and her talent.

The summer races have opened with the victory of an English horse, *Ceylon*, belonging to the Duke of Beaufort, much to the vexation of the "sportsmen" of France, who, since the triumph of the unrivalled *Gladiateur* on the English turf, had pleasantly made up their minds that the days of humiliation for French horse-flesh were passed for ever. The victory of *Ceylon* was not anything to be particularly proud of; for no first-rate horses ran, even for the "Grand Prize of Paris," of which the late Duke de Morny (who persuaded the Emperor, the Jockey Club, and the Municipality of Paris into establishing the stake in question) used to say that the day which should see these stakes won by a French horse would be one of the proudest of his life. Faint and few were the cheers bestowed on the winning horse; but the Jockey Club, feeling it necessary to reciprocate something of the magnificent hospitalities offered on the other side of the Channel to the fortunate owner of *Gladiateur*, entertained the duke at a banquet given at the classic restaurant of the "Trois Frères Provençaux." The penny-a-liners of the Paris press are endeavoring to console the public under this "disgrace" by reminding them that the Duke of Beaufort is a descendant of the old Norman stock, transplanted into English soil by the summary methods of William the Conqueror. The duke, in reply to the felicitations of his entertainers, assured them that not only he, but the entire race of Englishmen, are delighted with any pretext for coming over to Paris; and expatiated on the brightness of Paris skies, the splendor of Paris thoroughfares, the delightful life and stir and amusement of Paris existence, until his hosts may well have felt themselves consoled for the loss of the palms so easily won by him.

The duke might have added, as another proof of the esteem in which Paris is held by "perfidious Albion," the heavy contributions paid every year by the latter to the admirable gifts of her ancient rival in the spheres of art and artistic industry. The best patrons of French artists are across the Channel. The manufacturers and shopkeepers look to the travelling English, who buy up so large a proportion of their charming temptations, as quite their best customers. A visit to the ateliers of the great sculptor, Baron de Triqueti, in the Rue Pigalle, would tax the equanimity of his English brethren somewhat heavily. The baron is executing for Queen Victoria the great series of Biblical scenes that will cover the interior of the Memorial Chapel which she is building in honor of her late husband. These magnificent compositions are executed in a new style of mosaic, the invention of M. de Triqueti, and are composed partly of lines cut into the white stone, and filled with color, partly of pieces of colored marble inserted into the groundwork. Each great *tableau* is framed, as it were, in a broad border of this beautiful multicolored work, in which green, white, and yellow marbles are thus inserted into the pale chocolate-colored porphyry which forms the groundwork. Besides this fine series, the figures in which are nearly of life-size, and which will form the surface of the interior of the chapel, there will be an immense number of exquisite little bas-reliefs, representing saints, prophets, angels, etc., about a foot high, in white marble, which will be inserted in the angles of the borders of the larger pieces, over doorways and in panels and cornices. When finished, these decorations will rank among the most exquisite creations of the chisel.

It is for this same chapel-interior that Miss Susan Durant, of London, "the Reynolds of sculpture," is executing her wonderful life-size likenesses of the Queen and all the royal children, big and little. The skill and tact with which she contrives to combine the most lifelike fidelity of form and expression with a grace and dignity worthy of classic days, have enabled her to make of this series of portraits at once a faithful record of her royal sitters and a work of the highest value and interest in an artistic point of view. So delighted is the Queen with the portraits of her children already taken that she is having numerous reductions made from them as presents to her friends. Thus, Barbédienne, the well-known manufacturer of artistic bronzes, of the Boulevard Montmartre, has just executed nearly two dozen of these reductions of the Princess Royal and of Princess Helena, in solid gold, the first to be given as mementoes of the baptism of her eldest grandson, the future King of Prussia, the second to be presented as mementoes of the approaching marriage of Princess Helena. All these reductions are set as brooches. The centre forms a medallion, with the head in bas-relief, in dull gold, nearly of the Roman hue. The border to the reductions of the Princess of Prussia is composed of the classic wreath of laurel-leaves, in green enamel, in high relief, the edge of each leaf shown by the faintest *soupçon* of gold; in the centre of the wreath, over the head, is the rose of England, to the left the Scotch thistle, to the right the Irish shamrock, and in the centre, below, the crowned double-headed eagle of Prussia, all in relief and in color. The brooch, thus completed, is slightly oval, and rather larger than a five-shilling piece, and most classical in style and tone—a truly royal-looking ornament. The reductions of Princess Helena are similar in size and general style, but the raised border of enamel encircling the medallion is thickly set with various jewels. Intended for wedding-presents, it is gayer and more brilliant than that of her sister, and forms a magnificent and very beautiful ornament, though less purely classical than that of the Princess Royal.

The Emperor is said to be very desirous of rescuing M. de Lamartine from his harassing pecuniary difficulties, and to have determined on offering to transfer to the state his load of liabilities (amounting to between two and three millions of francs), and to pay to him, from the civil list, an annual pension of forty thousand francs during his life; the poet, on his side, would abandon to the state the copyrights of his works, his patrimonial estates, and his personal property of all kinds. As the whole of the great poet's "belongings" represent but a small portion of his liabilities (the greater part of which, it is but fair to remember, he inherited from his father), this condition is evidently attached to the Imperial offer only with a view to saving the pride of the bankrupt. Whether the latter will accept the offer is, however, somewhat doubtful.

STELLA.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

JEFFERSON DAVIS'S SINCERITY.

DR. CRAVEN, the post surgeon at Fortress Monroe, has fallen a victim to the prevalent mania for book-making, and has produced a full, true, and particular account of Jefferson Davis's behavior since his committal to that stronghold. The doctor informs the world with much earnestness that he has always been a Union man and an anti-slavery man, and that, if his work displays sympathy with the prisoner, it must not be inferred that he has, or has ever had, the smallest sympathy with secession. In other words, like a true Christian, he hates the sin while loving and commiserating the sinner. He also protests strongly that he has in no line committed the smallest violation of professional confidence. Whatever Mr. Davis told him as his medical adviser shall descend with him to the tomb; but everything else about the unfortunate man, his feelings, his fancies, his chagrins, his weaknesses, his opinions, his habits, all the petty acts of his life, from his pulling on his stockings in the morning to the putting out of his candle at night, that a vigilant and minute observer could catch and write down from day to day, may be learned of Dr. Craven for the small sum of a dollar and a quarter. If Mr. Davis is satisfied with the volume nobody else has a right to complain; but if he is, both he and Dr. Craven must at least have the decency not to claim credit for much delicacy of feeling. If the book have any object beyond the turning of an honest penny, and we are bound in courtesy to suppose that it has, it is to excite the sympathy of the public for the prisoner, and prepare the way for general acquiescence either in his pardon or in his acquittal after a sham trial. That it will be partially successful we have no doubt, and that any effort in this direction meets with the highest official approval we have just as little doubt. There have been several indications of late of a sneaking desire on the part of those who have him in custody to turn him loose, if a reasonable pretext could be found for doing so, and it would be difficult to find a better mode of reconciling the country to seeing him back in Mississippi than the publication of such a record of his sufferings and thinkings as Dr. Craven's.

There is nothing in the volume more striking or able or more artful than Mr. Davis's definition of the struggle in which he figured so prominently. He now declares the war to have been merely a rough and painful but inevitable mode of deciding a difference of opinion, honest on both sides, between the North and South as to the structure of the Government, declares that he always so regarded it, and therefore did his best to prevent the infusion of unnecessary bitterness into it. As to the value of this as a statement of facts, we will only say that many of Mr. Davis's speeches during the halcyon days of the Confederacy furnish a strange commentary upon it.

What concerns us most to know is not whether the secessionist leaders were honest in thinking they had the right to secede, but whether they were justified in resorting to arms in assertion of it. This is the real question in all cases of treason. We doubt if treason, in the sense of levying war on an established government, has ever been committed by men who might not fairly claim credit for an honest belief in the justice of their cause. Treasonable attempts on the lives of sovereigns or ministers of state have, of course, as often been made by knavish conspirators as by honest fanatics; but we doubt whether there has ever been a rising in arms, on a considerable scale, for the purpose of overthrowing a government, in which the great body of the insurgents were not thoroughly satisfied that they had God and the right on their side. This has been true of every revolution or attempt at revolution that has ever occurred in Europe. Men in civilized countries are not so fond of disorder and turbulence, do not reck so little of the horrors of civil war, as to take arms in mere wantonness, and imperil their lives and fortunes for the sake of a little excitement. And when our Constitution made treason a crime it undoubtedly contemplated the possibility of large bodies of men becoming dissatisfied with the Government, and attempting to overthrow it for some reason that might seem to them good.

Nobody doubts that Jefferson Davis believed honestly in the right of secession. There was no law against his doing so. There is no law against any man's doing so. Nobody but an Eastern tyrant would seek to prevent a man's holding any theory of the nature of the government he pleases. You may even in St. Petersburg hold the Emperor to be either a despot, a constitutional monarch, a pope, or a usurper; you pay your taxes and choose your own view of the character of those who receive them. Any Hungarian in Austria may consider Francis Joseph merits dethronement, and any legitimist in Paris may be as satisfied as he pleases that Louis Napoleon is a robber, and that Henry V. ought to be on the throne. But in none of these cases would anybody be allowed to enforce his opinions with the sword. It is in this resort to arms that treason consists. There is no moral or legal guilt in holding the Calhoun doctrine of State rights. But there is moral and legal guilt in attempting to put it into practice by force. What Mr. Davis and his fellows ask us to do is to treat everybody who chooses to get up a rebellion, and gives some plausible reason for it, as an honest fellow, only a little mistaken. What would he have said to this plea if put forward on behalf of John Brown? Was *he* not honest? Was not *his* difference of opinion with the charlatan who was then governor of Virginia, and who now flaunts his treason in our faces with perfect impunity, as to the constitution of Southern society, just as sincere as Mr. Davis's on the right of secession? But was that held by Southern lawyers to be any justification of his rising? No society could hold together for ten years which tolerated a doctrine so monstrous. No government is worthy of the name which is compelled to enquire into the motives of those who seek to destroy it before punishing them; and to suppose that the framers of the Constitution, while defining treason, left it to each citizen to decide when his commission of it was justifiable, is to accuse them of having inserted a sorry joke in the most solemn and important state paper in history.

If Jefferson Davis is punished—and we trust he will be—it will be not to gratify any personal hatred for him, but to prevent others like him from ever again trying to put theories of government into practice by force of arms, as long as the press is free and the ballot-box open. It is in having done this that his crime consists. We care nothing about his theories. All we know is that he killed 200,000 men, and covered the land with desolation, in trying to put an end to the Union. He may have been directed to do this in a vision, or may have come to it by reading his Bible; but it is enough for us to know that to admit sincerity as an excuse for it, would place the lives and fortunes of the community at the mercy of its knaves and fools.

There is one other reason which is, in our minds, hardly less cogent. We have filled the whole earth for the last four years with denunciations of the moral guilt of the rebellion. We have dinned into everybody's ears without ceasing that the secessionist leaders were designing knaves, that their crime was the greatest crime and our cause the holiest cause in history. We owe it to our own character, therefore, and to the moral sense of our own people not to let these men go unwhipped of justice. Either the war as conducted by us was a great outrage on human rights, or those who began it deserve some worse fate than defeat—deserve from us some solemn, emphatic, and judicial indication of our estimate of their guilt. We know of nothing that tends more to blunt people's sense of right and wrong, and foster that growing indifference to the moral aspect of offences against the law, which we dignify with the name of good nature, than to hunt men down for four years with prayers, and tears, and execrations, shedding our best blood in our efforts to catch them, for having committed the foulest of offences, and having caught them, to laugh with them over the chase and send them back to their homes. There are people who see something sublime in our horror of crime and in our growing disposition to let criminals go on free. We see in it nothing but an excessive reaction from the blind severity of a past age, the growth of an effeminacy which makes many good men doubt whether a Christian commonwealth be possible.

INSURANCE AGAINST STRIKES.

THERE is no graver problem occupying the public mind just now than how the dispute between labor and capital is to be adjusted. The question is now a perplexed one, owing to the transition state between the old and the new civilization in which we live. Formerly the employers of labor had everything their own way, and now the laborers are trying to have their turn at the dictatorship. In point of fact, there is not, and never was, any real discrepancy between the interests of the two classes, and any tyrannical abuse of power on the part of the masters, of old time, really worked to their disadvantage, just as the attempt of the men to carry impossible points is certain to be damaging to them. Justice is the best possible political economy, and any endeavor, on either side, to set her scales awry will be sure to be punished by a thwack with the flat, if not with the edge, of her sword. We might illustrate this proposition by the problem of reconstructing the system of labor at the South, which is well-nigh as hard to solve, and the solution of which is almost as vital to the general welfare as the political reconstruction itself. But our present business lies nearer home.

The system of trades' unions and other associations of laborers for their own protection have undoubtedly been of material service to those belonging to them, by giving them more correct notions of their rights than their fathers had, and furnishing them with a means of enforcing them. The good they are calculated to perform we rather think they have already done, in raising, reasonably, the rate of wages and limiting, reasonably, the hours of labor. Whatever success they have had, however, has been only as far as they worked in harmony with the eternal laws of political economy, and rectified the existing violations of them. The moment they attempt to repeal or amend these laws in their own interest, these associations become mischievous, only mischievous, and that continually, and to themselves even more than to the employers and the community at large; for the first and heaviest loss falls on themselves. This attempt has just been made here. The efforts to reduce the hours of labor at the pleasure of the laborer, without a corresponding reduction in the rate of wages; to fix the price of labor arbitrarily, and to compel compliance by striking work; to require the same wages to be paid to the bad workman as to the good, to limit the number of apprentices to be permitted to learn trades, and, above all, the execrable tyranny of preventing the willing workman from exercising his right to labor on such terms and for such time as he sees good, all these attempts are in defiance of eternal laws, and must ultimately fail. But the question is how to bring them to an end speedily before they have disorganized labor, demoralized laborers, and established an *imperium in imperio* of the most tyrannical and oppressive kind, only to be overthrown by force of arms; and it is a question on the answer to which the condition of our industry during the next fifty years will largely depend.

How is this to be done? It seems to us that the masters may take a leaf out of the book of the men as to this matter. How is it that strikes are now possible? Because all, or almost all, the operatives above the merest day-laborers belong to a kind of mutual insurance company for the protection of their rights, as they understand them. When a strike is determined on in any trade, in a particular place, the men receive from a fund already on hand, or contributed for the occasion, money enough to enable them to subsist while the strike lasts. This money sometimes comes, as we suppose, from unions of particular trades and sometimes from a general organization including them all. Thus the loss is spread over a wide surface, and, though by no means immaterial to the contributors, can be borne in the hope of carrying their points. Now, what is there to hinder a combination of the employers of labor to counteract this mischievous intermeddling with the laws of demand and supply? An analogous association of large and small capitalists having for its object to make effectual resistance to strikes by dividing the losses among so many as to make the share of each almost inappreciable, on the principle of mutual insurance companies, it seems to us would soon put the matter at rest on its right basis. It is the fact that the operatives have their employers so greatly in their power, by means of their combinations, that gives them the giant's strength which they seem inclined to use so giantly. Relieve the employers from this dependence, and they stand face to face with their men on equal ground to adjust fairly the relations of capital and labor.

For it happens that the pressure of strikes very seldom falls upon the very rich, who can afford to fall back on their reserved capital and wait till the operatives come to their common sense again. If it always did, there would be no need of combination, for large capitalists can generally take excellent care of themselves. The greatest part of the business of the world, requiring the application of capital to labor, is done by master-workmen of very moderate means. The completion of their contracts, of house or ship-building, or printing, or what not, at the time appointed, is not only important to their credit but essential to their livelihood. It is this class of persons on whom the blind tyranny of strike-mongers falls with the greatest severity. They are at the mercy of these laborers, and they often find those mercies cruelties. At the most critical moment of the job the men demand more wages or less work for the same, and the employer often has to comply, to his great loss if not entire ruin. And the employer is often obliged to submit to imperfect or slack work and insolent treatment, because the dismissal of one workman would endanger the stopping of all. Now, such an association as we suggest would meet all such cases. A man projecting a piece of work requiring labor for a space of time, by paying a moderate premium, in proportion to what he expects to make by the job, and agreeing to be liable to a certain further assessment in case of great general necessity, as is done in mutual insurance companies, would be entitled to secure from such an association such a proportion of the profit he expected to make, or the whole of it, as might be originally agreed upon, in case his operations should be interrupted by a strike. The owners of the ship-yards and docks, for instance, who are now the objects of the caulkers' and gravers' strike, would suffer no loss, excepting what they had paid to ensure against it, did such an association now exist; and they could hold out as long as is necessary to bring the men to reason.

Now there may be very grave objections to this plan, but we have been unable to discover them, and do not believe that they can be insuperable ones. The risk is as calculable a one as most of those ensured against, and the losses as readily adjustable. If the capitalists employing labor, and this includes almost all, would unite in such a plan of self-protection and protection of each other, the trades unions for all purposes of mischief would be at an end. For all their beneficent purposes they would be stronger than ever. The only real objection that we can imagine to such an association is the fear that it might give to capital too absolute a control over labor, which might be abused to purposes of oppression. But in this country, where every man has a voice in the State and in the formation of public opinion, such a fear we hold to be absolutely chimerical. The laborer would learn that the due adjustment of his rights with those of the capitalist is as material to his own interest as to that of his employer. He would come to see that there is no antagonism, but the most absolute identity between the interests of capital and labor, and the result would be the most friendly relations between the master and the operative classes and the greatest amount of prosperity to both. And when these relations had been thus adjusted, through the collision of the efforts of both parties to protect themselves, the association would die a natural death for the lack of food to feed on. For this strike of the caulkers and gravers is but the entering edge of the wedge, which will be driven home if some stay cannot be interposed between its cleaving force and the best interests of society.

There is one other means of safety which has been tried very successfully in England, in several cases, and which we wish, most heartily, masters here could be induced to resort to—and that is the plan of dividing all profits over a certain amount amongst the men as a bonus. There is nothing which would so completely and effectually squelch the eight hour movement, and produce real harmony of feeling between employers and employees, as this. It would here, as it has done in England in the few cases in which it has been tried, put an end to waste, and do away with the labor of supervision, as every workman would have the strongest interest in seeing that every other workman did his duty. The real solution of the capital and labor problem is to be found in some form of partnership.

HAS THE NORTH BEEN UNGENEROUS?

THE eloquent pastor of Plymouth Church, in a recent address to his people, said: "The North had a chance to show grace, and love, and magnanimity. How I long to see it! But I have been disappointed. It has not been done."

This charge, from a Northern man of Northern principles, deserves a degree of consideration to which the accusations of our enemies might not be entitled. When Southern writers rave, either in the Richmond *Examiner* or the New York *News*, about the hatred of the radicals towards the South, we know that argument would be wasted upon them, because their object is to perpetuate hatred in the South towards all Northern men and ideas. But when a man like Mr. Beecher expresses his disappointment at the lack of magnanimity in the North, it is necessary to review the past, and see what foundation there is for the charge.

That the North has not come up to the ideal standard of a perfect generosity will, we suppose, be conceded by every one who believes that it ought to have shown generosity at all. The best men and the best societies are far from perfect. Far be it from us to bestow such unseemly flattery upon our countrymen as to assert their perfection in any respect whatever. We have, on the contrary, a keener sense of their faults, and a more earnest desire to make them conscious of their defects, than any enemy can possibly have. But the question now under consideration is one to be determined by a comparison of the North with other nations or persons under similar circumstances, rather than by any absolute moral standard. In *advising* the North, at the close of the rebellion, it was right to urge it to act according to the highest conceivable idea of magnanimity; but in *judging* it, after its course has been taken, it is grossly unjust to criticize it from that exalted and superhuman stand-point.

Now we think that a very simple test may be adopted by which to determine what has been the spirit of the North during the last year. It is not difficult to form an idea of the feelings and conduct of an average man in private life towards an enemy. It is possible to compare the action of various nations and governments toward their enemies with that of private individuals under corresponding circumstances. Making this comparison, we believe it will be admitted that, as a rule, governments have been more severe and unrelenting towards their enemies than individual members of such governments would think it right to be towards their own personal enemies. The instinct of vengeance has seldom been checked at the outset, or been restrained by any other than strictly prudential considerations.

Thus the Irish rebellions, all of them insignificant, and the last one simply ludicrous beside our civil war, were punished with severity—all the earlier ones with profuse bloodshed and even torture. The Sepoy rebellion was punished by inhumanities which the average Englishman would have shrunk from inflicting upon a private enemy. Rebellion in France, Germany, Hungary, Italy, and Poland, has met with terrific punishment, lasting long after all resistance had ceased. According to Mr. Kinglake, 20,000 persons were murdered in Paris alone by the orders of Louis Napoleon, and 400,000 cast into dungeons or transported to Cayenne. Russia and Austria avenged the cause of order by murder and floggings scattered right and left with indiscriminate profusion. Even Switzerland, which, as a republic, could not bear to indulge in these "wholesome severities," compelled its rebellious cantons, if we are correctly informed, to pay the whole expenses of the war waged against them.

What would have been the conduct of the South in the same circumstances? Gov. Wise says frankly, albeit with a devilish spirit, that he would have stripped us naked; if he had been entirely frank, he would have added—and hung us on the nearest trees. The fate of Union men in Texas, Tennessee, and North Carolina, the pens of Andersonville, Florence, and Belle Isle, make the nature of Southern generosity quite clear. Does any man dream that confiscated lands would have been restored, tax sales stopped, and Union men, however penitent, much less if wholly impenitent, have been allowed to vote and hold office in West Virginia and East Tennessee, if they had been surrendered to the Southern Confederacy by a treaty of peace?

Let us imagine a man living on a Western settlement, carrying on a dispute at law with a perverse neighbor. The latter, beaten in every court, makes a desperate attempt to take his adversary's life. He drives him out of his home, burns up his property, kills two or three of his sons, fights long after the struggle both at law and in muscle is clearly decided, doing more mischief after his cause is hopeless than even before, and only yields when deprived of every weapon, and when resistance is simply impossible. How many men, having fought such a fight, and beaten such an enemy, and, we will further suppose, being allowed by law to take his life, or at any rate his property, would say to him, "You may go free. You may have all your property, and I will pay two-thirds of all my costs at law, though I have an execution against you for the whole amount. I forgive you *all* the past, on one condition: your man Cuffee helped me to whip you; you must now treat Cuffee as well as I treat you, and he will help you pay your share of the costs?"

We say that not one man in a hundred would act thus generously, either in America or Europe. Yet this is exactly what the Northern people have done to the South, with substantial unanimity. And if the South would but manifest a general disposition to accept these terms in good faith, the unanimity of the North in offering them would be perfect. Mr. Stevens advocates a different theory, and talks much of confiscation and other punishments. But he has utterly failed to obtain any support for these schemes, even under the present widespread distrust of Southern good faith. If the South should manifest a better spirit, we do not believe that Mr. Stevens himself would continue to advocate any measures of punishment, except as to the foremost leaders of the rebellion; and we are quite certain that if he did, he would not have enough support in the North to secure him a patient hearing. It is the evasion of the South in regard to the claim of right to secede, its evident disposition to repudiate the national debt, its overbearing demeanor, its hatred of Northern men, its persecution of Northern teachers, its outrageous treatment of the colored people, its evident anxiety that Andrew Johnson should play the traitor and call upon it for support, and, in short, its hundred tokens of Punic faith, that chill the springing magnanimity of the North, and make it possible for Mr. Stevens to advocate confiscation and disfranchisement.

The Southern people say, Try us! We *have* tried them. Mr. Johnson's policy has had at least one beneficial result, in showing what the South will do with its regained liberty. It has made it clear that the South values the power of self-government mainly as a means of oppression. Freedmen's codes, making the freedmen mere serfs; constitutions carefully framed so as to exclude Northern men from political influence; Union men excluded from all honor, and treated as lepers; Northern missionaries mobbed and insulted, not in occasional instances, but as the rule; Memphis riots and Louisiana elections; all tell one story of bad faith and malignant temper.

Yet, in spite of all this, the North has just refused to disfranchise rebels; and three-fourths of those who are daily represented as the special foes of the South would gladly restore it to all its privileges on the basis of universal suffrage and universal amnesty. But this proposition is treated by the South as the bitterest wrong of all. It prefers to endure any amount of oppression that the conscience of the North will allow, rather than forego the right of oppressing others. The magnanimity which the North is urged to exercise is the cheap generosity of conciliating its enemies by delivering its humble friends into their hands, bound hand and foot, and ready to be cast into the furnace prepared for them.

A TENNESSEE OLYMPIC.

IF Mr. Burke, when he mourned the departure of the age of chivalry in a celebrated passage the rhetoric of which is worthy of sounder reason, could have foreseen that chivalry would return on the 31st of May, A.D. 1866, to irradiate the State of Tennessee, in the United States of America, the prospect might have mollified the grief of his conservative and apprehensive spirit. We have before us a letter printed in the Louisville *Journal*, full at once of knightly emotion and grammatical solecisms, reciting the splendors of "a tournament" held at Clarksville, Tennessee, as aforesaid, on the day aforesaid, in the course of which seventeen "knights" tilted for crowns and nosegays. One horse died of a bad fall, and one chevalier was "sprained" by falling with him—an aggregate of bloody noses and cracked crowns at

which we fear that Froissart would have turned up his nose and thrown down his immortal pen in contempt. But we must not be hypercritical. If no creature was killed upon this interesting occasion (except the horse) it was arranged beforehand and stipulated that the combats should not be mortal. It was a sort of militia muster, after the fashion of the Middle Ages—a highly refined and romantic kind of sham-fight, bearing about the same relation to the "tournament" which we read of that a modern circus or hippotheatron bears to the Field of Cloth of Gold. The combatants were arrayed not in iron armor but in fancy dresses, some of which, we are told, were "really magnificent," while, as we are further informed, "none were either specious or devoid of neatness." The assumption of character seems to have been a little promiscuous and not without a certain touch of anachronism. If Sir Montgomery Merrit saw fit to appear as "The Black Prince," Sir Henry Herndon was not to be restrained from figuring as "Thaddeus of Warsaw." There was "The Knight of the Fallen Banner," and there was "Sir Walter Raleigh." Mr. Longfellow will be pleased to learn that his "Hiawatha" was impersonated upon the occasion, and stands next in the roll of chivalry to "The Knight of the Silver Moon." But if the costumes were of no age in particular, the speeches—for we defy you to have an American "tournament" or an American any-thing-else without speeches—were decidedly modern, with the true wild raciness of our native eloquence.

After "the fiery horses"—we quote the uncommonly fine language of the correspondent—"after the fiery horses and their proud-crested riders had moved around the circuit two or three times in winsome, all but God-like style"—(God-like style is good, but it would have been better to have used a small "g")—"after they had made their exit through the western gate," they then came back again, and were "disposed in strict observance of military usage in front of the stand" to listen to the speech-making. It was "Gen. Quarles" who "urged them on to the gentle contest in the most inspiriting terms." He said everything which he could reasonably be expected to say to animate, exalt, stimulate, and encourage these fancy warriors. He likened them to "the manly combatants of ancient Greece;" he compared them favorably with "the solid ranks of the Roman legion;" he conjured them to catch courage from the bright eyes of their fair spectators; and he ended by sublimely exclaiming: "On, then, gallant knights! The whole world is impatient to know who will be our sovereign queen hearts and of beauty." The "whole world" may not be much interested to know the name, but for the benefit of the curious few we may state that Miss Molly Boyd was the blushing and beautiful recipient of the royal honors. She received her flowery crown from Gen. Williams, "whose address was replete with everything that the poetry of the moment demanded." The gallant letter-writer affirms that the general "caused the hearts of the young knight and the lovely queen to pulsate hymeneally, and their cheeks to be suffused in blushes." "Ah!" he exclaims, "these ceremonies sent a queer shock to many a surrounding breast." And then came something which they did not have in Athens, nor in Rome—something Bois de Gilbert never enjoyed and the Lady Rowena never presided over—"a rich, rare, and racy barbecue." The knights were hungry—the queen of beauty had an excellent appetite—the king-at-arms was extremely sharp-set—the heralds were as "peckish" as Sancho Panza—"there was more than a sufficiency of edibles, and nobody left the prandial region unsatisfied." Then the knights, internally fortified, went back to the ring "for sober exercise," and "decapitated a manikin." Then the Chevalier Bayard, Rob Roy, Thaddeus of Warsaw, Hiawatha, and the Black Prince trotted horses "for a pair of silver spurs." After this, and to conclude, there was a ball so magnificent that the despairing correspondent informs us that "the picture could never be justly daguerreotyped save upon the tablet of memory." "We have it there fixed," he adds complacently. Happy correspondent!

But our readers have doubtless had enough of what, after all, must have been a sort of shabby-genteel spectacle, as any "tournament" in the year 1866 must necessarily be. This queer aping of knighthood—this droll resuscitation of mouldy forms—this putting on of the rag-tag and bob-tail of romance—the toy lances and the theatrical lists, the sham combats and the poor decapitated manikin—it is all about as genuine as the assumed "chivalry" which sectional vanity with ludicrous complacency laid claim to, and which common-sense soon converted into a nickname. The cotton-growers and the tobacco-planters of South Carolina and Virginia were not in the least like the Crusaders, except in their qualities of character which modern civilization has made discreditable. While they had most of the vices of the old chivalry, they affected, in vain, those minor graces which poetry has assigned to it, and which, if they ever existed, have long been not merely obsolete but extinct. It was impossible to concede a special and superior refinement to a society in which personal revenge, while cultivated as a virtue, was continually resorting to the rude remedy of assassination, to the butcherly methods of gladiators and the skulking ambush of the Corsican vendetta. It was hard to believe those households peculiarly and admirably polished in which the lash was the constant and recognized instrument of domestic discipline. It was imposing a vast tax upon our credulity to ask us to admit a more than usually delicate sense of justice in those who defrauded the laborer of his daily hire, or a peculiarly romantic gallantry in others who smote shrinking womanhood with a heavy hand and were deaf to the despairing cries of bereaved maternity. Shocked out of a judicial equanimity by the contemplation of shame and crimes like these, it is probable that we have overlooked whatever may be really excellent in the Southern character, and have failed to do justice to qualities admirable in themselves and easily allowed when not overshadowed by prevailing vices. It must be admitted, we fear, that the love of woman which chivalry animated and fostered was of a coarse and sensual character, and that the gallant knight thought of his "ladye love" as a toy for his amusement, and not as an equal, a friend, and a companion. How far "modern chivalry" has thus retrograded towards barbarism we need not here enquire. It is pleasanter to believe and to avow our belief that a social condition awaits the South in which there will not be so much tournament talk of love and of beauty, but a nobler recognition of all that is comely and lovely in the character of woman.

THE PARLIAMENTARY PRIVILEGE OF BATTERY.

THE great apologist of the Quakers might not find it hard, but, as men go, any other man than Barclay would not find it easy to visit Mr. Rousseau's recent folly with unqualified condemnation. The typical Kentuckian, Kentuckians like to believe, strikes back if he is struck by lightning, and is so far from holding the suave philosophy that no respectable person will, and no other can, insult him, that with noble eagerness he snuffs an affront afar off, and, like the costermonger's donkey, the Kentuckian's honor may be said to keep cultivated raws all ready with inflamed tenderness for any and every blow. Even the exceeding stature which we have heard so much about the Kentuckian brags of, shall we not believe, as that mighty boaster Tamburlaine the Great is feigned to have bragged of his, eminent because of the lofty soul within. Not on mere pounds avoirdupois, nor on dollars did the whiskey-distilling branch of our Southern aristocracy base its claim to admiring deference, but on its notorious delicacy and greatness of soul. The body, with its extremities small and shapely, as Dr. Bellows, for the sake of peace and conciliation, was willing to admit, might be as straightly fashioned and as robust as Mrs. Caroline Lee Hentz could be fond of believing it, but the mounting spirit of the true Kentuckian, delicately susceptible, opposes the seven-shooter to the ferule of the insolent schoolmaster, and if but roughly breathed upon demands a shot at twelve paces, or to be allowed a knife and a fair show in a bar-room, or to be shut up with its injurious enemy in a locked room all alone with two double-barrelled guns, with twelve buckshot in each barrel, and by the sympathizing public sentiment of the Dark and Bloody Ground it usually had its claim allowed.

But leaving out of view the perhaps extreme opinion in regard to the cheap defense of notions which is understood to be prevalent in Kentucky, the late assault and battery on Mr. Grinnell by his fellow representative opens two or three interesting questions. How much abuse does society require a man to bear without unchristian resentment? Should a very excessively elastic privilege of debate be suffered to protect scurrility in Congress which would never find utterance in the street unless the speaker was prepared for a stout fight? Is not the House debarred from expelling Rousseau for his acts of Wednesday by its tolerance of the words of Grinnell and Rousseau on Monday? In answering these questions it is, of course, to be borne in mind that this is the year eighteen hundred and sixty-six of the Christian era; but we must remember also that, as a fact, it is still not uncommon for men—other men than Kentuckians—to resort to violent measures of redress when publicly bawled at as liars, and brainless fools, and sneaking cowards pretending to rewards and glory for their courage.

Mr. Boswell says he thought it rather a superfluity of refinement in the society of his day that it strictly required an affronted gentleman to resent it at once at the risk of killing or being killed with the duelling pistol or small sword. Yet that the requirement was made he by no means denied, nor did the great moralist with whom he and General Oglethorpe were talking deny the assertion or the conclusion which was drawn, namely, that a man might properly fight a duel provided he were not the aggressor. That was in 1770 or thereabouts, and the world since then has changed sides, now not giving its acquiescence, much less its command, to the duellist, but prosecuting him for murder, and laughing at him for a fool. But a

the same time that it has taken away from the insulted the right to get himself redress, it has made insults less common, and it more strongly discountenances him who gives them. Otherwise, we should be compelled to say that society had removed a safeguard of the comfort and happiness of the weak and set up nothing in its place. When Congress does its duty in this respect, when it puts an end to or even frowns upon the insolence, folly, and blackguardism with which its dignity is every day insulted and the country disgraced, then it may with better grace talk of expelling a member who commits an assault on a man who scurrilously slanders him. Meantime we hope both offenders in the latest breach of decorum may be speedily and equally punished. To hope that the House will reform altogether its manner of debate is probably to hope too much.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Monday, June 18, 1866.

THE news from Europe, intimating that the European Congress has been abandoned, and that troops have already been set in motion for the Austrian frontier, has exercised an important influence upon our markets. Gold and produce have gone up, and much uneasiness prevails in foreign banking circles. Private letters from London state that the feeling on the Stock Exchange was better than it had been, and that American securities were in improved demand. Still the enquiry for 5-20s, Erie, and Illinois must have been chiefly for export to this country. It is gratifying to note that no failures of consequence have occurred in connection with this country, and that the assistance rendered by us to the London banks and merchants is fully acknowledged. A prominent London house states that American credit never before stood as high as it does at present in England. It is probable that, before our next number is issued, we shall hear of the actual clash of arms; from that point, financial recovery will probably begin.

Money continues very cheap. Call loans are quoted at 5 and 6 per cent., and first-class short paper 6 and 7. The national banks, unwarned by experience, continue to expand to the limit of their means, and cliques in merchandise and stocks find no difficulty in obtaining all the money they require to carry their property. Government securities of all kinds are being accumulated in the hands of national banks. The Government deposits in these institutions must be over sixty millions at the present time.

Stocks continue animated. Five-twenties have risen on the advance in gold, and all the parcels arriving from Europe are eagerly taken at the improvement. Seven-thirties and 10-40s are firm and in request. Among the railway stocks the movement has been irregular. The New York Central clique has again pushed up the price to the neighborhood of par; they will probably again endeavor to sell by making the stock scarce. Erie has fallen back, partly on the growing conviction that dividends are a thing of the past and partly on the arrival of considerable amounts of stock from abroad. The traffic report for May shows a decline of $323,000. Reading is steady; no dividend has yet been declared, but the tonnage for the season shows an increase over last year of 500,000 tons. There is no change in Michigan Southern, and no indication of the long-promised summer dividend. Pittsburgh continued to droop, on efforts by the clique to sell out, till this morning when it rallied to 84¼. Rock Island was run up by the clique which holds it to 94, but has since fallen back. The volume of stock which is waiting to be sold at or about 94 to 95 is very large. The North-western stocks are lower again; the party which undertook to bull them appears to have lost heart. Among the miscellaneous fancies there is no traffic except among the promoters themselves. The public have been too often burnt to be easily tempted to purchase stocks of unknown value simply on the vague theory that they "are going up." Canton is, perhaps, the only exception to the rule, and really looks very firm indeed.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 11.	June 14.	June 18.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	105¾	106	106	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102¼	102¾	103¾	1⅛	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102¼	102¾	103	¾	....
10-40 Bonds	96⅛	96¼	96⅜	¼	...
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅜	102⅜	102⅛	⅛	....
New York Central	97¼	98¼	99¼	1	....
Erie Railway	62⅛	59⅜	59⅛	....	....
Hudson River	109⅜	110	110¼	¼	....
Reading Railroad	109¼	109¼	109¼	....	....
Michigan Southern	79½	79	78¾	....	¼
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	83⅜	82¼	83¾	1⅜	....
Chicago and North-western	30¾	30⅜	30	....	⅜
Chicago & North-Western, Preferred	60⅜	59¾	59	....	¾
Chicago and Rock Island	92⅛	91⅛	93¾	2¼	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	96	97¼	97	....	¼
Canton	59¼	58⅜	60¼	1⅛	....
Cumberland	44⅜	45	44⅜	....	⅛
Mariposa	11⅜	11⅜	11¼	....	⅛
American Gold	139⅜	147⅛	158	10¼	....
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅞	109⅞	108	....	1⅞
Call Loans	6	6	6	....	....

Gold rose this morning to 170, afterwards fell back to 155, and at the present time, 4 P.M., is 158. Exchange has declined to 108 for prime bankers' bills. The advance in gold has created much alarm in commercial circles, and the conduct of the Government officials in throwing away thirty millions at 130 is the subject of severe criticism. At the present time the whole specie reserve in the banks is so small that a few speculators might readily lock it all up, and compel the shorts to pay any price they pleased. The Government is powerless to resist a corner; it cannot afford to sell any amount sufficient to frighten the bulls; and until the new cotton crop comes in we shall have nothing to export but bullion. The rise in the premium has naturally led to a corresponding advance in produce, but it is quite doubtful whether the country contains any surplus of food, and thus the advance is merely an additional burden upon consumers. It may check the importation of U. S. bonds from Germany; for with gold at 160 but few foreign holders could afford to sell except at a loss. But, on the other hand, the miserable mismanagement of our finances and the consequent advance in gold will not assist our credit abroad, and many bondholders, discouraged and disgusted, may send their bonds home for sale at any price. Had Congress and the Treasury Department pursued a statesmanlike course, gold would not have been above 125 at the present time, the currency would have been in process of curtailment day by day and week by week, the consumption of foreign goods would have been comparatively small, and the Government and not the speculators would have been master of the situation. As it is, Congress sets its face against the only measure which could help the public finances—the curtailment of the currency; and the Secretary of the Treasury, after proving in the most conclusive manner that nothing but contraction could save us, has ever since, by his acts, promoted expansion. We confess that we see no indications of a return to sound principles at either end of Pennsylvania Avenue. In Congress an increase of the national currency is mooted, and from the Treasury Department manifestoes appear periodically which are calculated to encourage an expansion of national bank credits. Perhaps it would be as well—as it seems we cannot help ourselves—to let the paper-money men have their way. The vaster the expansion now, the more quickly will come the collapse. Mr. Sherman and Mr. Stevens will not tolerate the reduction of a currency which is at least thrice as abundant as it should be. Well, let them have their way. Let us have, if we cannot prevent it, a hundred millions more national bank currency. Let the public money continue to be loaned free of interest to national banks ("pet banks"), and let these institutions be encouraged to expand as widely as possible. Let us see how far the paper-money men will carry their doctrines. If a thousand millions of irredeemable paper money will not do, let us have two thousand. If gold at 160 will not bring Congress to its senses, let us wait till it is 260. That it will go there, if the present policy of the Government be continued, there can be no manner of doubt. Meanwhile we most earnestly advise every one to beware of the future—to beware especially of the new national banks; not to hold their notes or to deposit money with them or to hold stock in them. And should Congress persevere in the policy which it has thus far pursued, it may well be questioned whether investments in U. S. securities can be safely recommended. No nation can preserve its credit if its finances are as grossly mismanaged as ours have been of late. If paper-money expansions and a reckless squandering of the public resources continue to be the rule, United States securities will fall heavily, and persons who have invested their means in them will be ruined. With good financial management at Washington, they are the best security in the world; but there is no property so good that it cannot be ruined by mismanagement.

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ON THE PARTICIPATION PLAN.

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37 WALL STREET, CORNER OF JAUNCEY COURT.

CONDITION OF THE COMPANY.

ABSTRACT OF THE ANNUAL REPORT OF DEC. 31, 1864.

TOTAL ASSETS		$414,729 18
Viz.—Bonds and Mortgages	$134,672 00	
Temporary Loans	92,630 00	
Real Estate	10,000 00	
100 Shares Mer. Ex. Bank	5,000 00	
Government Sec., value	144,514 00	
Cash on hand	18,042 34	
Interest due	3,085 58	
Premiums due	6,785 26	
PRESENT LIABILITIES	$15,995	
NET SURPLUS	198,733 26	

This Company will continue, as heretofore, to insure respectable parties against DISASTER BY FIRE

At fair and remunerating rates; extending, according to the terms on its Policies, the advantage of the

PARTICIPATION PLAN OF THE COMPANY,

pursued by it for several years past, with such great success and popularity, and profit to its customers: whereby

(75) SEVENTY-FIVE PER CENT. (75)

of the Profits, instead of being withdrawn from the Company in Dividends to Stockholders, is invested as a "SCRIP FUND," and held for greater protection of its Policyholders; and Scrip, bearing interest, is issued to Customers therefor: thus, IN THIS COMPANY, those who furnish the business, AND PAY THE PREMIUMS, derive the largest share of advantages; and when the accumulations of the SCRIP FUND shall exceed

FIVE HUNDRED THOUSAND DOLLARS,

the excess will be applied to PAY OFF the Scrip IN CASH in the order of its issue.

☞ The liberal and prompt adjustment of Claims for Loss, WHEN FAIR AND SQUARE, is a specialty with this Company.

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H. P. FREEMAN, Secretary.

ÆTNA INSURANCE COMPANY,

OF HARTFORD.

Capital, - - - - - - - - - $3,000,000

Incorporated in 1816.

LOSSES PAID IN 46 YEARS, ... $17,485,894 71

J. GOODNOW, Secretary. L. J. HENDEE, President.

Assets January 1, 1866, - - - - $4,067,455 80

Claims not due and unadjusted, ... 244,391 43

Persons desiring ample security against loss and damage by fire may obtain policies at fair rates.

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NEW AND IMPORTANT PLANS OF LIFE INSURANCE.

WHERE TO INSURE.

UNION MUTUAL LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY.

NEW YORK OFFICE, 151 BROADWAY.

ASSETS, over	$1,500,000
RECEIPTS for the year, over	700,000
DIVIDEND paid during the present fiscal year	69,160
TOTAL DIVIDENDS paid	419,000
TOTAL LOSSES paid	944,042

NEW FEATURES—NEW TABLES,

By which all Policies are NON-FORFEITING and ENDOWMENT, payable at about the same cost as ordinary Life and Ten-Payment Policies payable at death only. We call special attention to these Tables as exceedingly attractive and ORIGINAL with the UNION. In case payments are discontinued, after two premiums have been paid, the Company contract to pay, AT DEATH or the SPECIFIED AGE, an amount in proportion to the number of premiums paid.

The Percentage system of Dividends used by this Company affords greater protection to the family than any other plan, as in event of an early death the amount of policy paid is twice that paid by all cash Companies with the same cash outlay of premiums.

The greatest possible liberality in assisting parties to keep their Policies in force.

Liberality and promptitude in the settlement of claims.

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☞ Active and efficient AGENTS wanted. Apply as above.

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DIVIDEND, TWENTY PER CENT.

This Company ensures against MARINE and INLAND Navigation Risks on Cargo and Freight.

No Time Risks or Risks upon Hulls of Vessels are taken.

The Profits of the Company ascertained from January 10, 1855, to January 1, 1865, for which certificates were issued, amount to	$1,707,310	
Additional profits from January 1, 1865, to January 1, 1866	189,024	
Total profit for eleven years		$1,896,330
The certificates previous to 1863 have been redeemed in cash.		1,107,244

NEW YORK, Feb. 20, 1866.

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HAVE REMOVED TO THEIR NEW

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ASSETS	1,500,000 00

Insurance against Loss by Fire, Marine, Lake, Canal, and Inland Transportation.

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For the guidance of those who may feel disposed to assist us with their contributions, we may mention that the contents of THE NATION will fall nearly under four divisions—or that, at all events, these divisions would have to be kept in mind by anybody writing for it as a volunteer.

1. References to, and concise comments on, the news of the day, with the view of fixing the degree of its importance, and suggesting its bearings upon and relation to the main current of contemporary history.

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SECURELY INVESTED.

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It is STRICTLY MUTUAL, the policy holders receiving the entire profits.

Premiums received QUARTERLY, SEMI-ANNUALLY, or ANNUALLY, at the option of the assured. Policies issued in all the various forms of WHOLE LIFE, SHORT TERM, ENDOWMENT, ANNUITY, etc.

DIVIDENDS DECLARED ANNUALLY (for 1864 and 1865, each 50 per cent.)

The mortality among its members has been proportionately less than that of any other life insurance company in America—a result consequent on a most careful and judicious selection of lives, and one of great importance to policy-holders.

It offers to the assured the most abundant security in a large accumulated fund, amounting now to over

FIVE MILLIONS OF DOLLARS.

It accommodates its members in the settlement of their premiums, by granting, when desired, a credit at once on account of future dividends, thus furnishing insurance for nearly double the amount for about the same cash payment as is required in an "all cash company."

The annual income, exclusive of interest on investments, now exceeds

Two and a Half Million Dollars.

The following is a summary of the Company's business for the year 1865:

Number of Policies issued,	5,138
Insuring the sum of	$16,324,888
Received for Premiums and Interest,	$2,342,820 40
Losses, Expenses, and Dividends paid,	1,118,901 25
Balance in favor of Policy-Holders,	$1,223,919 15
Total Assets, January 1, 1865,	$4,881,919 70

THE NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE CO.

Originated and introduced the *New Feature*, known as

THE NON-FORFEITURE PLAN,

which is rapidly superseding the old system of life-long payments, and has revolutionized the system of Life Insurance in the United States. It has received the unqualified approval of the best business men in the land, large numbers of whom have taken out policies under it, purely as an investment.

A new schedule of rates has been adopted, under which the insurer may cease paying at any time without forfeiture of past payments; and at the

END OF TEN YEARS ALL PAYMENTS CEASE ENTIRELY,

and the policy thenceforward becomes a source of income to him. To secure this result the annual rate of insurance must, of course, be somewhat higher. But almost any person in active business would greatly prefer paying a higher rate for a limited time, and be done with it, to incurring a life-long obligation, however small.

By the table on which this class of policies is based, a person incurs no risk in taking out a policy. Insuring today for $5,000, if he dies to-morrow the $5,000 immediately becomes a claim; and if he lives ten years, and makes ten annual payments, his policy is paid up—nothing more to pay, and still his dividends *continue*, making

HIS LIFE POLICY

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The Nation.

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Topics of the Day.

THE cholera begins to figure in the weekly bills of mortality. For the week ending Saturday, the 16th instant, six deaths by that disease are reported. For the week ending Saturday, the 23d, the number will probably be greater. One new case is said to have occurred within the city on Monday, two on Tuesday, and on Wednesday there were four. There is no panic, however, and the butchers in particular are not dismayed by the worst prospect which may be before us. Having heard that the Board of Health had made up its mind to abate the slaughter-house nuisance, and make them ply their vocation away from the crowded quarters of New York and Brooklyn, they held a meeting to express their disgust at such an outrage, and to declare that they will not budge. There was no reason, one speaker asserted, why the slaughter-houses should be moved. The board appeared to think that "a butcher was not fit to live in a civilized community." But this butcher spoke a little bit too long, for by and by he enquired if the board thought the people of Harlem and other country places ought to be compelled to endure the slaughter-houses. He proposed that the board should banish all the butchers to a desolate island, and erect a monument in the middle of the butchers' settlement with this inscription upon it: "Here, by special permission of the Board of Health, live the butchers of New York, a proscribed race." To avert such a fate the assemblage voted to fight the board in the courts, and pledged themselves to raise $10,000 for that purpose.

THE bill establishing a Bureau of Education has passed the House, and it may or may not pass the Senate in these last days of the session. It is not contemplated to set up a central power which shall have any authority to supervise, or in any way interfere with, the local educational institutions of the States. It will be the business of the head of the department and his three clerks to collect statistics and disseminate information, with a view of showing and of encouraging the progress of education among the people of the United States. A report is to be made annually to Congress, and therefore we suppose the $9,400, which is to be expended in salaries, may be tolerably well earned.

IN the debate on the appropriation for the Paris Exhibition, on Wednesday, Mr. Banks did excellent service in opposing several foolish attempts to get rid of it. Mr. Washburn, for instance, wanted to add a proviso that the bill should not take effect until the French troops had been withdrawn from Mexico—a mode of punishing the French for their interference about on a par with Mr. Ancona's proposition to punish the British by repealing the neutrality laws for the benefit of the Fenians. As Mr. Banks very properly observed, a great country owes it to its own dignity to do things in a straightforward way. If we desire the French to leave Mexico we ought to say so, and if we are in earnest, ought to force them to leave it with the army and navy of the United States. The plan of bringing foreign enemies to reason by not sending goods to their exhibitions, or letting bands of brigands go over the border to harry them, is very like following an enemy in private life with a syringe, and squirting a little water on him now and then, which would be a very annoying process to the enemy, no doubt, but what should we think of the squirter? There are some men in Congress who never can see in international difficulties anything more imposing than a squabble at a corner grocery of a Western village.

THE tarifi bill as reported by the Senate Committee exhibits a pretty general tendency to lower taxes and raise salaries. The latter we consider as laudable, and almost as desirable as the former. The low rate at which United States officials are paid is one of the most potent causes of corruption and inefficiency, and nobody who is of much value for business purposes fails in this country to find his place at high wages in the business world; so that the Government is in the main apt to get for its subordinate officers only the dregs of the labor market. Even the dregs of the labor market, however, have to eat, drink, and be clothed, or if you underpay them, will filch, steal, or idle.

IF Judge Busteed, of Mobile, can get a grand jury of his own mind trials for treason need never fail in the United States Circuit Court for the Southern District of Alabama. In his charge at the opening of the session the judge defined treason, specified the sort of evidence required to prove it, and showed that, under the Constitution, words alone could not constitute the crime. But, he went on to say, if a man has committed treason once and obtained a pardon therefor, and taken the necessary oath, and then, like an ingrate, breaks his oath, he is remitted to his original state of guilt and is a malefactor deserving the punishment of treason, perjury, and ingratitude. And does a man, the judge asks, keep his oath to faithfully support the Constitution of the United States, and the Union of the States thereunder, whose every word concerning either is one of abuse and detraction? The grand jury are requested to take notice of the speech of these oath-takers, and to remember their own oaths. These are good sentiments, but we rather doubt its being good law, and certainly it will not be in force during the present sitting of the grand jury in Mobile.

THERE is considerable calm amongst the Fenians, and it is said a new plan of operations has been drawn up, in which secrecy is to play a prominent part. The enemy and the police are not to know everything in future. This is not by any means a bad idea, but we doubt very much whether, if carried out, it will not cause a considerable falling off in the receipts. Under the old plan the contributors saw, in

the hubbub and publicity, some return for their money; but if the dollars were to glide away and nothing were to be seen of them or their results, until at some remote and undetermined day the Fenian thwacks were to be heard on the ribs of the British lion, we fear the enthusiasm would flag. There is much hope entertained of the action of Congress, but we doubt if there will be any better comfort derived from this quarter than may be found in Mr. Banks's report, which will probably be very able and wordy, and leave everything just where it found it.

In Linn County, Iowa, on the 10th of April last, nine persons out of a family of ten were suddenly attacked by a new and singular disease. The symptoms at first were violent and gradually assumed a milder form, but they were such as to puzzle the family physician. As the disease bore a general resemblance to typhoid fever, the treatment applied to the patients was the treatment suitable for that disease. At the end of twenty days two doctors were called in to consult with the doctor in charge, and it was decided that the family had eaten trichinous meat. Not long afterwards three of the patients died, and a *post mortem* examination was made. Trichinæ were discovered. Portions of the muscular tissue were sent to many surgeons and scientific men, who are said to have confirmed the conclusions of the local doctors, and to have stated that the average number of worms found in the various pieces of flesh submitted to them was two hundred thousand to the cubic inch. Three more of the unfortunate family have since died, and it is well ascertained that they had all eaten of diseased pork—ham which had not been cooked at all. This seems to be about the first perfectly authenticated case of trichiniasis which has occurred in this country.

The only decisive news concerning the European war is, that Prussia, true to her whole line of behavior hitherto, has taken the first step towards a collision. On the 8th her troops crossed over into Holstein and occupied Rendsburg, the Austrian commander evacuating peaceably but under protest, and retiring as far as he conveniently could without leaving the territory altogether—that is, to Altona. The Prussian general, Manteuffel, announced the abrogation of the treaty of Gastein, owing to Austria's failure to keep her part of it. His advance purports to be only a return to the *status quo*, or a joint occupation of the duchies, and in pure defence of the rights of his sovereign. Bismark has sent a bitter and sufficiently contemptuous circular to the Prussian representatives abroad, in which he accuses Austria of making war "to tide over domestic difficulties," and to assist her finances "by Prussian contributions or by honorable bankruptcy." Gen. Benedek, remembering, perhaps, the experience of this country in the late war, has announced his resolution "in no way to tolerate, either at headquarters or with other commanders or corps, paid or unpaid newspaper correspondents, either civil or military," unless when authorized by the Government.

The Emperor of Austria and the King of Prussia have both signified their intention of respecting private property at sea in the coming war. As neither of them possesses navy enough to do anybody much harm, the sacrifice is not as great as it seems, but it is, nevertheless, unquestionably an indication, and a valuable one, of the advance of civilization. There is nothing, even in the absurdity of war, more absurd than the practice of destroying the ships of private persons, by way of bringing the government to terms. It has never had any such effect. Ship-owners are, even in maratime countries, a small class; the mass of the community are very little affected by their troubles; as was shown in our own war, and the most important result of what is called "the destruction of an enemy's commerce," is the transfer of the carrying trade to some other power. There is sometimes a touch of the comic lent to the matter by the indignation of those whose property is all on shore, when ship-owners show too great a reluctance to have their vessels burned. Congress treated those amongst American ship-owners who made transfers of their ships to a foreign flag, to escape Semmes, as if they were little better than traitors.

CONGRESS.

WASHINGTON, June 20, 1866.

The bill of the Select Committee on a National Bureau of Education has at length got through the House by an unexpectedly large majority. Its defeat on the first trial was owing more to the absence of many of its friends than to any other cause, though it may be said that the spokesmen in its favor failed to show any close relation between their professed objects and the means proposed in this special measure. How much a "central directory" of educational statistics, consisting simply of a commissioner and three clerks, with no specific powers conferred upon them, will accomplish toward a uniform national or liberal system of education will remain to be seen, provided the Senate and the President lend their sanction to the measure.

The new army bill reported in the House will probably pass, though it is actively antagonized with that which has already passed the Senate. It is noticeable in this army organization business, as in some other departments of affairs, that men are pragmatical in the inverse ratio of the importance of the differences which divide them.

DIARY.

Monday, June 18.—In the Senate, the internal revenue tax bill which passed the House was reported with amendments. The bill to regulate the occupation of mineral lands was discussed and amended.

In the House, a joint resolution to pay the State of Vermont her expenses in defending the frontier against rebel invasion from Canada in 1864 was passed. Mr. Stevens offered a joint resolution proposing a constitutional amendment to empower Congress to lay an export duty upon cotton. Rejected—yeas, 59; nays, 61. A concurrent resolution requesting the President to transmit forthwith to the executives of the States the constitutional amendment lately proposed by two-thirds of both Houses of Congress was passed—yeas, 92; nays, 25. Mr. Raymond made a speech on reconstruction.

June 19.—In the Senate, the bill granting lands to aid in constructing a railroad from Salt Lake City to Columbia River was passed. The army appropriation bill was amended by the addition of about $7,000,000 for the support of the Freedmen's Bureau for the coming fiscal year, and passed. The bill amendatory of the Pacific Railroad act of July 2, 1864, was passed—yeas, 20; nays, 12. House bill to pay Vermont's expenditures in protecting her frontier in 1864 was passed.

In the House, the bill to establish a national bureau of education came up on a motion to reconsider its rejection last week by the House, and the bill was passed—yeas, 80; nays, 44. The new bill to reorganize and establish the army of the United States was discussed and amended.

THE FREEDMEN.

The Baltimore Association for the Moral and Educational Improvement of the Colored People is, so far as we know, the only organization of the kind among the white citizens of the lately slaveholding States. But for its untiring exertions, the indifference or prejudice of the authorities and the public would have kept the colored people of Maryland in the mental darkness in which slavery had left them. The association, as we learn from its report for the month ending June 19, now sustains 70 schools, with an average attendance of 5,645 pupils and 76 teachers. These are established in every county in the State but three, and there is a steady demand for more. Some idea may be gained of the interest manifested by pupils and parents, and of the devotedness of the teachers, when it is known that the term of schooling occupies nine months of the year, while in Maine, which has about the same population, the school term averages only 5·7 months, or in Pennsylvania, which has about the same density of population, only 5·8 months, and in Massachusetts, even, but 7·8 months. Those who desire to aid the association to continue its beneficent work till the State shall have been shamed into assuming its proper charge, may send their welcome donations to Jesse Tyson, treasurer. Some unscrupulous persons have been soliciting contributions in the New England States for this association, both without its authority and beyond the legitimate sphere of its agencies.

—From a report of Supt. Eberhart's, it appears that there are now in operation in Georgia 73 schools for freedmen, which are presided over by 107 teachers and contain 7,162 scholars. There is still an occasional display of hostility to the education of negroes, as in Griffin, where three school-houses one after another have been burned, or as in Americus and Elberton. On the other hand, in Augusta the judge of the police court recently imposed a fine of $50 on a boy convicted of disturbing one of the schools, and only two of the city papers opposed themselves to the sentence.

Notes.

LITERARY.

It would be well for the authorized publishers of the Episcopal Church to get out an edition of "The Prayer-Book Interleaved," adapted to the ritual in use in this country. In this book the Rev. W. M. Campion, B.D., and the Rev. W. J. Beamont, M.A., have collected all the data with regard to the origin and history of all parts of the service, so as to make it a complete hand-book of the ritualistic history of the English Church. We find out the authorship, so far as it can be ascertained, of all the prayers and litanies, the origin of all the festivals and fasts, and we are given sketches of the lives of all the saints commemorated by the Church. In addition to this there are continual references to the service-books of the Greek and Roman Churches, and a digest of all the acts of uniformity. It is a very convenient little book, though if it were in general use we fear the eye would too often, during the service, wander to the opposite page.

—Lord Macaulay, in the introduction to his history, said that when the first Briton became known to the Tyrian mariner he was little superior to the native of the Sandwich Islands. Antiquarians have taken up this statement, and have labored zealously to pour all kinds of contempt on their poor ancestors, declaiming vigorously that prior to the Roman conquest there was no kind of civilization in Britain, and that the Romans were the regenerators of the country. Losing sight of, or explaining away, all the early remains, such as Stonehenge and Caer-Craddock, they placed the Britons in the so-called "Stone-age." But a defender has at last risen for the much-maligned Celts, in the person of Mr. W. Walker Wilkins, who, in two numbers of the *Fortnightly Review* shows with much plausibility that they were much more civilized than is commonly supposed. The fact that most of the tin used by the Mediterranean countries came from Cornwall, shows not only that there was commerce, but that the "savages" must have had metallic instruments for mining, and were acquainted with the processes of smelting. Besides this we have, among the rare Briton remains found in barrows, remnants of chariots, with iron wheel-tires and buckles. The testimony of Cæsar is explicit as to the fact of their well-disciplined armies possessing thousands of war-chariots, and Cæsar's ill-success would go to prove somewhat as to the value of their social organization. Besides their war-chariots they had many other kinds of wheeled vehicles, some of which were so convenient that they came into general use in Italy. The abundance of chariots proves the existence of good roads. The ruins of the early fortifications of the Celts are scattered throughout Great Britain. Fortresses, strongly built of earth and masonry, in certain districts of Gloucestershire and Lincolnshire crown every hill-top. Stonehenge and Abury, with their gigantic monuments, built of roughly-dressed granite that must have been brought at least a hundred miles, are evidences of great mechanical and engineering skill. The culture and wisdom that Cæsar found among the Druids could hardly have existed among a people not yet emerged from low barbarism. Indeed the Romans learned something from the Britons. They found in Britain water-mills, which soon after Cæsar's return were introduced into Italy. They learned to dam rivers, to make weirs, and to use the shuttle and the blow-pipe. They might also have learned the properties of coal, which the Britons used to reduce their metallic ores. Remains of iron are indeed rare, as rust has long since destroyed most of them; but there have been found vases, armor, articles of the toilet, and countless relics which will substantiate the case which Mr. Wilkins has so well stated.

—Probably most of those who are interested in the higher school education of this country have read Mr. Atkinson's volume on the English public schools, and some few, perhaps, have seen the recommendations of the Royal Commissioners who lately investigated them. If any desire to know the exact present state of the larger endowed schools of England, and how far the recommendations of the Royal Commissioners have been adopted, they would do well to consult "The Public Schools Calendar for 1866." This calendar contains far more than an ordinary college catalogue of the details of life and instruction at the schools, and is full of instructive and entertaining matter relating not only to the nine great schools—Winchester, Eton, St. Paul's, Shrewsbury, Westminster, Merchant Taylors', Rugby, Harrow, and Charterhouse—but to the old endowed grammar schools, those of modern foundation, and the royal military academies at Woolwich and Sandhurst. The large public schools are principally supported by their revenues from lands and stocks. Eton, which is the richest, has a yearly income of about $100,000, beside a large fund in special trust for scholarships and exhibitions; Winchester has about $80,000 a year, as well as a large fund in special trust; Rugby has an income of less than $30,000; and Charterhouse about $40,000. Winchester is the oldest school, having been founded in 1387 by William of Wykeham, Bishop of Winchester; Eton comes next, with its charter bearing date 1441; St. Paul's was founded in 1512; Shrewsbury in 1512, Charterhouse in 1607, and the remainder between 1560 and 1571. One noticeable fact is that beside the classical and mathematical drilling which the boys receive—fully equal in quantity and quality to the teaching of our best colleges—athletic exercises seem a part of the regular course. Not that they are taught by the masters, but they are looked on with approbation by them; and on certain occasions all the schools are required to be present at them, excuses being only obtainable from one of the masters.

—It is currently reported that M. Gustave Doré has finished the designs for an edition of Tennyson's "Idyls of the King," which was translated into French prose for his use. Whether this be so or not, he is actively at work at an illustrated edition of La Fontaine's "Fables," and goes frequently to the Jardin des Plantes to study the habits and postures of some of the animals he has to draw. It is being published in parts at the price, in Paris, of half a franc per part. Some of the illustrations which have been published are almost if not quite equal to those of Kaulbach in his edition of "Reineke Fuchs." In the same manner is being issued "Le Capitaine Fracasse," the amusing story of Théophile Gautier, with wood-cuts designed by Doré. Specimens of both can be seen at Messrs. Mohun & Ebbs's, No. 546 Broadway.

—There is a rage for cheap publications of all kinds at Paris now. Grammars, dictionaries, histories, novels, and poems are being published in daily or weekly issues at two sous each, and are distributed throughout France by the agents of the *Moniteur du Soir*. This paper was started by the Government, who wanted to get some hold on the reading public, and who therefore devised the network of agencies which includes every petty village in France. Several other cheap papers have been started, as they find a ready market. One of them, *Le Soleil*, after a vain endeavor to obtain from Victor Hugo the right to the first publication of "Les Travailleurs de la Mer," bought from Lacroix & Co., the publishers, the right to print it in the paper. One of its rivals, *L'Evénement*, not wishing to be outdone, entered into arrangements with Lacroix & Co. to supply all of their six months' subscribers with the whole work for nothing. Upon this the proprietors of *Le Soleil* offer their three months' subscribers the illustrated edition of "Les Misérables," and are also publishing "Le Mangeur de Fer," a play which is now the sensation of Paris, so that *L'Evénement* is obliged to confess itself beaten. The subscription to *Le Soleil* for three months is only nine francs.

—The greatest historical discovery of this century—the discovery of the laws which regulated the Indo-European languages and their relations to each other and the parent stock—is due to Francis Bopp. With justice may he be called, as M. Renan styles him, the Lavoisier of language. Through him philology has become as exact a science as chemistry. The complete statement of Bopp's method appeared at Frankfort on the 16th of May, 1816. On the fiftieth anniversary of the day it was the intention of the learned of Germany to celebrate the event by the foundation of a perpetual fund, to be known as the "Bopp Fund," and consecrated to the progress of comparative philology. Bopp's "Comparative Grammar of the Indo-European Languages" appeared from 1845 to 1853. In 1857 the publication of a second revised edition was commenced. This edition M. Michel Bréal, the professor of comparative grammar in the College of France, has translated into French, the first volume of which has just been published. It is preceded by a learned and interesting introduction, in which the translator reviews the progress and history of comparative philology from its origin to the present time. The text of Bopp is classic, and M. Bréal has considered it his duty to give a mere translation, without any effort to group about the text the results of later studies, especially those which fill the precious journal of Kuhn and Aufrecht, which would have swelled the work to double its size. The notes are, therefore, few, but they make the reader regret that there could not be more from the author of the profound and interesting studies on the myths of Œdipus and Cacus, and on the relations between the Indian and Persian religions.

—A book has been recently published by Mr. James Hutchinson, of the Cape of Good Hope, which aims to prove that Homer had "the great poem of Vulmiki, the 'Rámáyana,' in his eye" when he wrote the "Iliad," and that "Homer was himself a Hindu; that is, he worshipped the same deities as the Hindus, and professed the same religion, there being at that time but one common idolatry prevalent in that portion of the world." He points out similarities in the plots of the "Iliad" and the "Rámáyana," and compares the rape of Helen to that of Sitá, and thinks the capture of Troy the

same as that of Lanka. It is very possible that Mr. Hutchinson has got hold of some ideas that, properly treated, may be worth something for comparative mythology.

SCIENTIFIC.

Egg-hatching in Egypt.—It is noteworthy that the system of hatching eggs by artificial heat, to which attention has repeatedly been called by travellers in the East, is practised in the Egyptian villages to-day apparently in precisely the same way as at any time in the last thousand years. Herr Enth, a German engineer in the Egyptian service, has recently published an interesting account of the system, for the details of which we must refer the curious reader to vol. clxxviii. of "Dingler's Polytechnisches Journal;" where will also be found working drawings of the furnaces employed.

The egg-hatching establishments are not common in Egypt. Upon the Delta there may be, perhaps, one for every twenty square miles of territory. The buildings are in themselves inconspicuous, though the uniformity of size and shape which they exhibit is astonishing. It would seem as if all of them had been built after a single model. This uniformity is the more remarkable in view of the fact that the modern Egyptians are in nowise characterized by either pedantry or precision. The furnaces for egg-hatching are usually situated in the midst of a village, and as they are built, externally, in the same style as the dwellings of the peasantry, they can hardly be distinguished from the huts which surround them. Moreover, they are in use only during a short period in each year, whence it has happened that, of late years, many travellers have altogether overlooked them. To the same cause, no doubt, should be referred the erroneous statement, not unfrequently made, that the old system of egg-hatching is now obsolete and forgotten. According to Herr Enth, this statement is altogether untrue, a very large proportion of the animal food consumed by the Egyptians being in reality poultry which has been hatched by artificial means.

Each establishment comprises from four to ten or twelve ovens, constructed of sun-dried bricks and the stems of palm-trees. These ovens are arranged upon the two sides of a central hall or gallery, some six or seven feet high by five feet broad. The gallery is arched above, and is provided on top with three or four small apertures for the admission of light and air. The length of the gallery is determined by the number of the ovens. At the front of the gallery is a doorway, two and a half feet high, which is kept closed with a wooden door. The building is usually so situated that the visitor is compelled to creep through several apartments of a dwelling-house in order to arrive at the opening of the gallery.

The position of each of the ovens is indicated by a couple of openings, of a foot and a half square, upon the side walls of the gallery. These holes are situated one above the other, and permit access to the interior of the oven. At one side of them is a niche, in which an oil lamp is placed when the incubation is in progress. Each of the ovens consists of a square vaulted space, about nine feet in length, breadth, and height. At a height of about two and a half feet from the floor, the trunks of four palm-trees are laid across from one side to the other of the oven, and these are covered with a bed of loam, in such manner that the oven is divided into an upper and a lower story. Communication between the two stories is kept up by means of a square hole, a foot or more wide, in the middle of the bed of earth; and in the vaulted roof, directly above this square opening, is a round hole a foot in diameter. The lower floor of the oven is left perfectly flat; but upon the floor of the upper story a shallow, pan-like concavity, a foot or more in width, is formed by constructing two low dams, or bands, of earth, running across the oven parallel to the length of the central gallery. The shallow depression thus formed is used as a fireplace, as will appear below.

Operations commence about the middle of January. A quantity of chopped wheaten straw, such as is commonly used as fodder for cattle and camels, in the condition in which it is left by the threshing-machines of the country, is scattered about the four walls in the lower story of the oven to the depth of a foot. The hole in the roof and the two lateral orifices of the oven are then closed, the straw is set on fire, and the draught of air so regulated by opening or closing the upper orifice that the straw shall slowly burn, or rather glimmer, away at such rate that in the course of twenty days it shall be completely consumed. Eggs are now placed in the extinguished ashes of the lower story, each oven receiving from four to six thousand of them. At this stage of the proceedings a peasant takes up his residence in the central gallery, the door of which is shut behind him and kept closed for a fortnight. Communication with the outside world is meanwhile kept up solely through the small holes at the top of the gallery. Through these orifices the man's food is passed in from time to time. Within the establishment, and accessible from the central gallery, is a magazine filled with straw, and the chief business of the superintendent or master of ceremonies consists in maintaining small smouldering fires of straw in the pan-like cavities in the earth upon the floor of the second story of each of the ovens. It should be mentioned in passing that the interior of the whole establishment is brought to a very equable temperature by the fires in the lower story before any eggs have been placed in it. The fires in the upper story are kept up for twelve days, during which time the openings between the two stories of the ovens and the central gallery are left open, and the aperture in the roof of the second story is kept partially closed. At the expiration of twelve days all the fires are put out, the eggs are transferred from the lower to the upper story, and all the openings of the ovens are closed and kept shut during five days. At the end of this time, upon opening the door of the upper story, the chickens are found hatched out and viable. When all the circumstances are favorable, 4,000 or more chickens are obtained from 6,000 eggs, while only about half the eggs are hatched when the conditions are unfavorable. Herr Enth has not as yet been able to satisfy his curiosity as to the degree of heat which is maintained within the ovens during the latter part of the process, since he could never induce a proprietor of one of the establishments to open its door while the process was in train. He is of opinion, however, that the temperature may vary through a very considerable range without influencing to any appreciable extent the result of the operation. Indeed, this may safely be taken for granted in view of the well-known indolence and carelessness of the Egyptian peasantry. The ovens are used but once a year, in February, at the time when the price of eggs in Egypt is at its lowest.

Improved Method of Preparing Jerked Beef.—A letter from M. Vavasseur to the secretary of the French Academy gives some details of improvements in preserving beef which have recently been put in practice in Uruguay. It is stated by M. Vavasseur that although numerous attempts have been made during the past ten or twelve years to introduce into the cattle-raising districts of South America the modern European methods of preserving flesh, none of these foreign processes have ever led to successful results. This failure will not, however, be found surprising, when the social condition of these countries is taken into consideration. But the process now in question, whatever its intrinsic value may be, has at least the merit of being indigenous, and of being a natural improvement upon processes which have been proved by long experience to be well adapted to local conditions and requirements. It may possibly turn out to be the first step in a series of improvements which shall eventually throw into the markets of the world the supplies of cheap meat now so much needed and upon every account so much to be desired.

The new process, which is in the hands of Messrs. Cybils & Jackson, wealthy citizens of Uruguay, is conducted as follows: The carcass of the slaughtered animal is drained of blood with the most scrupulous care, and is then skinned and quartered. The flesh, while still palpitating, is quickly cut into long strips, two or three inches in thickness and as wide as possible. The strips of flesh are now sprinkled with fine Cadiz salt and piled up on a table to a considerable height, a small quantity of salt being scattered upon each layer of the flesh. When the pile has become large enough it is left to itself for about twenty hours, then taken down and rebuilt upon another table, in such manner that the uppermost pieces of flesh of the first pile shall be at the bottom of the second. After the second pile has stood during twelve or fifteen hours it is taken down and the strips of flesh are stacked away in such manner that they shall be freely exposed to the air; but from sun and rain they are protected by a covering of tarpaulin. In these stacks the dry meat is left during several months or until sought for by purchasers. Up to this point the process is essentially the same as that employed in making the preparation called *tasajo*—which has long been exported from Uruguay to Cuba and Brazil for the use of plantation negroes—excepting that more attention is now paid to cleanliness and the selection of the pieces of meat. It is only at the moment that the meat is to be delivered to the purchaser that the new process is applied. This consists simply in subjecting the dry, salted flesh to very powerful pressure. After having been thus compacted together the meat can be kept for an indefinite length of time without detriment. Of course the dry meat is very much reduced in bulk by the pressure, and can be very cheaply transported. The masses of compressed meat are of rectangular form, about two feet long by a foot in width and thickness, and their weight is about a hundred Spanish pounds. As sent into commerce they are covered with thick close cloth, carefully sewed.

Before being used, the compressed meat must be soaked in fresh water for twelve hours. It gradually absorbs the water, softens, swells up, and acquires the appearance of fresh meat. M. Vavasseur finds it preferable to

beef salted in the usual way, and makes no question as to its being a very valuable aliment.

This preparation is probably identical with the "South American beef" which excited much comment in the English journals a few months since. But, as imported into London and Liverpool, this meat was found to be of very variable quality, much of it being unfit for consumption. If we remember aright, the verdict of the public was at that time decidedly adverse, although it was admitted by most that many samples of the dried beef were excellent. It is still to be hoped, however, now that the simplicity of the process has been made apparent, that in the course of time the manufacture may be conducted with such method and neatness as to yield, even in native hands, no questionable products.

LOSSING'S HISTORY OF THE CIVIL WAR.*

A FACILE writer, of large experience in his peculiar walk, and aiming not merely to record facts, but to illustrate, by ample quotations and references, the conditions of thought and feeling to which these facts owe their origin, Mr. Lossing has not failed in this first volume of his history of the civil war to produce an eminently readable book. For that circumstance he is much indebted to his theme, the interest of which has not perceptibly diminished since the smoke of the contest first rose and revealed to the nation the victory it had won, and also the grievous losses it had sustained. But while dozens of histories, covering the same epoch, will live their brief hour and be absolutely forgotten, the one before us possesses substantial claims to remembrance in the lively pictures it presents, both with pen and pencil, of the actors in our great drama of civil war, and particularly of those who were instrumental in raising the standard of rebellion. Mr. Lossing has for the most part permitted the latter to tell their own story, drawing liberally for that purpose upon newspapers, speeches, letters, and every available source of authentic information, and thus preserving, in a permanent and readable form, many fugitive scraps of historical material which might otherwise be forgotten, and which are important in tracing the connection between motives and acts. If to us of the loyal States, after the lapse of only five or six years, it seems almost incredible that sensible men, and brave men, as they also proved themselves, could have given utterance to such intolerable nonsense and bombast and have cherished so many delusions as did the rebel leaders in 1860–61, how much more astounding must it appear to the generations coming after us; and how necessary it becomes that the latter should know the peculiar circumstances under which the rebellion was ushered in. The transport, amounting almost to delirium, which possessed the instigators of the movement in the early days of secession—while the belief in a Southern Confederacy was unclouded by any apprehension of resistance by the North—finds its only counterpart in the farcical acts of the Fenians of to-day, on whose "centres"—head and otherwise the mantles of the Yanceys, Rhetts, Toombses, and Hammonds seem to have descended.

It has been so customary to reproach the North with short-sightedness in not comprehending the earnest purpose of the Southern conspirators, that the mistake of the latter in ignoring the energy and strength of their adversary—a mistake, by the way, under which some half-rehabilitated rebels still labor—has never, perhaps, been sufficiently noticed. And yet one can scarcely open a Southern paper, or read the speech of a full-blown secessionist of that chaotic period which preceded the outbreak of hostilities, without finding passages far exceeding, in overweening self-confidence, the utterances of the Northern press or of Northern men. Thus, the Charleston *Courier* of Feb. 12, 1861, quoted by Mr. Lossing, discourses in the following strain of the anticipated grandeur of the newly-born "Confederacy:" "The South *might*, under the new Confederacy, treat the disorganized and demoralized Northern States as *insurgents*, and deny them recognition. But if peaceful division ensues, the South, *after taking the Federal capital and archives*, and being recognized by all foreign powers as the Government *de facto*, can, if they see proper, recognize the Northern Confederacy or Confederacies, and enter into treaty stipulations with them. Were this not done, it would be difficult for the Northern States to take a place among nations, and their flag would not be respected or recognized." This language, compared with which Mr. Seward's celebrated vaticination, that the rebellion would prove but a ninety days affair, seems tame indeed, proceeded from men who were neither lunatics nor impostors. It was written with deliberation, and expressed the firm conviction of the great mass of the Southern people; and the reader will find its parallel on many pages of the book before us. It might suit the purpose of Davis or Slidell or Benjamin, who knew something of the spirit and capacity of the North—and how little, after all, was that something—to indulge in such outbursts to "fire the Southern heart;" but the Charleston and Richmond editors were terribly in earnest in what they wrote, and their readers were not less earnest in believing what they read. Thus delusion and imposture worked hand in hand until the exultant Southerner saw in fancy the North prostrate at his feet, and an empire, whose corner-stone was to rest upon "the great truth, that the negro is not equal to the white man," stretching in almost limitless grandeur before him. Although this illusion was soon partially dispelled, there can be little doubt that the stubborn resistance of the South during the whole war was in no slight degree induced by a belief in their own intellectual and physical superiority, and an ignorance or disdain of the power of the North, acquired in the preliminary stages of the rebellion. In view of this fact, each boastful paragraph of a newspaper writer, each bit of insolent bravado uttered in the legislative chamber or from the stump, has its special significance. The retrospect is too sad to permit us to regard these utterances with the derision they once provoked. Rather let us assign them to the keeping of the historian, to whom they now rightly belong, and whose narrative would be incomplete without frequent reference to them. Of this latter fact Mr. Lossing is fully cognizant, and in no history of the war which has yet appeared do we remember to have seen the infatuation under which the Southern people rushed into rebellion more clearly or copiously set forth than in his pages. This constitutes the chief merit of the work, which will compare favorably with the author's well-known "Field-Book of the Revolution."

The "Pictorial History" commences with the nomination of candidates for the presidency in 1860, and carries the narrative down to the termination of the battle of Bull Run. Written in a popular style, and in the main complete and accurate, it reflects too fully the earnest Union feeling of the author to be classed among the works which will hereafter be universally referred to for information concerning the war. Mr. Lossing is a good hater, and scruples not to call things by their right names, when probably the reader would infer as much from the context. Hence the admirers of Jefferson Davis and Alexander H. Stephens will not perhaps relish his undisguised contempt for the hypocrisy of the one or the vacillation and time-serving of the other. Hence timid and moderate men who do not believe in "coercing a State," and who deprecate the "tyranny of the North," or at least think there was "fault on both sides," will call the book partial and one-sided. With the loyal American reader who witnessed the outbreak and the quelling of the rebellion, such objections will have little weight; but to those who cannot appreciate our hatred of the secession idea, and who desire a dispassionate narrative of the war, the coloring which Mr. Lossing has imparted to his history will naturally seem to impair its trustworthiness. It may be doubted whether within the present century the latter class of readers will encounter a history of the rebellion emanating from this country which shall be wholly above suspicion of partisan bias. Such a history of the American Revolution has not yet been written.

Mr. Lossing describes, with considerable animation and at, perhaps, unnecessary length, such opening scenes in the great drama as the bombardment of Fort Sumter and the battle of Bull Run. Remote, comparatively, as these events now seem in point of time, and trivial in comparison with sieges and battles of after occurrence, they possess a moral significance as the occasions of the first popular uprising in the North and the first great national humiliation, which renders excusable some fullness of detail. Among the anecdotes related by the author in connection with the surrender of Sumter is the familiar one of the notorious Pryor, who, at a conference of Union and rebel officers within the fort, is said to have swallowed a glass of poison lying on the table before him, under the impression that it was whiskey, and to have been obliged, in consequence, to take a strong emetic immediately afterward. The incident, except as an illustration of ill-breeding on the part of one of the chivalry, is not worth recording, even if true, in a serious history, and has generally been considered as belonging to the humorous, apochryphal literature of the war. Has Mr. Lossing any means of authenticating the story? We have understood, on the best authority, that Pryor was not in the fort at any time previous or subsequent to the surrender. The majority of readers will probably not accept the author's conclusion that Gen. Patterson, in failing to prevent Johnston from forming a junction with Beauregard in time to decide the battle of Bull Run, "seems to have done all that it was possible for a prudent and obedient soldier to do under the circumstances." There is now abundant evidence that Johnston, instead of having "fully thirty thousand troops," was in greatly inferior force to Patterson; and the demonstrations made by the latter for the purpose of occupying the attention of the rebel general were, by Patterson's own showing, of so feeble a character that Johnston was not for a moment deceived by them, but moved off in perfect security to Manas

* "Pictorial History of the Civil War in the United States of America." Vol. I. By Benson J. Lossing. Philadelphia: George W. Childs. 1866.

sas. If public opinion is fixed on any one matter connected with the military operations of the war, it is with reference to the inefficiency of Gen. Patterson as commanding officer on the Upper Potomac in the summer of 1861.

The pictorial illustrations are numerous and of unequal merit. Those representing remarkable places and events, though prepared with care, are generally on too small a scale, and consequently too stiff and cramped in the drawing to convey a correct idea of their actual appearance. Most of the likenesses of prominent men are easily recognizable. Some are positively bad; and, as a general rule, all the illustrations seem hastily and carelessly printed. This, however, is in many cases quite as much the fault of the engraver as of the printer. In his eagerness to depict whatever was noticeable in connection with the war, the author has in too many instances selected unimportant places or trivial objects. Such illustrations as that representing the costumes worn at the inauguration ball at Washington in March, 1861, will not be esteemed of much value by posterity. The ladies certainly should protest against it.

CRAVEN'S DAVIS.*

THE fact that there are two sides to a question has just penetrated the astonished brain of Dr. Craven. Perhaps hereafter, when he has got well over the effect of the novel sensation, he may go a little further, and see that it is not impossible for the human mind to take a view of both sides at once, that it is not of necessity driven to discard one utterly because it has caught sight of a second, that blindly hating the one and cleaving to the other is not the sole substitute for a previous blind hating of the other and cleaving to the one. To hate neither, and give each due weight, is a stage of development to which, though it seems a long way ahead of him at present, Dr. Craven may yet attain.

In 1864, a rebel was to him a rebel, a sanguinary enemy of the Government, wilfully, hopelessly wicked. Hanging might be too good for him, but could scarcely be too bad. In 1866, a rebel is a Confederate; it turns out that he really has something to say for himself. Strange as it may seem to the ill-informed, prejudiced, bloody minded American people, which has not been the medical attendant of Prisoner Davis, and has had no opportunity to know anything about his past and present works and wishes, Dr. Craven has discovered that many of these rebels actually thought they were in the right, that they were conscientious secessionists resisting oppression, State-rights Democrats with a regular set of doctrines. How idle and wicked it must therefore be to talk of punishing them! Treason is one thing—a bad thing, of course; but treason with gentlemanly manners and reasons in its mouth is a thing so very different that Dr. Craven, who apparently had not conceived it possible, can make nothing of it. The easy task of confusing his physician must have been a pleasant and refreshing relaxation for Mr. Davis in his enfeebled condition, when bodily exercise was too fatiguing and mental labor was harassing. The doctor had always been an opponent of slavery too, he says, and from his youth up had acted with the Republican party. That may have had much to do with his discomfiture; we are not the more inclined to trust him on that account. We all know what becomes of the child of Christian parents whose mind is a little inactive, who has gone to Sunday-school without arguing or asking why, and to church and knew not wherefore, and been a believer all his life without being able to give any reason for the faith which is in him. Some hardened infidel comes along, and with a word the unpractised controversialist's faith is toppled over; he weakly succumbs to Tom Paine as if Bampton lecturers were not.

Dr. Craven, who on a day in the summer of 1864 gets down from his saddle in a Virginia road, and, walking up to a wounded man, takes a look at him, hoping that it may be a Southerner who is suffering, in the summer of 1866 is a surgeon at Fortress Monroe, and has Jefferson Davis placed in his charge. All his patriotic hatred, we are glad to say, is very quick in oozing out of him. It is not wonderful. His patient was a person whose condition, if it appealed to a soft heart, appealed also to a soft head. He was a sick man who needed careful attention; he was a fallen man, who felt his fall most acutely; his life was thought to be threatened by his enemies. Then, too, he might easily have been mistaken for a hero. Before 1861 he had been great with that greatness which is based upon the *Congressional Globe*, and since 1861 he had been, if not the head, at least the figure-head of a bloody rebellion. We forgive Dr. Craven for being overpowered by a man whose name had been in all the newspapers. But he might have pleaded for his patient without bringing dishonoring charges against his Government. He might have dedicated his book to Secretary McCulloch without accusing everybody else of a lack of wisdom, magnanimity, courage, and sympathy with misfortune. He might have approved his own Christian charity without wilfully shutting his eyes to the fact that his countrymen are no more barbarous than himself. Since the middle of May, 1865, since the first month after Lincoln's murder, how many of his fellow-countrymen and fellow-countrywomen does Dr. Craven pretend to believe merciless, infuriate, thirsting for Davis's blood? How many before that time demanded it except as the blood of a man who was proclaimed guilty of murder, who was believed capable of assassination because he had never rebuked Quantrell nor Forrest, and had shut his eyes and stopped his ears while Wirz and Winder were earning the ignominious death which one of them afterwards suffered?

As we read the story of Davis's prison life this consideration should be borne in mind, that for weeks after his capture he was looked upon not as a political prisoner merely, not as a prisoner of war, but as a man solemnly accused by the highest authority in the land—by the President and his Cabinet—of participation in secret murder. The public mind, new to conspiracies, was wild with rumors of plots to rescue Davis, and heated with all it was hearing of the plots which had just been so successful. And it was firmly believed that, whether or not Davis knew for what purpose Booth was hired by Confederate agents and paid by Confederate agents, he had at any rate been accessory to murders by the hundred and the thousand at Andersonville. Remembering this as a part of the history of that time, let us look at Dr. Craven's story. It opens with the 22d of May, when the prisoner was transferred from the steamer to the fort, and shut up in his casemate. On the 23d of May occurred the scene of the shackling—the event most to be regretted of any which has befallen the prisoner since his incarceration. Dr. Craven was not an eye-witness of it, but he probably had his information from Captain Titlow, under whose supervision it was done, and doubtless the account is quite correct. His narrative contains no hint of the reasons which may have caused the act, and probably he had no exact knowledge on the subject; but, as it seems to us, it is a lack of candor which keeps him utterly silent as to any possible cause. The book is a not over-scrupulous plea for the prisoner, and is intended to call forth the pity of the North. We can find no other reason than that for the suppression of considerations which are necessary to a fair statement of the case. As to the ironing, even with the mitigating circumstances—the fear of rescue, the fear of suicide, the heinous crime with which the prisoner was charged—we regard it as a great mistake. We do not call it a wanton cruelty only because we are not in possession of the facts on which the Secretary of War based his order to General Miles. But it does not appear that fettering Davis's ankles could have prevented his committing suicide; it is difficult to see how it could have hindered rescue, or why it was necessary for the safe keeping of a man shut up in such a fortress, and always, night and day, most vigilantly watched by armed guards. It seems more than likely that the chains were put on him to add to the ignominy of his situation. But this, if this were the fact, would be the infliction of punishment upon a man who had not been sentenced, or even tried. On the 28th of May the fetters were taken off, the physician having reported to General Miles that the prisoner's health required their removal. This occurrence, which may or may not be what our author calls it — a triumph of "the doctrinal toga"—was certainly not dictated by a spirit of cruelty. Five days only after they were put on, the chains were taken off. On May 26th, army rations not being to the prisoner's liking, General Miles allows the doctor to send him in tea and toast, and thenceforth he is supplied with food from the doctor's table. On the 24th of June, after he has been confined a month and two days, he is permitted to walk in the open air for an hour every day. On the 23d of June the two guards who had been kept in his room were removed, for it was found that their presence had an irritating effect on Mr. Davis's nervous system. During the warm months he constantly complained that the air of his casemate was damp. On the 7th of September the authorities ordered that a room in Carroll Hall should be prepared for him, and on the 5th of October, as soon as his new quarters could be got ready and before the Virginian autumn was far advanced, he was established in the room which had previously been occupied by Grant and Sherman when they were on duty at the fortress. We confess that we see nothing in the treatment which Mr. Davis has experienced since the time when his irons were knocked off that looks like cruelty. On the contrary, taking Dr. Craven's story for true, we doubt if among all the prisoners of state now undergoing or awaiting punishment throughout the civilized world there is one who is to-day so well cared for and so comfortable as Jefferson Davis.

* "Prison Life of Jefferson Davis, embracing Details and Incidents in his Captivity, particulars concerning his Health and Habits, together with many Conversations on Topics of Great Public Interest. By Lieut.-Col. John Craven, late Surgeon U. S. Volunteers, and Physician of the Prisoner during his confinement in Fortress Monroe from May 25, 1865, up to Dec. 25, 1865." New York: Carleton. Pp. 377.

We learn from the book very little that is new about Davis's character, and very little, if any, light is thrown upon the history of the Confederacy. We knew before that the Confederate ex-president hated Johnston and Foote, and Brown, of Georgia, and the South Carolina Rhetts, and that he liked Lee and Jackson and Bragg and Pemberton. We supposed he would think it impossible for white men to raise cotton, rice, or sugar. We have been told by many Southern men that the negro is much in need of the fostering care of a superior race; we only wish he were going to get it. We have been told, also, by many Southerners before Mr. Davis went into Fortress Monroe that the people of the South are aristocrats and good horsemen, because they retain some remnants of cavalier customs, and virtuous because they are a simple agricultural people; and that the people of the North are money-grubbing, mean, and democratic, and that of all Northern States Massachusetts is the worst. We think we have heard before, too, that it is very rare to find in the South an instance of the cohabitation of a white man with a woman of color, and we believed it as much before as since Mr. Davis made the statement.

In short, if any one wishes to know Mr. Davis's opinions in reference to the North, a ten-years-old copy of "De Bow's Review" will give them; his opinions on the negro are to be had in any Southern newspaper of the past six months; his views of reconstruction and secession are those of A. H. Stephens and the New York *News*. He is a faithful representative of the section to which he belongs, and the book might have been circulated as testimony by the Joint Committee on Reconstruction.

THE MOON-ALFORD CONTROVERSY.*

A DIGNITARY of the Church of England known to the literary world as the editor of a rather poor edition of the Greek Testament, a volume of moderately good verse, and a weakish set of "Meditations," undertook, through the medium of what we should call a lyceum lecture, to enlighten his fellow-countrymen on the subject of the proper use of their mother tongue, and afterwards published his lucubrations in that excellent and highly orthodox periodical, "Good Words." The Dean of Canterbury's object was a laudable one, and his remarks and criticisms are by no means without value. Unfortunately, however, his own English style is anything but classically correct, and the defect was the more noticeable as, after the fashion of church dignitaries, he spoke in rather an *ex cathedra* tone on the subject. A gentleman who rejoices in the name of George Washington Moon, and whose opinions in regard to America and her affairs are, we trust, worthy of the name he bears, and therefore quite different from those of the dean, was moved to publish a rather sharp criticism of the shortcomings of our dean's style, which appears to have excited in him feelings of very undiaconal anger. To these he proceeded to give vent in the course of another lecture on the same topic, delivered to the Church of England young men of Canterbury, in which he called his critic substantially, though in phrase, to be sure, a little more circumlocutory, a fool and an ass, whereupon his critic, nothing daunted, administers a second castigation in another pamphlet, quite as severe and quite as well written as the first; and then the dean, recovering from his anger and finding that his opponent carried quite too many guns for him, proceeds to explain that his epithets were only intended in a Pickwickian sense, invites his critic to hear his next lecture—telling him that when he comes he will recognize his inviter at the railway station as "an old party in a shovel"—corrects, in obedience to his opponent's criticism, twenty-seven places in the second edition of his little book, leaving many others that would be the better for the same treatment, and all ends pleasantly. We are bound to say that, whatever advantage Mr. Moon may have in point of style, the dean, after the first ebullition of his anger, compares very favorably with his opponent in point of courteous manners.

The result for the reading public is two little volumes, very attractive for the tasteful simplicity of their outward appearance and typography, and which, taken together, form a really amusing and instructive study on minor points relating to the "Queen's English."

The dean's is a pleasant enough book of gossip upon small points of criticism. He is sometimes very right, sometimes quite wrong, and at other times very silly—as witness his solemn discoursing at page 273 on the enormity of "greasing the wheels of talk," as he elegantly expresses it, with expletives, and his very comical hypothetical derivation of that apparently harmless phrase "Dear me!" "It may not be amiss to remember," solemnly says the dean, "that idle words are seldom quite harmless," and the mode by which he illustrates his principle is amusing enough.

The dean, of course, is scandalized by the American fashion of spelling "endeavor" without a *u*, and indeed draws an awful general warning from the deterioration which the Queen's English is undergoing at the hands, or rather at the mouths, of us Americans. "Examples: American debasements" is the marginal notice in one of his papers. The profundity of his knowledge of things American may be estimated by his absurd remarks on our civil war. He has a good deal to say on the subject of Englishmen misplacing their *h*s, and makes a desperate attempt to tell a good story about a barber and the cholera, in the course of which the unfortunate subject of his sentence gets separate from its verb by no less than eight-and-twenty other nouns and pronouns, to the immense triumph of George Washington, whose eagle eye also detects another sentence which, by the law of permutations and combinations, can be read as he avers—and he duly tabulates his statement—in no less than 10,240 different ways. What can an unfortunate dean do in the hands of such a critic? His pages suddenly appear filled with the most unexpected statements and personages in the most singular positions. His editors "fall from ignorance;" he discovers himself to have "compositors without any mercy;" his men "lose their mothers in the papers;" he "introduces bodies;" his carriages "would have been come to grief in a bottomless swamp"—all through the criticism of the merciless Mr. Moon, who marshals in battle array a whole army of veterans against him—Quintilian, Campbell, Kames, Blair, and all the rest.

The unhappy dean can do nothing against such a host but desperately defy them all, and most especially his tormentor, Moon, and declare that we must "write good, manly English—explain what we mean as sensible, intelligent men cannot fail to understand it, and then if the rules be good we shall be sure to have complied with them; and if they be bad, our writing will be a protest against them." Unfortunately for this short-hand method of acquiring a good style, the writing of "good, manly English" does not come by nature; and a good many "sensible, intelligent men" are unable to express themselves in such English as other intelligent men cannot fail to understand, or to understand the English of other sensible men, to say nothing of the English of men who are not altogether as sensible as they might be. We fear the usefulness of the Campbells and the Kameses cannot be disproved in such a summary manner, and think that the dean, by studying some of their precepts, might learn what it is that makes Mr. Moon's English so much better than his own.

Altogether it is a very pretty quarrel, and the more such discussions we have, the better, provided they can be kept free from personal asperities. It was wrong in the dean to hint at "a most abnormal elongation of the auricular appendages," for it makes George Washington angry, and he very naturally enquires, "Why do n't you call me an ass, and be done with it?" And, on the other hand, it is unchristian, and not in accordance with that moderation which characterized his great namesake, to triumph so inordinately over his adversary, and to snuff the battle from afar and to say, "Ha! ha!" as Mr. Moon does on page 84.

We are no friends to hypercriticism or to that finical niceness which is more concerned about the dress than the thought it clothes. Language is a living, growing thing, and great liberties within the bounds of good taste and perspicuity may be allowed to the idiosyncrasies of individual writers. We can even tolerate Carlyle, though we cannot tolerate his imitators. The style that does not savor of the man who uses it is a poor style. But there is such a thing as perspicuity, and there is such a thing as usage. It behooves us all to guard our mother tongue against the debasing inroads of slang and the corrupting influence of loose thinkers and careless writers. We do not value very highly the authority of great names in determining questions of style. The dean falls back upon the authority of Scripture in defence of some of his indefensible positions. But examples of bad grammar and bad construction can be found in King James's translation; and all our standard writers, not even excepting Addison himself, to whose study we used to be told to give both day and night, have furnished an abundant harvest of errors for the critics. Yet there is good writing, and Mr. Moon's is good; and there is bad writing, and, in spite of mending, the dean's is bad. To find what constitutes the difference would be, we suppose, to find the difference, whatever that may be, between a Mr. Moon and a rather pragmatical and conceited, but doubtless good and worthy, dean of the Church of England.

Of the neglect of this important branch of study in our systems of education, and of the right method of pursuing it, much might be said; but we would rather say it on some other occasion than when chronicling such small-beer as this controversy between the Dean and Moon.

* "A Plea for the Queen's English: Stray Notes on Speaking and Spelling." By Henry Alford, D.D., Dean of Canterbury. London: Strahan. 16mo, pp. 287.
"The Dean's English: A Criticism on the Dean of Canterbury's 'Queen's English.'" By G. Washington Moon, Fellow of the Royal Society of Literature. London and New York: Strahan. 16mo, pp. 180.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of The Nation *should be addressed to the Editor.*

WHAT MIGHT HAVE BEEN.

The disappointment which Mr. Stevens expressed a week ago over the result of the labors of the Reconstruction Committee has probably been felt, though not so keenly, by thousands who make outward professions of satisfaction with that result, though perhaps very few have reached Mr. Stevens's age under the delusion, from which he has been so cruelly awakened, that they were dealing with angels and not with men. It is impossible, in fact, for anybody to recall the expectations by which the public mind was animated for a month or two after Mr. Lincoln's death, and not be painfully reminded of the difference which is almost always found to exist in politics between promise and performance. At that time it was confidently believed that there would be such a general punishment of traitors that treason would be made, if not for ever "odious," as Mr. Johnson promised it would be, at least for ever dangerous. In fact, the intentions of the new President on this point appeared to be of a most sanguinary character, and a good many excellent people, who felt just as indignant with the South as he did, were afraid he would disgrace the nation by his cruelties to the leaders. Every time he delivered a speech to a deputation the whole South quaked, especially "the aristocracy," and the poor prisoners trembled in their casemates. The rebels of large property were to be got rid of root and branch. He had lived amongst them and fought them twenty years, knew them well, and flattered himself he knew how to deal with them. We certainly all believed that he did know, if anybody knew, and we all folded our hands and waited to see him reform Southern society, under the guidance of his bitter experience. The essential thing, he said, was to break down the large planters, who were the arch rebels. It was not enough to take their slaves from them; he knew better than that. This was already done, and was very well as far as it went. They must lose their overgrown estates as well, and be scraped down to the dimensions of hard-working farmers; so he excepted them all from the amnesty, and the North, trusting to his wisdom and knowledge of Southern needs, acquiesced in his decision. It was hard measure, everybody felt, to deal out to so large a class; it would probably prejudice us in the eyes of foreign nations, and would prolong ill-feeling; but Mr. Johnson said it was necessary, and it was not for us, who had never fought this aristocracy for long years in Tennessee, to differ with him.

Now, of these two things which he pronounced in May, 1865, and pronounced deliberately, repeatedly, as the result of long experience, to be absolutely necessary to the reorganization of Southern society and the future peace and security of the Union, and which he then placed foremost in his plan of reconstruction, he has performed neither. He has punished no traitor. He has given no indication of any desire or intention, since the period above mentioned, to punish any traitor. He has taken every possible means open to him to show that he does not consider it necessary that treason should be made "odious," or even consider rebellion to be treason. On the contrary, he has on more than one occasion given us clearly to understand that, in his opinion, the only good purpose that would be served by the trial of Davis, or of any other rebel, would be the decision, as an interesting point of law, of the question whether it is possible for a man acting under the orders of his own State to commit such an offence as treason against the United States. He issued what now appears to have been a very foolish proclamation, charging Davis, Clay, and others with having instigated the assassination of Mr. Lincoln, offered an enormous reward for their apprehension, and when poor Davis was caught clapped him in irons. The public thought, of course, that when he made this awful charge—a charge which, when made against men who had occupied the position that these men had occupied for so many years in our society and government, and on whom one third, at least, of our countrymen had lavished the highest marks of confidence in their gift, would, if proved, have been, perhaps, everything considered, the foulest blot that could have fallen on our civilization—he must have had in his hands proofs as strong as those of Holy Writ, and that he would bring the wretches to justice without delay. It now appears he had nothing of the kind. It appears that he had no foundation for this charge that would bear either a lawyer's scrutiny or public criticism. It appears that the charges of the proclamation were simply passionate and ill-considered displays of zeal, which, as it was so very short-lived, can hardly have been very sincere. We say that all this *appears*, because no allusion to that charge has ever since been made, because one of the accused has been discharged from custody, and no pretence is made that Davis is held upon it.

Now as regards Mr. Johnson's course toward the Southern aristocracy. He pronounced their breakdown necessary, and he armed himself with the power of accomplishing it by making the possession of a certain amount of fortune presumptive evidence of unusual guilt. We speak advisedly when we say that he has not given the smallest proof that his opinion with regard to the necessity for breaking down the aristocracy was ever sincerely held. He has, without assigning any reason for it, refrained cautiously from taking any step that was in the least likely to break it down. The abolition of slavery he has insisted upon, because he found the work already done; but everything beyond this which seemed likely to alter the structure of Southern society he has steadily and pertinaciously resisted. He has given the whole weight of his influence, personal and official, to keeping things at the South as nearly in their former condition as possible. He has exacted nothing which the war had not rendered inevitable. He has done absolutely nothing that he could avoid doing to weaken the class whose very existence he often informed us was a standing menace to our political system. He has confiscated no man's property, and if he has refused pardon to any of his dreadful "$20,000 men," as part of a system intended to impoverish and break up this class, we have yet to hear of it.

Now, it may be that the course he has actually taken has been wiser than the one he first traced out for himself. It may be that his wild speeches of last winter embody more wisdom than his wild speeches of last summer, but how are we to know this? Has he, with this sudden change in opinions fresh before our eyes, not been asking a vast deal too much in asking us to believe he was best fitted to do the work of reconstruction? If his views in May were worthless, what reason was there, we ask in the name of common sense, for supposing that his views in October or November were any better? Is it safe to trust a man with any task of statesmanship who gives you plainly to understand that the words he uttered, standing by his predecessor's grave, with the most awful responsibility pressing upon him, and a whole nation looking up to him with a confidence that now seems childish, were but as idle wind, to be repudiated or forgotten on the morrow, without even an excuse or an explanation. If Mr. Johnson meant, after his accession to the presidency, to carry out the policy which he then traced, his subsequent course shows him to possess so little judgment, so little knowledge of the only subject in the whole range of human knowledge of which anybody expected him to know anything, that it would have been madness for Congress to have let him have his way. If he did not mean to do so, his subsequent course furnishes an illustration of his dishonesty too painful to make comment on it possible.

His position at this moment is tolerably humiliating. He had, when he took office, one of the finest opportunities that has ever presented itself to a statesman. Other men, of as mean beginnings as he, have reached dignities perhaps as lofty; but we doubt if there is a case in history where a man has found himself armed with power which there was so little temptation to use for mean, or base, or unjust ends. He had a whole nation at his back still seething with the excitement of a contest which suffering had purified, which, begun in love of country, every battle and march had helped to raise into a crusade for simple freedom, simple justice, simple humanity. He found the American people in perhaps the noblest mood to which any people has ever risen—to which, perhaps, in our lifetime this people will ever rise—flinging its armies, its treasure, at his feet, and piling its blessings on his head, and asking

him to see to it that the last vestige of contradiction between its principles and its practice was removed, and to proclaim to the world that the national recognition of the equality of men which the actors in the first revolution had put on paper, the actors in this revolution had embodied in their law. He let the golden moment slip away; took to mumbling before his old idols the old incantations; saw the zeal which had accomplished so much, and stood ready to accomplish so much more, cool down before his eyes; saw the economists and calculators and money-changers go back to their books, and came down from his eminence to devote himself to the construction of "his policy," the exact nature of which, probably, nobody will be able in ten years to remember, and which will leave about as much trace on the history of the country as the Saturday speeches in the House of Representatives.

UNDERWOOD, FULLERTON, AND STEEDMAN.

The Mussulman, to avert the influences of the evil eye, sets himself against the wind and, spitting, spits in his own face. It is not a dignified performance; in doing it he does some little violence to his natural self-respect, but then he propitiates a higher power. So long as the report of General Fullerton conciliates the regard of the superior who sent him on his mission, the general probably cares but little that he disgraces himself in making it, that he shows most clearly that the unadorned truth, nothing set down in malice and nothing extenuated, was by no means what he sought and by no means what he found. This is harsh language, but there is justification for it, as we propose to show very fully in very few words. Falsehood goes many leagues, over a State or two, for instance, in two or three days, while truth is getting ready to travel; but the plain tale, when it comes, is very conclusive.

Mr. F. H. Underwood leases a plantation on Wadmelaw Island, South Carolina. The President's investigating agents paid it a flying visit in the end of May, and this is what they say they found there. Briefly, they found "the Underwood oppressions." It was a man "from Boston, Mass.," who cultivated and rented the farm and who also kept a store on the place. His freedmen he worked by the task, "which is precisely the manner in which their former owners worked them." The wages offered were fair enough, but when the time of payment came the laborers received not money or its equivalent, but tickets good for so much provisions at Underwood's counter. But there the storekeeper sold corn at the extortionate price of three dollars a bushel. Mr. Towles, a neighbor, was willing to sell the people corn at two dollars a bushel and take Underwood's tickets in payment; but Underwood procured a special order from the Bureau, and Towles was compelled to desist. There was no meat in Underwood's store, and the involuntary customers were compelled to take what the storekeeper chose to give them. They gathered round General Steedman and General Fullerton and "complained bitterly, stating that with the wages paid them they were unable to earn enough to buy, at the prices charged, their necessary subsistence."

One reads the report as it appeared in the New York *Herald* correspondence, or afterwards as it appeared officially, and naturally he says to himself that the honorable commissioners have come across another wolf in sheep's clothing; another of those detestable New Englanders who have all his life long disgusted the soul of Jefferson Davis, as Dr. Craven reports him; one of those men "from Boston, Mass.," like Benjamin Franklin, the ex-president's aversion, "a true type, or incarnation of the New England character—hard, calculating, angular, unable to conceive any higher object than the accumulation of money." This is the inference which the report makes easy for us to draw. But the correspondent's version of the visit caught the eye of Mr. Underwood's agent, and his enlightened self-interest at once saw that when his character was calumniated and stolen away; when he was branded a swindler and thief, a tyrant equally oppressive as "the former owners" of slaves, his darling object—the accumulation of money—would be more difficult of attainment. Actuated, therefore, by sordid, money-grubbing motives, he immediately demanded an official inspection of his plantation. This was granted, and from a copy of the official report of the inspecting officer we take the following facts, which effectually dispose of the report made by the correspondent, as well as the somewhat scantier report of the two generals.

Mr. Underwood's laborers were working under a written contract, of which he had one and they another copy, while a third copy was on file in the office of the Freedmen's Bureau.

When the contract was made the people were starving, ragged, shelterless, and nearly all sick of the small-pox, or just recovering from it. Mr. Underwood has since built houses for them, free of charge; they are now well clothed and well fed, and a school has been established where instruction is given gratuitously.

The laborers receive fifty cents a "task," or quarter of an acre, for hoeing, hauling, and otherwise handling the cotton crop. It is their immemorial manner of working, and the one which naturally they much prefer to any other. The accounts of the plantation and the statements of the hands show that the able-bodied laborers have averaged three "tasks" a day, and it is notorious that the day's work is very often done on that as on other plantations before one o'clock in the afternoon. After that hour they work on the land set apart for their own use, of which there are 120 acres, 90 acres being in cotton and 30 acres in breadstuffs.

The store is kept on the plantation, because the nearest point at which food can be purchased is Charleston, forty-five miles distant, and to make this journey as often as necessary and carry on the plantation would have been an impossibility. Subsistence has been sold at less than cost, and there is no cheating going on.

The inspecting officer and his superior, Major Cornelius, pronounce the plantation government excellent, and the reports to the contrary are denounced as false. It is emphatically denied by the agent that corn was ever sold in the store or on the plantation, or to any of his laborers or resident negroes, or to any negro whatever, at the rate of three dollars a bushel, and he asserts that one day's faithful labor under the contract would furnish the laborer "with provisions from the plantation store, at the highest rates ever charged, sufficient to maintain him two weeks."

The case of Mr. Towles we do not find touched upon in the reply to the *Herald* and the two generals, but it is not an omission which need affect our opinion of Mr. Underwood. The commissioners very signally fail to ruin his reputation as an honest man and a just employer, and he will derive more than a private gratification from knowing that, in easily vindicating his own character, he has done something to rescue a public institution from reckless aspersions.

A NEW RELIGION.

In the last chapter of "Les Apôtres," M. Renan, in support of his assertion that the readiness to endure martyrdom for conscience' sake is not confined to any age or sect, cites the terrible tragedy which took place in Teheran in 1852, when the visible remnant of the "Babist" sect was slaughtered to the last child. Probably few of his readers in this country have ever heard of this sect before, or know more of it than can be gathered from his brief mention of it. But its history is curious and instructive.

An extended account of the origin and career of the new religion, and an exposition of its doctrines, derived from a volume by the Count de Gobineau, entitled "The Religions and Philosophies of Central Asia," has been given in a recent number of the "Revue Moderne." It possesses great historical and psychological interest.

About the year 1843 there lived at Shiraz, in Persia, a youth hardly nineteen years old named Mirza Ali Mohammed. From his childhood he had shown himself passionately addicted to religious thought and novel ideas. He was acquainted with the Christian Gospels, frequented the society of the Jews, sought out the Guebers, the ancient fire-worshippers of Persia, and read with interest the books which treated of occult sciences and the theory of numbers. A visit to Mecca, instead of bringing him back to Moslem ideas, had an exactly opposite effect, and it is believed that it was at the very foot of the Caaba that he resolved upon the destruction of Islam.

On his return to Shiraz he commenced to read his first writings to the companions of his pilgrimage. The new prophet joined to physical beauty great simplicity of manners and sweetness of character.

The spell of his speech and his personal appearance is established by the unanimous testimony of all those who have known him. The appearance of the new prophet made an immense impression at Shiraz. Crowds flocked around him to hear him. In the day he preached in the mosques and the schools; in the evening, in the retirement of his own room, he initiated chosen members of his followers into the secrets of the new doctrine. He adopted the name of the *Bab;* that is, the gate through which alone truth is to be reached. In his first discourses his attacks were directed principally at the vices of the Moullas, the Moslem clergy. The popularity which he gained by these attacks; the victories which he gained in public discussions with the Moullas; the apparent fear of the royal government to engage in a contest with him, and the increasing number and enthusiasm of his disciples, soon led him to take a still greater step. Instead of the *Bab*, he now declared that he was the *Point;* that is, not merely the gate but the very creator of truth, no longer a simple prophet but a living manifestation of divinity. The title of the Bab was now conferred upon a priest of the Khorassan, Moulla Housseïn Bousrhewich, who now became the active chief and soon the warrior apostle of Babism. Moulla Housseïn was sent by his spiritual chief on a missionary tour into Irak and Khorassan, taking with him the writings of his master. He went first to Ispahan. There, and at Kashan and Teheran and throughout the Khorassan, he made a great sensation by his preaching. Another missionary apostle in the meantime met with great success in the Mezenderan. A third missionary was a woman, one of the most striking apparitions that have shed lustre upon Babism. She possessed at the same time extraordinary beauty and, in the midst of all the adventures of her public apostleship, unquestioned purity of manners. Her eloquence is said to have equalled her beauty. She had abandoned everything—parents, husband, home—to devote her body and soul to the propagation of Babism. She had cast aside the veil which custom and religion impose upon women in Persia, and preached the abolition of veiling and of polygamy. The remembrance of the enthusiam she inspired is perpetuated in her popular name of Gourret-Oul-Ayn, the Consolation of Eyes.

In the Khorassan, Moulla Housseïn got into a mêlée with the royal soldiers. After some slight affrays he withdrew with his followers to the district of the Mezenderan. Here, about the year 1848, he was joined by the other missionaries and their followers, and at a place called Sheik Tebersi the Babists built, as a centre of operations and a place of retreat, a huge tower of wood and stone, and provided it with everything needed for a protracted siege. And now, fired with ambitious hopes, they mingled with their religious preaching political predictions, in which the advent of the Bab as universal sovereign was announced as near at hand. Proclamations scattered among the crowds that had gathered around the fortress declared that it would take only one year to decide the struggle, and after that period the entire world would belong to the Bab. They were led to believe that those who died fighting for the new faith would rise again in the flesh, to become kings and princes of some of the countries over which the Bab would continually extend his sway. By such excitement the credulous multitude were wrought up to the very highest pitch of zeal. Two large armies which marched out, confidently expecting to crush the hated Babists out of existence, were surprised by midnight attacks and utterly routed. A third expedition, though it succeeded in withstanding the nocturnal sortie of the Babists, and in mortally wounding the Babist chief, Moulla Housseïn, retired without waiting for a second attack. Reinforced, the royal army again advanced to the Babist fortress, and commenced to build a wall of investment, and to raise towers to overtop the walls of the Babists. The Babists tried another rally, but were repulsed. For four months they held out without any sign of wavering and discouragement, in spite of the most tremendous odds against them, constantly replacing with new works the battered-down fortifications. At last famine reigned. To such extremity were they reduced that the body of the sacred horse of their dead leader, which they had buried with respectful obsequies, was disinterred, and the remnants cooked with the marrow of its bones. Finally they tried to break out and force their way through the enemy's lines. But they were overpowered with numbers, and when they at length surrendered only 214 were living. The survivors were at first treated kindly. But the next day the Mohammedan chiefs invited the principal Babists to a breakfast, then had them seized and put to death by ripping open their bowels. The other Babists, women, children, and even those who had thought they would save their lives by renouncing their heresy, were all put to death, to the great glory of Mahomet and Islam.

But this victory did not succeed in crushing out the Babist heresy. In Khamseh, by another insurrection, the Babists gained possession of Zendjan, a city of immense riches, and again the royal power succeeded in reducing the place only by the greatest efforts. The fanatical enthusiasm and the headstrong courage that was shown at Sheik Tebersi was again exhibited at Zendjan, and Babism was again baptized in a sea of blood. One of the strange relations connected with this period is that of the three Babists who were condemned at Teheran, by the cruel Emir Nizam, to see him open their veins, and who predicted to him that he would one day die by the same death, which did, in fact, happen four years afterwards.

Meanwhile Ali Mohammed, the founder and spiritual head of Babism, had been living in semi-concealment in his house at Shiraz, buried in his religious meditations and compositions, and like a stranger to these external developments of his doctrines. After the insurrection of Mezenderan he was arrested and brought before a court of royal commissioners and the principal Mohammedan priests. In the examination and discussion which took place, according to the admissions of the Mohammedans themselves, the Bab, as he was still popularly called, gained the advantage. Seeing this, the discussion was abruptly broken off, and the Bab, with two of his disciples, was condemned to death, which was inflicted the next day, with the accompaniment of every kind of indignity, and one strange incident that came near giving a new turn altogether to affairs. After his death, his body was trailed round the streets for several days, and then thrown into a sewer. Everything now seemed to be finished. But nothing was finished. The new Bab, Mirza Iaia, whom the seal of a divine mark had pointed out at the age of fifteen as the predestined successor to the office, established himself at Bagdad, where he lived in safety, and kept up permanent communication with his followers, through the pilgrims to the shrines there. The Babists were now forbidden from making any more attempts at insurrection until the Bab should decide that the hour had come and should give them the signal.

In 1852, soon after this, an attempt was made to assassinate the King, but failed. The attempted assassins were recognized as Babists. They obstinately denied, on examination, that they had accomplices. Yet a plot was suspected. A secret meeting of the principal Babists was discovered. Forty were arrested, among them the feminine apostle, Gourret-Oul-Ayn, the Consolation of Eyes. No other capture could be made. No symptom of insurrection was revealed. Nevertheless, the deepest anxiety reigned at the court of Niaveran. The air was full of suspicions. There was vaguely felt the existence of a vast plot, whose ramifications immeshed everything, and the clew to which had broken in the hand the moment it had been seized. The prisoners were examined, but all, women and children no less than the men, showed the same inflexible firmness in keeping the secret. The kalenter, Mahmoud Khan, to whom Consolation of Eyes had been given to guard, charmed with the beauty of his prisoner, tried to persuade her to save her life by a pretended abjuration. But she would not buy life with a lie. Already she thirsted for martyrdom. She told the kalenter that tomorrow he would set fire to her funeral pile, and she would give by her death a striking testimony to God and the founder of her faith; but that his master would not recompense him for his zeal, but would soon put him also to a cruel death. The next day she publicly confessed her Babism, was burnt at the stake with insult and indignity, and her ashes were scattered to the wind. The prediction which she made to the kalenter, a prediction as unhesitatingly credited by her opponents as her followers, was soon fulfilled. The rest of the prisoners were distributed each to a courtier as his especial victim. Then was seen at Teheran a sight never to be forgotten. Through the streets, between the lines of executioners, marched men, women, and children with burning splinters flaming in their wounds. The victims sing: "In truth we come from God and we return to Him." A sufferer falls in the road; he is raised by lashes and bayonet thrusts. On his legs again, he peals

forth again his song. The children expire in the way. The executioners fling their bodies under the feet of their fathers and mothers, who walk over them without scarcely a glance. Thus they arrive at the place of execution, and, in the midst of the profound silence of the crowd, the bloody drama is finished. Nothing had shaken the firmness of the condemned. Not an apostate had been found among them.

And now let us turn from the history of Babism to take a view of the character of the religion that has called forth such devotion and such martyrs, which has shaken Persia to its very centre and has threatened, perhaps may yet supplant, Shiite Mohammedanism in that country.

Babism, like Mohammedanism, asserts the absolute unity of God; but the eternal unity, far from shutting himself up in himself, is on the contrary an ever expanding principle of life. It is ceaselessly moving, acting, creating. God has created the world by means of seven words, Force, Power, Will, Action, Condescension, Glory, and Revelation, which words embrace the active plenitude of the virtues which they respectively represent. God possesses other virtues, to be sure, even to infinity, but he manifests only these. The creature who emanates from God is distinguished from him by the privation of all emanatory action; but he is not altogether separated from him, and at the last day of judgment he will be confounded anew with him in the eternal unity. The Babist doctrine of revelation is distinguished by the fact that it does not claim that the Bab has revealed the complete truth, but only as his predecessors, the prophets before him, have done, that portion of truth necessary for the age. The Bab is declared superior to Mahomet as Mahomet was to Jesus, and another revelation, which will complete the Bab's, is announced as coming in the future.

Numbers play a great part in Babism, especially the number nineteen. This is a sacred number, which the Bab declares ought to preside over everything. He would subject all measures of space and time to divisions and groupings by nineteen. He introduces the same principle into jurisprudence and commerce, and founds upon it his sacerdotal organization. Originally, he says, the Unity was composed of nineteen persons, among whom the highest rank belongs to the Bab. All the prophets who have appeared are, like the world, manifestations of God; divine words; not God, but beings who come from God more really than common men. By them, an uninterrupted relation is maintained between the Creator and the creature. At the death of a prophet or a saint, his soul does not quit the earth, but joins itself to some soul still in the flesh, who then completes the work which was carried on during his life by the prophet who has just disappeared.

Babism enjoins few prayers, and only upon fixed occasions, and neither prescribes nor defends ablutions, so common in the religious rites of Mohammedanism. Divine service is to be celebrated with great pomp, with music and singing, but only rarely. All the faithful ought to wear amulets and put entire confidence in them. Mendicancy, so much in honor among the Mussulman people, is forbidden, and the wearing of rich clothes and precious jewels recommended. One of the best features of Babism is its regard for women. They are ordered to discard veils. Husbands are commanded to be prodigal of everything which can add beauty to their wives' appearance. It is enjoined that women share in the intercourse of social life, from which Persian usage unfortunately excludes them. The tenderness which the Bab shows for children in his writings also shows that he aims, by the reorganization of the family, to fill up the great void in Asiatic life.

As a social theory, Babism would establish a theocracy in which the sacerdotal power should control everything, and by spiritual government create material well-being—would realize, in its own Oriental way, some of the dreams of European socialism. The re-birth in this system of the mystical fancies and many of the puerile superstitions of Oriental antiquity, in combination with some of the most modern and most advanced ideas of the Western mind, is a very curious spectacle. What will be the future of Babism it is difficult to tell. Since 1852 it has changed its character to a secret doctrine, which recruits its disciples in silence. The same Babists who before suffered martyrdom so courageously rather than deny their religion, now, obedient to the new order of their chief, conceal their faith with Oriental dissimulation, and deny it, if need be, without hesitation. Babism is much more in harmony with the subtle and imaginative genius of the Persian people than the Shiite Mohammedanism. The growing spirit of nationality makes their present religion and the present dynasty, both of which were established among them by foreign conquest, less and less acceptable every year. The hour when the Bab shall send word from Bagdad that the time has come for the Babists to take up arms again will be a very critical one for the present dynasty of Persia and for Shiite Mohammedanism.

A RETROSPECT.

[FROM THE "PATAGONIAN TIMES," JUNE 8.]

NOT the least singular feature in that remarkable submerged city, whose discovery and identification with the former metropolis of the United States was described in a recent issue, must have been the spectacle presented by a New York belle of the year 1866, as we find her portrayed in such fashion-plates and comic periodicals as have escaped the destroying action of the waves. Let our fair Patagonians picture her advancing along that Broadway whose remains after so many years of submergence, and imperfectly seen as they are even from the best of our diving-bells, still attest its magnificence,—picture her, I say, advancing with measured march to the click of her little boot-heels, head slightly bent, elbows stiffly out, shoulders held high and square, and eyes fixed on vacancy, as was then the mode. From her waist depended a light, tilting framework of fine steel springs, and shaped like a bell, supposing the bell to commence about the hips, and the lower part, a little above the ankles, to have attained the enormous circumference of four or five yards. This was barely covered by a garment of white or striped stuff, elaborately embroidered, flounced and ruffled on the edge, corresponding to the plainer article known in Patagonia as the petticoat. Over the petticoat was festooned high a second skirt of the costly materials then in vogue; and as, at the distance of a few paces, the feet and ankles of the wearer became distinctly visible under this huge tilting cage to all whom they might concern, there were worn high kid boots, daintily fitting and coquettishly scalloped and tasselled, a method of meeting the difficulty possibly more satisfactory to the New York than the Patagonian mind. For difficulties occurring at a few paces further, or supposing the lady on an eminence—but there are cases that are not supposable, as where ladies incautiously leaned against doors, windows, or counters, or entered one of the narrow public vehicles known among them as "omnibuses," squeezed their way into a pew, or up the aisle of a railroad car, or were caught in a jam, or at the top of the long flights of steps common to their city, the light steel frame, under pressure, instantly resolving itself, for the benefit of an awe-struck sidewalk, into a huge triumphal arch, front, rear, or lateral, as the case might be—facts of which our countrywomen may easily convince themselves by a few personal experiments with such of the best preserved specimens as we have forwarded to the Patagonian Museum. As crowds, narrow passages, flights of steps, and rising grounds occurred in this as in every other city, the stately march of the Broadway belles must have been a series of triumphal arches: a poem of rounded contours, arched insteps, dainty fitness, and snowy Balbriggans very gratifying to any one but the father, husband, brother, or lover.

Above these incautious skirts there was worn about the shoulders a garment, short or long, loose or closely fitting, the shape being left to the caprice of the wearer, the fashion of the day exacting only due observance of its fundamental principle—beads—for which this people displayed a barbarous fondness, and which their ladies wore on their skirts, cloaks, ribbons, veils, fans, parasols, and even about their necks and heads. Fancy, then, on the back of the cloak or mantle, a knot and ends of ribbon, bead-besprinkled, and streaming almost to the feet; add chains, clasps, and cameos, wherever a Patagonian lady would consider it impossible to wear them; suppose one of those heads which, after her feet, the New York belle most delighted to adorn and display, and take your choice, for incredible were the number of coiffures, that changed faster than the moon! The hair was drawn away from forehead and temples, it was combed over cushions, it was raised in tiers of rolls, it was piled high in crinkled waves, blonde or black, though blonde was most affected. Little curls fell over smooth white foreheads, long curls nestled behind the ear, short curls lay audaciously and impossibly on the tops of lovely heads, or drooped over hair massed in a knot at the back, and held in a curious little silken net that could not always escape the inevitable bead, as our ladies will observe in the specimens that we find, together with some of the false hair so extensively worn, and the chains, cameos, gold bands, stars, arrows, butterflies, and embroidered ribbons with which these heads were heavily adorned.

Let the coiffure, then, be in crinkle or curl, as you will, only taking care

that it stand well up from the forehead, and exhibit at the back a knot like an overgrown door-knob; surmount it with anything you like for a bonnet—any of the round hats then worn indiscriminately by men and women: an inverted vegetable dish, soup-plate, or colander, of chip or rice straw; a bit of lace, resting between front and back hair, like a saddle between the humps of a dromedary; or a bunch of flowers tied on the head by wide ribbons—all being worn by the ladies of 1866, and exhibiting, if we may be forgiven the heresy, in spite of grotesqueness, a grace not so apparent in the more solid Patagonian structure. Place a baby's parasol in the hands of the lady so attired, and you have, complete, a belle of that day, as we find her continually reproduced in its current literature.

Indeed, men seemed able to talk and write of but little else. If they set gravely out for some scientific end they paused at the very beginning to administer a warning admonitory fillip to those aspiring women who might follow too closely on their track. From whatever altitude they started, we are tolerably sure to find them tripping over a satin train, or gravely discussing a *chignon* before the end. Alternately they praise and scoff, admire and revile, and, looking at them from the higher point of these later days, we discern causes for this masculine unrest and vague alarm, which they felt rather than comprehended, and find in them a warning for ourselves, for, as straws show the current, so might the first hesitating attempts of feminity on the masculine wardrobe have indicated to this doomed race the future bent of their feminine world. Mark well the art of the fair destroyers! They ventured upon the boots and were not repulsed. They took unto themselves the collar without opposition. They adopted the shirt-bosom, and no man lifted a dissentient voice. They helped themselves to a modified form of hat, and men only stared. Growing bolder, they seized on the sack-coats, flimsily disguising the offence with pretences of galloons and buttons; and, finding man still tame, still passive and stupidly admiring, they possessed themselves of the cravat, the pockets, the coat-tail, and all the other hats, in rapid succession, till it was no longer easy, at first blush, to discern a man's head from that of a woman. Here and there a far-sighted man might lift up a warning voice—on paper—talk of imports and exports, dissect all this current beauty, tell where it was bought and what it cost—but still on paper; for confront the saddest, wisest, and grimmest of these susceptible Manhattanese with the lovely consumer of imports and devourer of gold, and though her gown rustled perfumed defiance at his statistics, and his senses assured him that curls could not crop out from her head where he saw them, though he tumbled over her train in the drawing-room, and started aghast on the street at the skirts that made such a failure of covering her legs, at the bonnet that was no excuse for the strings under her chin, at a bow in the only place where it could not possibly tie anything, and a veil that hung anywhere except over her face—spite of these things, we say, would his growl be lost in his throat, his scowl relax to a simper, and he himself stand before her dazzled, confounded, and conquered.

It is supposed that women finally gained entire predominance, and that when men seriously mooted the question of resistance, that resistance was already too late. Little is known, however, of the latter days of this ill-fated island. Some asserted that the race perished to a man in the attempt to supply their women with pin-money, the women dispersing with grim satisfaction to overrun other hapless races; but this version makes no mention of the submersion of the island, for which others account by a Manhattanese superstition known as "up-town," gravely asserting that as this people, firmly believing in the superiority of their city to the rest of the globe, each and all refused to emigrate, and as every woman of fortune or fashion likewise stoutly insisted on living in the small but consecrated section known by this name of "up-town," the frightful and ever-increasing preponderance of humanity on this favored end of the island finally tilted it over in its own bay. More reasonable and better accredited accounts assure us that for many years previous to the catastrophe, the gradual lowering and wearing away of their island had been observed with uneasiness by the Manhattanese, who appointed a committee of investigation; but, unluckily, the committee being paid for each sitting, met every night for fifteen or twenty years without arriving at any definite conclusions, and were still in process of investigation when the island went under—a catastrophe, due, as we need not remind our logical countrywomen, to the bands, crescents, false curls, ribbons, steel frames, and other feminine extravagances now on exhibition in our museum; since, could the Manhattanese have taken time from the making of pin-money, they would have overlooked the committee of investigation, appointed an acting board, built breakwaters and levees, and possibly saved the island, of which now only so much is left as will make a warning hardly needed, we are proud to say, by our more favored land in these our more enlightened days.

DOES ANY ONE TELL THE TRUTH?

[The subjoined article has been furnished us by a valued contributor, but we hesitated for some time about publishing it, fearing that it might cheer and assist that innumerable company who are engaged in justifying either to themselves or the public the practice of daily lying to which they are addicted. We do not, however, feel warranted, whatever the consequence may be, in withholding a contribution to the philosophy of any subject whatever, even that of mendacity.—Ed. Nation.]

It is a striking and suggestive fact that the first great moral code promulgated to the world contains no prohibition of lying. It forbids in the most sweeping manner idolatry, profanity, murder, theft, adultery, and other sins; but it does not say to man in general terms that he shall not lie, but only that he shall not bear false witness against his neighbor. A special form of deception is the only one that falls under the interdict of the code proclaimed amid the thunders of Sinai.

Various profound and highly philosophical explanations have been given of this fact. The chief difficulty with them all is that they are not true. For this element of truth, however unimportant in other philosophical investigations, is important in this particular one as being the very matter under discussion.

Yet the explanation lies on the surface. Moses was too wise a law-giver to attempt impossibilities. He did not prohibit lying for the same reason that he did not prohibit slavery; for the same reason that nowhere in the Bible is polygamy directly prohibited. A sweeping law against any of these would have been the veriest dead letter. For in each case it would have been so far in advance of the moral sentiment of the people expected to obey it, that it not only would never have been looked upon in the light of an obligation, but would not even have served as a protest of the higher nature against a custom and practice it deplored but could not prevent.

The case is by no means peculiar. There are myriad forms of cheating and robbery even now tolerated among us, unprohibited by statute, simply because the moral sentiment of man is not yet highly enough cultivated to treat that as illegal which is generally regarded as dishonorable. Yet the latter feeling is a proof of that steady growth of the moral sentiment of mankind which has been going on since the creation. It is everywhere apparent. The habits and customs of one age are looked upon with disfavor in another, and become objects of legal prohibition in still another. It is hard to tell, in consequence, how much our view of the morality or immorality of actions and institutions is due to education and how much to nature. That the former can lead men living at the same period, and equally cultivated and equally conscientious, to entirely contrary conclusions has been clearly manifested in our own history. It is within the memory of all that slavery was regarded by good men at the North as the sum of all villainies; by good men at the South as the consummate flower of modern civilization. Right and wrong may be always the same; but our ideas in regard to them change constantly. There is nothing to show that Cain had any of that horror at the murder of his brother which we feel for him. Human life was no more sacred in his eyes than it is now in the eyes of a South-sea islander or a railway director. Doubtless many a tender-hearted boy now feels more compunctions of conscience for drowning a kitten than the first murderer did for spilling the blood of his brother. Remorse was a feeling very probably unknown to the antediluvians.

All kinds of deception are practised without scruple in rude and barbarous states of society. Centuries pass by, even under the best religious training, before men learn to put faith in one another. And it was, unquestionably, on account of the low moral development of the Israelites that Moses made no prohibition of lying, except so far as it affected the property or reputation of others.

Four thousand years have gone by since his time, and is the world yet prepared for such a prohibition? Most men will say yes; for absolute truthfulness is a duty positively enjoined in all philosophical treatises upon the morals, and many good, though unreflecting, persons labor under the delusion that they have quite or almost attained to it.

Never was there a greater mistake. In the present state of mankind a man absolutely truthful is not only an impossibility, but, were he not only a possibility but also a reality, he would be a moral monstrosity—worse than that, a bore, a breeder of quarrels, a general nuisance which society would feel called upon to abate for the sake of its own safety. Few appreciate how much we owe to falsehood, how much our daily life stands in need of it. Without the lubricating oil of deception, the friction of the social wh would soon bring on a general social conflagration.

These are grave statements. Are they true?

What is the essential idea of a lie? Is it anything else than an intentional effort to produce a false impression of a given fact in the mind of another? It makes no difference whether the deception be caused by an unblushingly untrue statement, by a certain course of action, by equivocation, by evasion, by the use of ambiguous words and phrases. Nor does the goodness or badness of the end aimed at come into the question. If deception was produced, and produced intentionally, it was produced by nothing more and nothing less than a lie, however praiseworthy the motive, however innocent in themselves may have been the words used or the deeds done.

Will morality accept any lower standard? Yet tried by it, who does not lie?

The ordinary rules of politeness require us constantly not only to hide our real sentiments from those around us, which may be strictly consonant with absolute truth, but also to convey to others in many cases an entirely false impression of those sentiments, and that, too, in matters in which they are concerned. It is a law of society which, like the air around us, presses so generally and so equally that we do not heed it. We live and move, indeed, in an atmosphere of deception so thick, so heavy as not only to hide us from our neighbors, but frequently to hide us from ourselves; so that from constantly striving to persuade others that we think and feel differently from what we do think and feel, we sometimes succeed in convincing ourselves that we are what we endeavor to seem to be. We receive with courtesy those whom we heartily dislike, and treat with respect those for whom we feel profound contempt. It is right that we should do so; it is wrong not to do so. But so far as our acts and words are intended to give, as they necessarily are constantly intended to give, our neighbors an entirely wrong impression of our feelings towards them, so far those words and acts cannot be brought into accord with the rule of absolute truthfulness.

Every one has doubtless met occasionally people who pride themselves on always speaking the truth, especially truth that is disagreeable; who boast that they always strive to be frank, but forget that they generally succeed in being also brutal. Society ostracizes, as far as possible, such persons, and very properly; for it knows instinctively that perfect and universal sincerity, in the present moral state of mankind, would bring us back to a condition as deplorable as that barbarous one of universal lying, out of which we have slowly raised ourselves. It is regarded, indeed, not only as a proof of high breeding, but as a kind of triumph of Christian politeness and cultivation, to remove unpleasant impressions produced upon the minds of others by the awkwardness or carelessness of some blundering truth-teller—in short, to substitute falsehood for fact. The proverb that the truth should not be spoken at all times is simply an expression of that instinctive popular appreciation of the necessity of deception which all men feel, though in it few dare avow their belief.

And yet our modern philosophers, with these facts of every-day life staring them in the face, hold out before us absolute truthfulness not as a standard of ideal right, to be aimed at though incapable of realization, but as a duty possible in attainment and obligatory in practice. But when they come to test their general propositions by particular illustrations, they unconsciously betray the weakness of their position. For example, take a question much mooted in casuistry, and of especial interest to men of letters, as involving their right to deny the authorship of publications which have appeared anonymously.

Dr. Johnson once said that he did not believe Burke wrote the Letters of Junius, because the latter, of his own accord, had told him that he did not. But Johnson went on to say that had he himself asked the question in the first place, and met with a denial, he would have still been unsatisfied; as he would have regarded it as the right of a person interrogated on such a point to return a negative answer, whatever might be the actual facts in the case.

This seems the common-sense view, and is certainly the common practice. But the right of an anonymous author thus to keep his own secret is absolutely denied by our modern moral philosophers. Here is the very manner in which the case is treated of by one of the ablest of their number, who admits that a refusal to answer would, in many cases, be the same as an answer in the affirmative. "The author has no moral right," says Dr. Whewell, "to remain concealed at the expense of telling a lie; that is, it is not right in him thus to protect himself. But, on the other hand, he is not bound to answer. Nor need he directly refuse to do so. He may evade the question or turn off the subject. There is nothing to prevent his saying, 'How can you ask such a question?' or anything of the like kind that may remove the expectation of an answer." Whewell then goes on to say that if these means fail, either through the persistence of the questioner or the unskilfulness of the questioned, the latter is bound to confess the fact rather than deny it directly. And this is the generally accepted view.

It is not enough that this monstrous doctrine denies the right of secrecy, which is just as much a natural right as the right to know the truth; and that the same principle, carried out in all the matters of life, would place every man at the mercy of any impudent questioner whose social standing forces the questioned to answer with the tongue what can be only answered properly with the boot. All this is not enough. For the advocates of this doctrine, shrinking from the logical results of their conclusions, teach a direct violation of truth, while pretending to assert its claims.

For Dr. Whewell, like others, while gainsaying the right of an author to make a direct denial, in this case admits that he may ward off the attack upon his secrecy in the best manner he can; he may parry the question, he may turn the conversation, he may make a non-committal answer, yet it is perfectly plain that if any of these evasions succeed, they succeed because the questioner is deceived. He fancies that he has been answered in the negative, when he has not been answered at all. It is perfectly plain that all the effect of the most barefaced lie has been produced, and has been produced intentionally. But it is not so plain that evasion for the purpose of deception is morally any better than an unblushingly false statement for the same purpose. If there is any choice in the matter, the latter would seem the manlier sin of the two.

There seems to be, in fact, no escape from the conclusion that in the present moral condition of the race, perfect truthfulness is not attainable, and if attainable, not desirable; that the difference between one man and another in the matter of veracity is a difference in degree and not in kind; that truth-telling is a relative, never an absolute characteristic of any man, and that consequently we are all more or less liars. Yet the race steadily, though slowly, approximates to the ideal of absolute right, and though no one can tell all the truth, or tell the truth at all times, though no one is morally bound to do so, yet every one can speak, and is morally bound to speak, the truth, so far as its laws are recognized as obligatory by the men of his age. But let not philosophy torture him, if he is both conscientious and thoughtful, by holding out rules of duty to which he feels he cannot conform his life; or deceive him, if he is conscientious and thoughtless, by leading him to believe he has attained a height which it is not possible, and never will be possible, for him to reach. For, as in mathematics, the line called the asymptote may eternally approach the curve of the hyperbola, and yet never meet it, so in his history man may for ever approach the ideal of abstract truth and yet never realize it. He who never lies belongs not to the present time, but to that good time coming of which we hear so much but see so little. Now, he would be as much out of place as he who never says anything but what he thinks, or he who never preaches what he does not practise. L.

Correspondence.

THE AMERICAN LECTURESHIP AT CAMBRIDGE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I wish to offer a few remarks on Mr. Goldwin Smith's letter, which appeared in The Nation of May 18. From November, 1860, to June, 1861, I was a fellow-commoner at Trinity College, Cambridge, and enjoyed every opportunity of studying English college life among both dons and undergraduates, at a time when the eyes of the civilized world were anxiously fixed upon this country. As one of the three American students in the university, I was constantly questioned as to American affairs by both Union and rebel sympathizers, nearly all of whom displayed gross ignorance and not a little dogmatism while discussing the questions at issue.

I feel very confident that an American professor at Cambridge could do a great deal of good. He could, by associating with the younger and more liberal-minded dons and the older and more mature undergraduates, excite an interest about our national and individual life, in all its varied aspects, that would soon bring large and attentive audiences to his lecture-room. In addition to other gifts, he should possess decided social talent, and the salary attached to his office should be sufficient to enable him to entertain in thoroughly good style. Cultivated Americans travelling abroad would enjoy in his *salons* the society of scholarly Englishmen, they themselves bringing a quota of young ideas fresh from the young country. To such a professor students would come to borrow books and gain information who would never take the trouble to search through an immense collection of miscellaneous works in a public library. Students cannot be expected to learn much about America or on any other subject without teachers as well as books.

Considering the close connection between the university and the church, it would be almost essential that the American professor should hold religious views not opposed to the teachings of the Church of England, and, if any collegiate corporation in this country participated in his nomination, would be highly expedient that it should be an "orthodox" body.

E. C. P.

New York, June 15, 1866.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday, June 21, 1866.

THE panic in the gold market, which on Monday drove up the premium to the neighborhood of 170, has subsided. Gold has been as low as 148½; to-day at 3 P.M. it stands at 150¼. At least one of the leading bulls of the gold room has failed, and others, where default has not been announced, have suffered very severely. Heavy losses have likewise been endured by merchants who had sold gold short with a view to protect themselves against a decline in merchandise; on the one hand they have had to pay out large sums on their sales of gold; and on the other, merchandise having failed to respond to the rise in the premium, they have lost on that too. So uncertain must all kinds of commerce prove while we are on a currency basis. On Tuesday the advance in gold checked the inquiry for bills, and large amounts having collected in second hands, prime bankers' fell to 180. At that figure there is a partial revival of the inquiry, on the decline in gold to the neighborhood of 150. But shipments have naturally been checked for the present. They will not be renewed unless the bears in the gold room should force down the premium to the figures of April last, or the fall importations should prove heavier than is anticipated. Congress is investigating the subject of Mr. McCulloch's recent gold and stock operations. It would seem from a letter written by that functionary to Congress that he has been operating not only in gold but in ten-forties, seven-thirties, and five-twenties, buying as well as selling, of course for the account and risk of Government, with the public money, and with the knowledge only of certain privileged firms. This calls for inquiry and reform.

Money is a drug at 5 per cent. The banks have been turning their gold into greenbacks, and the accumulation at this point is very large indeed. Nothing further has transpired with regard to the proposed 5 per cent. funding loan; the impression is that the scheme will be abandoned, and that the Secretary will be left with powers substantially the same as those which he now possesses.

Speculation has for the time deserted stocks for the livelier arena of the gold room. More than half the railway stocks on the list are what is called "cliqued;" that is to say, they are held in large blocks by cliques at prices which are generally considered too high. The public will not buy them, and dare not sell them short for fear of corners. This is the case with New York Central, Hudson, Reading, Michigan Southern, Pittsburgh and Fort Wayne. The bulk of the transactions reported in these stocks are understood to be for the members of the various cliques. Erie has been active as usual. The short interest is so large that a few leading holders by refusing to lend their stock have made it scarce again, and it has been loaned at 1-32 and 1-16 per day. The long-expected dividend of 5 per cent. has been declared on the Reading. Governments are all higher, on the rise in gold. Five-twenties have sold at 103½. With gold even at 150, no large amount of foreign bonds can be imported from Europe except at a loss, which the foreign holders will not care to incur.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 14.	June 18.	June 21.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	106	106	106	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	102¼	103¾	103¾	....	¾
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102¼	103	102⅝	....	⅜
10-40 Bonds	96¼	96⅝	96⅝	....	....
7.30 Notes, second series	102¾	102⅝	102¾	⅛	....
New York Central	98¼	99¼	99	....	¼
Erie Railway	59⅛	59⅛	58	....	1⅛
Hudson River	110	110¼	112	1¾	....
Reading Railroad	109¼	109¼	109	....	¼
Michigan Southern	79	78¼	79¼	⅛	....
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	82¼	83¼	85	1¼	....
Chicago and North-western	30¾	30	30	....	....
Chicago & North-Western, Preferred	59¾	59	59	....	....
Chicago and Rock Island	91½	93¾	95¼	1½	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	97¼	97	98	1	....
Canton	58¾	60¼	59	....	1¼
Cumberland	45	44½	45½	1	....
Mariposa	11½	11¼	11½	¼	....
American Gold	147½	158	150½	....	7½
Bankers' Bills on London	109⅞	108	108¼	¼	....
Call Loans	6	6	5	....	1

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Assets, 1st Jan., 1866, - - - - 3,598,674 14
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Total profit for eleven years... $1,896,330
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The Nation.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MONDAY EVENING, JUNE 25, 1866. NO. 60

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*** A limited number of copies of all back numbers of* THE NATION, *except No. 1, may be had on application at this office.*

Topics of the Day.

THE most remarkable incident of the week has been the President's message, reporting his action in the matter of the submission of the Constitutional Amendment to the legislatures of the several States. The document is very characteristic. While the amendment was under discussion he remained studiously silent about it, and now that nothing remains but to secure its ratification by the State legislatures he brings forward his objections to it, of which the principal are (1) that it has not had his approval; (2) that the South was not represented in Congress when it was adopted; and (3) that inasmuch as "the sovereign people of the nation" had never heard of it when they elected the various State legislatures which are now to be called upon to ratify it, the legislatures may be incompetent to express their views. The futility, to use no stronger term, of all this is so glaring, that we cannot help believing that Mr. Johnson's real object in bringing it forward is to impress the South more strongly than ever with the belief that it is foully wronged, and that the passage of this amendment will be a fresh outrage, and that Andrew Johnson is its only earthly friend. In fact, it is what Mr. Johnson himself on one occasion called "an *ad captandum* appeal." His hostility to it might as well have been taken for granted, for, of course, it was not part of "his policy." The absence of the Southern delegates when it was adopted, if it have any value as an objection, would invalidate every act of Congress passed since the first Southern delegate applied for admission and was refused. As regards the inability of the State legislatures to express the sentiments of "the sovereign people" on this subject, we earnestly and respectfully advise Mr. Johnson to let the sovereign people settle their own relations with their legislatures. He is not called upon either by law or usage or the war power to see that the State legislatures express the popular sentiments, and the demands on his time are so heavy already that we fear the addition of this little matter to the number of his tasks would overwhelm him. Besides which, the Constitution nowhere requires a new election of State legislatures for the ratification of constitutional amendments.

THE Committee of Ways and Means has recommended a large increase in the duties on light wines, which, if adopted, will, we are satisfied, be in the long run a serious injury to the wine-growers of this country, whom it is doubtless the object of the committee to encourage, and will do much to prolong the reign of the distillers of spirituous liquors, whose productions are at present an almost unmitigated curse to the community. There is no doubt that America will one day be one of the greatest, if not the greatest, wine regions in the world, but this consummation will never be brought about until the population has acquired a taste for light wines, and this taste it is not likely to acquire as long as good light wines are made artificially dear. At present the national palate, both North and South, is deadened by whiskey, and to whiskey people will stick unless they are tempted into the use of other and better beverages by their cheapness. The high duties on cheap foreign wines really do not benefit the native wine-grower, but the native distiller. The consumers of Missouri and California wines will come, whenever they do come, from among men who have learned to love foreign clarets and hocks and burgundies, and not from amongst those whose only stimulant is Kentucky bourbon and New England rum; and the manufacture of these commodities is one which we hold every legislator to be bound on the highest grounds to discourage by every means in his power.

MEMBERS of Congress now rarely speak on a question of any importance without prefixing to the main body of the argument an enquiry into the practice of the ancients, the facts of which are generally gleaned, no doubt, from "Lemprière's Classical Dictionary" and "Plutarch's Lives." Some speakers get so far back occasionally that they get lost in the mists of antiquity. Mr. Deming, of Connecticut, when arguing in favor of Grant's being made a full general, instituted an investigation into the practice of the earlier Pharaohs, which was of the highest interest and showed clearly that Grant ought to have the place. The other day in Brooklyn, in a libel case in which a local politician named Strong is the plaintiff, the counsel for the defendant, by way of giving the jury a vivid idea of Strong's worthlessness, asked them "to think of Epaminondas and Fabricius, of all the heroes and martyrs who have offered their lives for the cause of mankind," of John Bright and Richard Cobden, and then "to turn and contemplate Strong, *if they could.*" There is clearly a great classical revival going on among our lawyers and legislators, and there is no knowing where it may end. It may possibly produce some good fruits eventually, but up to the present all we have gained by it is the addition to our stock of nonsense of some of the most amusing rubbish ever uttered.

THE Board of Health is now being bombarded with injunctions. Judge Cardozo is supplying this ammunition to the butchers, who insist upon driving cattle through the streets and slaughtering them in populous districts as a heaven-born right, and Judge McCunn supplies it to the liquor dealers. The art of enjoining, which once played a prominent part in city politics, but has lately fallen into disuse, we may now expect to see revived, and the courts kept in full activity during the summer.

MRS. JAMES GORDON BENNETT, who has "borne with calmness the most fearful abuse and calumnies," strangely enough sees fit to publish a card declaring that she did not use her influence to procure a confirmation of Mr. Fleurat's nomination to a consulship. Our sympathies are with the lady if she suffers from the fabrications of the correspondent, otherwise we are at a loss to know why they should have called forth so indignant a denial. Probably nobody believed the story, and

if everybody had believed it, we cannot see that charging her with dabbling in politics, so far as to seek to do a good turn for a friend, is very fearful abuse, though it is doubtless sufficiently impudent and ungentlemanly. But if gross misrepresentations of fact, insinuated lies, imputations of mean motives, are the stock in trade of half our New York and Washington correspondents, and the stuff which they concoct finds its way not only into the daily newspapers, but into the journals of literature, art, and news which profess to take a high moral stand, it ought to be remembered that the commonwealth of journalism owes the disgrace rather to James Gordon Bennett's paper than to any other source.

It is almost impossible to take up a newspaper without finding an account of some terrible murder. A horrifying list of atrocious crimes might be compiled from the record of the last few months in the East, and in the West the very spirit of Cain seems to walk in the woods and fields as well as in the cities. One feels safer to learn that the Connecticut Legislature has reconsidered its vote delaying the execution of Albert Starkweather till a year from the coming fall. That matricide robber has been shamming insanity of late, and people go and look at him and find something very queer in the look of his eyes. He has lucid intervals now and then, and has perfected one plan of escape which involved the murder of a warden, and that he prepared himself for by making a dagger out of a shoe-knife. Had it not been that he was betrayed by a woman of ill repute with whom he was negotiating, the turnkey and the access of his methodical madness would have probably come together some night, and the assassin would have added one more victim to the three or four whom he has killed already.

The last advices from Europe are not of blows, but they are of steps which infallibly lead to blows. Prussia has pushed Austria out of Altona—the only footing she had in Holstein, has dissolved the Holstein estates and arrested the Holstein Government commissioner, and is preparing a new government for the two duchies. Austria, as heretofore, retreats and protests, and finally, being pricked by this last humiliation, withdraws her ambassador from Berlin. She also moves in the Diet that, Prussia having violated several articles of the Federal Pact, the immediate mobilization of the whole Federal army, except the Prussian contingent, be ordered. Prussia gives warning that the issuing of that order will involve the dissolution of the German confederation and her own release from any obligations but those of military expediency. Austria is said to have proposed as a reform measure a parliament elected by the direct votes of the German people, and, as a national executive, a directory of three, the presidency to be assumed in a fixed rotation. Prussia proposes by circular a plan which leaves Austria out in the cold, and by which, among other provisions, the ports and fleets of the new confederation are to be placed under her own control. If we add that the Diet has removed from the Federal ports the troops of both the contending powers, that Austria has called on Switzerland to guard well the Italian passes, that Garibaldi is at Como, that Russia is mobilizing 100,000 soldiers, and that Turkey is preparing to invade the Principalities under the captaincy of Omar Pasha, we have presented all that is now known of the Continental "situation." This view, to be sure, leaves out France and England. The Emperor has written a letter to Drouyn de Lhuys, in which certain *idées Napoléoniennes* are curiously unconcealed. One is, that he never meant to make the Rhine the boundary of France unless he could do so when territorial aggrandizement was going on elsewhere in Europe; another, that the Rhine provinces would be kidnapped only upon their "free and formal vote" in favor of being stolen. In the House of Commons, Mr. Kinglake put some questions to Mr. Gladstone touching England's behavior in the present crisis, and in a remarkably clear and able manner, in which his approbation of the ultimate aim of Italy was not disguised, showed, nevertheless, that Austria had given her no other *casus belli* than that which has existed since the peace of Villafranca, and that, whether she be right or wrong in making an opportunity of her neighbor's necessity, it was for other powers to consider what right they had to encourage her to become the disturbing element of Europe.

CONGRESS.

Wednesday, June 20.—In the Senate, the Committee on Naval Affairs reported, without amendment, the bill authorizing the Secretary of the Navy to accept League Island for a naval station. The reading of the tax bill was commenced.

In the House a bill to increase the pensions of widows and orphans, and for other purposes, was read three times and passed under the "previous question." The bill to aid in the construction of the California and Oregon railroad and telegraph was recommitted. The Senate substitute for the Paris Exhibition bill was taken up by the persistence of Mr. Banks, after sharp opposition by Messrs. Washburne and Stevens, and, the House adhering to its own bill, a committee of conference was appointed.

June 21.—In the Senate, a resolution was passed instructing the Committee on Public Grounds to consider the expediency of purchasing certain lots east of the Capitol for a national park and new Presidential mansion. The tax bill was still further discussed and amended.

In the House, a bill to re-organize the Treasury Department and fix the pay of its employees, reported by Mr. Morrill, was read twice and recommitted. A resolution was passed to investigate certain recent errors in the reckoning of mileage, and to examine the whole subject with a view to a more equitable payment of travelling expenses. The army bill was passed—yeas, 72; nays, 41.

June 22.—In the Senate, page 233 out of 244 of the tax bill was reached. A message was read from the President, submitting a report from the Secretary of State which showed that the latter had transmitted the lately proposed amendment to the Constitution to the executives of the several States. The President took occasion to clear himself of all complicity with the amendment; to complain that it had not been submitted to him for his approval, that eleven out of thirty-six States are unjustly excluded from Congress, that the "sovereign people of the nation" have had no opportunity of expressing their views on the amendment; and to conclude that there are "grave doubts whether the action of Congress is in harmony with the sentiment of the people, and whether State legislatures, elected without reference to such an issue should be called upon" to ratify the amendment.

In the House, a bill authorizing a bridge over the Mississippi at Rock Island was passed. The message of the President was referred to the Committee on Reconstruction. The Indian appropriation bill was passed. Also, Senate bill providing for the revision and consolidation of the United States statutes. The Committee on the Judiciary was instructed to enquire into the expediency of reporting a bill for the direction of United States district judges and attorneys in regard to enforcing the test oath at the South.

June 23.—In the Senate, a joint resolution was passed to provide for an official history of the rebellion.

The House, after passing a number of private bills, adjourned, with the customary resolutions, out of respect to the Hon. James Humphrey, lately a member of that body, from New York.

THE FREEDMEN.

Gen. Scott, assistant commissioner for South Carolina, contradicts the charges of Gens. Steedman and Fullerton against Chaplain French and Lieut. Lott. He denies that these officers are running plantations, or have anything to do with planting, directly or indirectly. As Gen. Scott was especially excepted from the almost indiscriminate censure of the President's emissaries, he must be accepted as a competent witness, even against themselves.

—Superintendent Tomlinson reports 75 schools in South Carolina, with 9,017 pupils, and an average attendance of 6,574. There are 148 teachers, of whom 58 are natives and fifty colored. One other school, from which there were no returns, would swell the number of pupils to 10,000. The interest of the colored people in the schools continues unabated, and that of the white people is growing; yet there are some places where it is said no school could be established, nor tolerated after the garrison has been withdrawn. A very successful public examination of the colored school held in the Normal School building took place in Charleston, May 30th.

—Virginia counts 225 teachers of colored schools and 17,589 pupils, whose average attendance is 12,930. In Florida there have been several cases lately of violence done to teachers. The colored people of Helena, Arkansas, have voted to ask General Sprague to tax them for the support of their schools. Several colored schools have recently been opened in Raleigh, North Carolina, by "colored teachers who are competent, and who were born and raised amongst us," to use the language of the Raleigh *Sentinel*, which is opposed to Northern "school-marms," as it chooses to call them.

—There is said to be a combination of negroes in Cherokee County, Alabama, who have bound themselves not to work for less than $2 per day during the present harvest, under penalty of receiving fifty lashes. If they had only voted to hinder all other negroes from working for less than these wages, they would have been as enlightened as the caulkers and ship-carpenters of the three foremost cities in the Union.

Notes.

LITERARY.

It is one of the special provinces of modern historical investigation to find out the good that can be said about the most maligned characters of the past. The Emperor Napoleon has shown the bright side of Catiline, a learned German, Stahr, has given us a defence of Tiberius, Mr. Froude has set forth the virtues and graces of Henry the Eighth, and now we have an apologist for the Stuarts. Hardly an apologist, however, for Mr. Robert Bell, in his recent paper in the "Fortnightly Review," only aims to state facts that have been generally overlooked in the general condemnation that the two Charleses and James the Second are visited with. The two good and wise actions that Mr. Bell puts to their credit are the foundation of the navy and the establishment of the post-office. At the accession of Elizabeth, the coast of England was entirely defenceless, and liable to be ravaged at pleasure by French and Dutch adventurers. After twenty years of work, all she could raise was twenty-four ships, the largest of only 1,000 tons. In fifteen years James I. added seventeen vessels to the navy of Elizabeth, one of them of 1,400 tons, the largest vessel ever built in England up to that time. Charles I. built still larger ships, and fitted out for sea three complete fleets in three successive years. Notwithstanding the wars, he left the navy in much better condition than he found it. Under the Commonwealth the navy suffered greatly, and the commercial marine became almost extinct. At the Restoration there was a debt on the navy of £374,000, and its bills were at a discount of twenty per cent. Both Charles II. and James II. took great personal interest in the navy, and raised money for it in different ways, even from their private purses. It was only by the faith and perseverance of Charles II. that the navy was maintained at all. But in 1664 an English fleet of one hundred and fourteen men-of-war and frigates, and twenty-eight fire-ships and ketches, sailed for the Dutch coast while the Dutch were still engaged in preparation. In 1672 another English fleet of upwards of one hundred sail was fitted out. The ship-yards were kept constantly at work and ships were always building during both their reigns, and the present maritime power of England is almost entirely owing to their exertions. Up to the time of James I. there was no post in England. All letters were sent by messengers. He instituted first a foreign postal service by which all letters were carried to the Continent. The horse-posts in England were only for Government service, and it was not until 1635 that a letter-post was established between London and Edinburgh. A table of postal charges was introduced, and several branch routes started. From [illegible] the system rapidly expanded, though much opposition was met with at first to the system, which was violently denounced as tyrannical, as it prevented Englishmen from sending letters as they pleased by private hands. The Penny Post was started in 1680 by a Mr. Docwray, of London, and met with great success, when it was seized by the Government and carried on by them. Mr. Docwray was afterward granted a pension out of the post-office revenues, until he abused the position which he held of Comptroller of the District Post, when he was deprived of everything.

—On his return from Rome, after permission to use the Vatican MS. text of the New Testament had been withdrawn, Prof. Tischendorf stopped at Turin to examine the fragments of Ulfilas that had lately been found there. The fragments were only four leaves of parchment that came from the celebrated Ligurian monastery of Bobio, and which, after being for some years in the library at Turin, Dr. Reifferscheidt discovered to belong to the patristic palimpsest in the Ambrosian library at Milan, from which fragments of Ulfilas had been recovered by Mai and Castiglione. The application of Gioberline tincture and other chemicals, however, failed to restore the erased writing so that it could be deciphered. Some words and fragments of words could be seen, but nothing more could be made out, even when the parchment was held up to the light and most carefully examined.

—The first volume of the "Memoirs of Maximilian, Emperor of Mexico," is announced by a Leipzic publisher. It is a reproduction of the account of the Emperor's travels, of which a very few copies, issued from the imperial printing press of Vienna, had been distributed to members of the imperial family and to a few intimate friends, with a request not to publish any extract. This prohibition must have been removed, unless the Leipzic publisher has obtained a copy surreptitiously, and is printing it without the consent of the author.

—The remarkable discovery of Dante's remains at Ravenna last summer was commented on in the papers at the time. It is, however, but recently that the official report of the commission of the Italian Government has been made public. A writer in the June number of the "Cornhill Magazine" gives an account of his difficulties in finding the report. After examinations of all the libraries in Florence, he at last received information that the report was in the office of the Minister of Public Instruction, where, after several visits, he found it. The report was not printed until last fall, and had never been published. It contains full details of the finding of the wooden chest containing the remains, and of the measurement and examination of the bones. The registers of the convent were searched, and all the data obtained that could be of the removal of the bones from the sepulchre, and the reasons therefor. The cavity of the cranium was filled with rice, in order to ascertain the probable weight of the brain. The rice weighed 3.1319 lbs. avoirdupois. The diameter of the cranium, from the occiput to the frontal bone, was thirty-one centimetres and seven millimetres; the transverse diameter, taken between the ears, thirty-one centimetres and eight millimetres, and the vertical diameter fourteen centimetres. On a careful comparison, the mask of the poet preserved in the Uffizi gallery, Florence, was found to be in all respects similar in configuration to the cranium found at Ravenna. The length of the nasal bones agreed precisely, and the same remark applies to all other parts which admitted of measurement.

—The fourteenth volume of the "Etudes Contemporaines" of M. Philarète Chasles has just been published. These studies are a résumé of all the ideas which the author has published during thirty years; they include almost the whole of European civilization. He has neglected none of the great countries and none of the great epochs. M. Chasles is in some sort a literary pioneer. He was one of the first to make the French world acquainted with the literature of other countries, and led the way to a vast number of followers. One chief idea pervades all his fourteen volumes—the difference that separates the Latin and the Germanic races—an idea which governs the development and the contrasts not only of the arts and literature, but also of society, religion, and manners among the two principal groups of people that make up modern civilization. No one has insisted on this difference more than M. Chasles, and no one has better appreciated its consequences. The present volume is specially devoted to the changing details of our manners, and to the variations that contemporary ideas and habits have undergone during the last twenty years. Some of the subjects treated of are: "Woman's part in the family;" "Growth of vice at the large centres;" "Oddities of female dress and the crusade that they have excited;" "Irruption of slang into the ordinary language;" "New condition of literary men."

—The citizens of Rouen are desirous of erecting a monument to Jeanne Darc, and wish to attach to it the celebrated "Tour du Donjon" which belongs to the Ursuline convent of that place. Objections were made to alienating the property of the church, but subsequent investigations showing that it was possible to sell the tower separately from the convent, the Archbishop of Rouen, Cardinal de Bonnechose, has given his consent, and the "Tour de Jeanne Darc" is to become the property of the city of Rouen, and be connected with an expiatory monument to the liberatress of France.

—A very interesting discovery in the history of art has just been made by M. Armand Baschet, a French writer and antiquarian of considerable merit. In searching through the archives of Mantua in order to find, if he could, some details of the life of Rubens at that court, about which little had been hitherto known, he hit on a complete series of letters of Rubens, as well as a number of official documents and papers of the duke, concerning him and his mission to Spain. His name first appears in July, 1601, in a letter of recommendation to the Cardinal Montalto, on his going to Rome to copy some pictures. The most interesting documents are the letters of Rubens himself, descriptive of his journey to Spain, where he had been sent to take some paintings to the all-powerful minister, the Duke of Lerma. He speaks with a freedom and a liberty of speech and idea that must greatly have surprised the functionaries of an Italian court. The details that he gives of the damaged state in which the paintings arrived, and the trouble he had to restore them, are very curious. He succeeded so well that the copies executed at Rome, and retouched by his skilful pencil, were taken for originals of the great masters by the Duke of Lerma, who was in ecstacies over the sumptuous gifts of the Duke of Mantua. These pictures are probably still put down as originals in Spanish catalogues, and the list of them that M. Baschet is going to publish will cause disappointment to their actual possessors.

—Recent announcements by Little, Brown & Co. are "The Character of Jesus Portrayed, a Biblical Essay, by Dr. Daniel Schenkel, professor of theology in Heidelberg, translated by W. H. Furness, D.D.;" the ninth volume of Bancroft's "History;" "Principles of Wealth, a Manual of Political Economy," by Amasa Walker; "Plutarch's Morals," a corrected and revised translation by Prof. Goodwin, of Harvard College; "Old Plays

chiefly from the period beginning with Marlowe and ending with Dryden, with introductions and notes, by Prof. James Russell Lowell," in ten volumes; and reprints of More's "Utopia" and Walton's "Angler." They also announce a new law magazine in the early autumn. Scribner, Welford & Co. announce the republication of a translation of "The Life of Christ," by the Rev. E. de Pressensé, a Protestant minister of Paris, a work which called out a personal mark of approbation from the Catholic archbishop of that city. Gould & Lincoln are about to publish a "Memoir of George N. Briggs, LL.D., late Governor of Massachusetts," by Rev. W. C. Richards. An edition of "The 'Albert-Nyanza'—Great Basin of the Nile, and explorations of the Nile Sources," by Samuel White Baker, M.A., F.R.G.S., has just been issued by J. B. Lippincott & Co.

—Mr. John Meredith Read, Jr., whose "Historical Enquiry concerning Henry Hudson" we noticed a few days ago, has not abandoned his researches in the same direction. One object of printing that *brochure*—a discourse before the Historical Society of Delaware—was to call public attention to his labors, and to obtain information from all disposed to contribute it. He is already occupied in procuring from England copies of rare documents drawn from original sources. From the same quarter, too, we understand, he has hopes of gathering material which will solve two other interesting historical problems, and afford scope for a new volume on a leading subject. Mr. Read's address is Albany, and he will be grateful for any communication of facts relating directly or collaterally to Hudson, his kindred, or his descendants.

EDUCATIONAL.

Rev. Warren Burton, a graduate of Harvard in 1821, whose death occurred at Salem on the 6th of June, was well known in eastern New England for his writings on education and for his labors in various cities and towns to promote the instruction of the young. His "District School as it was, by one who went to it" is a capital picture, full of wisdom and humor, of the old-fashioned country schools, which have done so much for the culture of New England.

Of late years he devoted himself to a very interesting specialty in the broad field of educational labor. Believing that as public and private schools improved in character, and as teachers became more and more skilful, parents were liable to become negligent and unskilful, he went about the country, like a missionary, holding public meetings and giving sensible lectures on the subject of "home education." He aimed to incite parents to greater diligence and skill in watching over their children, and to make them feel that, however good the school might be, the home was, after all, the most efficacious and important influence in the development of the youthful mind.

In England an admirable volume was published on this subject some years ago by Isaac Taylor, a profound and philosophical thinker; but it is not adapted exactly to the conditions of American life. Mr. Burton understood our own people, and labored skilfully for their improvement and elevation.

MARTINEAU'S ESSAYS.*

Professor Martineau's essays are remarkable not so much for presenting any new phases of philosophical or theological doctrine, or even of new arguments for the positions of his school, as for the tact and sound practical judgment with which he has measured modern movements of thought and the tendencies of modern discussions, and signalized the principles on which that phase of Protestant Christianity which he represents must make its stand.

To speak with authority—to testify at the same time against ecclesiastical assumption in matters of religious belief, and to meet, on the other hand, the doubts and objections of the current scientific philosophy, it is clear that the theological teacher must, to a great extent, be his own prophet. A reforming religion, which is still a religion, must appeal from one authority to another. As the older Protestantism appealed from the Church to the Fathers and the canonical Scriptures, so the modern extreme of Protestantism appeals from the literal Scriptures to the reason and conscience of instructed and disciplined Christian men and women, as depositories of sacred truth not less authoritative than the historical documents themselves.

But a reason and a conscience that can be thus authoritative, even to the criticism of the sacred Scriptures, must be more than merely receptive or instructed representatives of revealed truth. They must be capable of reproducing it; not, indeed, at once and in the perfection which the truth has attained in the growth of centuries, but still by the instincts which the truth has only quickened and by a power which the truth does not create. Hence an essential philosophical position of that liberal Christianity which would still speak with authority, is that the native and original powers of the mind hold potentially the key to all divine knowledge; that every doctrine which can rightly claim the believer's assent must find its voucher in the believer's own instincts; that faith is the most certain kind of knowledge to those who have found their religious instincts answered in their creed. The *credo ut intelligam* of all religious philosophies means in this philosophy the yielding of the proud and wilful thought to the willing heart—not the trying on of creeds. This philosophy represents the reason as a native power of absolute knowledge, which cannot, however, possess itself of its inheritance save by repeated struggles and by the aid of outward and historical appliances.

Such being the ultimate ground of the religious authority which extreme Protestantism can exercise, it behooves our author, as he clearly sees, to vindicate against all opponents the philosophical doctrine of rationalism. His essays are accordingly directed chiefly against the experiential philosophy, as set forth in its several aspects by Comte, Mill, Bain, and Spencer. In Hamilton's "Philosophy of the Conditioned," as applied by Mr. Mansel to religious ideas, he meets his opponents on the theological side, who have come, as it were, by a flank movement over from the phenomenal philosophy into the camp of the ecclesiastics. With this power on its own grounds he does not feel called upon to deal very vigorously; but he battles most manfully against the tenets of positivism, with no loss of faith or courage from being apparently on the losing side.

Saving the merit we have mentioned, the excellences of these essays are mainly personal. With a style of most persuasive eloquence and with the sincerity of a clear and open-eyed faith, Mr. Martineau overwhelms by irresistible assault all spiritual opposition, and fails to win the battle only because the doubt he lays siege to is not the doubt of dull or faltering spirits, nor one which can be dissipated, like a mist, with the warmth of zeal and trust. Dealing, as he really does, with philosophers not less clear and earnest in their opinions than himself, his rhetoric is often misplaced. In the midst of keen discussion his meaning vanishes into a cloud, which is none the less obscuring for its brilliant and alluring colors.

The leading essay on "Comte's Life and Philosophy" has until lately been one of the chief sources of the general English reader's ideas of the religious character of positivism. Exhibiting great fairness of spirit and as much fairness of understanding as could be expected from a deeply interested opposition, this review yet fails to discriminate the really earnest beliefs of this school from the dogmatic atheism of the theologian's traditional and imaginary opponent.

It appears to be beyond the author's power of conception and credulity to believe that real excellences of character can be hoped for, and earnestly sought for, without a belief in their actual and present realization in an object of religious veneration. He takes offence at the pretension that the positivist can believe in any object worth his life's devotion, or that he can aim at the happiness of unselfish pursuits unless he renounces his scepticism and adopts the positions or "constants" of a religious philosophy. On the positivist's "type of real perfection, below which we must still remain, though it invites our persevering efforts to continual approximation," he observes: "May we not ask, *Where*, then, do you find this 'type of real perfection above us?' Is it indeed *real* to you? Or is it ideal, and that in the poor sense of being merely imaginary?" To this the positivist might answer, "Why is it necessary that we should 'find' this perfection realized in order practically to believe in its possibility, and to strive for it? Are the *savant* in his search for a more and more perfect knowledge, and the artist in his efforts to reach a more perfect ideal of expression and beauty—are they necessarily platonists, believers in the supersensible reality of ideals? Religions alone, or rather religious philosophies, postulate as essential to progress an actual contemplation of its end; but to every one who believes in a *better* than has been attained, the evidence of its possibility lies within the limits of his common human experience. Every man's sagacity outstrips his understanding, his purposes, and his performance; but does it on that account deserve *apotheosis*—to be called the reason, and be made participant of the absolutely true and beautiful and good? Or is it on that account evident that the sagacity is not informed like the understanding by experience?"

To the poetical representation of the phenomenon of progress as a growth or an effort to grow in a formative plastic power within us, there can be no exception taken on grounds of poetical truth; but to stake the moral culture and aspirations of the human race on the dogmatic truth of platonism, as our author does, is to limit the highest human interests by the conditions of a personal peculiarity.

* "Essays, Philosophical and Theological. By James Martineau." Boston: Wm. V. Spencer. 1866.

Mr. Martineau is platonic in his temperament, like his master the poet-philosopher Coleridge, but his gifts have a more practical turn, and he exerts himself in defence of the *à priori* philosophy not merely from a poetical instinct, but as the sagacious leader in a school of theology. He grants his opponents large latitude at the outset. All the world of physical science, all phenomena and their laws, are allowed to the experience philosophy. Inductive methods must deal with all these; but then inductive methods cannot take a step without starting from the unprogressive "ideas of causality, of soul, of God, of substance." If, on account of the unprogressive character of these ideas, the name of knowledge be denied them, the author does not object, "provided it be understood that they are, if not knowledge, the conditions of knowledge; if not the object seen, the light by which we see them." From these "constants" of religious philosophy he allows no abatement. They are essential articles of faith, and faith is knowledge. At least faith has all the certainty of knowledge, and only differs from it in not being acquired. It is almost a moral offence with our author to regard the principles of causality and substance as empirical generalizations of our experience of the connections of phenomena, or as hypotheses to account for these connections; and it is a sad moral delinquency not to see that these principles are recognitions by the reason *à priori* of the *necessity* of such connections. Power as well as phenomena—power as opposed to phenomena—belongs to the province of intuitive knowledge. And there are two distinct sources of knowledge, and both are concerned with all that we know. Physical as well as moral science has its postulate of pure reason. In short, Mr. Martineau lays down the *à priori* theory in all its purity, and holds to it on practical as well as theoretical grounds as essential not only to a religious philosophy, but also to a religious life; essential, that is, to every nobility of character and to every form of devotion. By those who have not studied metaphysics, these articles of faith are, of course, implicitly assented to, though the disciple may not be aware of possessing two independent sources of knowledge, or be on his guard against the wiles of the experiential philosophy.

It is, of course, important for the author to make out that the apostles of this philosophy are not very admirable men. With Comte the case was not very difficult; but when he comes to the great English champion of this school he speaks with some obscurity and hesitation. He experiences in the tone of Mill's writings "a singular impression of melancholy and unrest." But "a certain air of suppression" is the "greatest fault" he finds in him, "and the shade which it passes across his face is sometimes so strong" to our author's vision "as almost to darken the philosopher into the mystagogue," as if he regarded the world as unprepared for his lessons. No greater misinterpretation of a most natural and courteous reserve could be imagined; but it is a very instructive illustration of a deficiency of sympathy or insight, which is not uncommon with thinkers of Mr. Martineau's type of mind. Capable of infinite degrees of the love or the sympathy which looks upwards or downwards in reverent devotion or in tender pity, this temper admits of little real sympathy with what is around it but is not of its own household. Liberal to an extreme towards the opinions of students in science and in Biblical criticism, our author withholds his toleration from whatever interests him "from the moral side," if it be beyond the pale of the *à priori* philosophy.

MAGAZINES FOR JULY.

The "Atlantic" this month is unusually rich in distinguished names—Bryant, Lowell, Longfellow, Agassiz, Goldwin Smith, Bayard Taylor, Mrs. Stowe, and Charles Reade are among the contributors, and the contribution of the last-named writer, at least, is in his best manner. The interest of his "Griffith Gaunt" reaches a great pitch in these four chapters. The critics who thought the novel intended to show the dangers which follow the intermarriage of Roman Catholics with Protestants are probably by this time a little doubtful of their position. The immorality which other critics charge against it, our more robust virtue, or less acute perception, will not let us discover, and we are enjoying the story very much indeed. It is observable that in this novel the author has not, as too often before, spent a good part of his strength on extraneous matters, but everything tends to the development of the characters and to bring on the catastrophe. The opening article, "The Case of George Dedlow," begins well and ends in a very trifling way. Broussais would have been delighted with a patient who finds that the amputation of both legs and both arms has really diminished his sense of his own individuality, that the loss of half his sensitive surfaces has deprived him of his soul—as if the divine discontent were a function of the skin—the itch for immortality cutaneous, like *septennis psoriasis*. Goldwin Smith's "Englishman in Normandy" makes one remember the Englishman who every morning thanked God that he was not a Frenchman. He bitterly hates the second empire, which was to be expected, for he is a lover of liberty and a Christian, and he seems to entertain a contempt for the whole people, which was not quite to be expected, and which seems rather to be fortified by his reasons than born of them. Bayard Taylor in a pleasant paper makes us acquainted with the late Friedrich Rückert, a Bavarian, who yet was fellow-countryman with Saadi, and gives some scraps of translation which make us wish for more. "The Physical History of the Valley of the Amazons," which contains the record of the one day that the professor could spend in the pure enjoyment of nature in "a forest of monocotyledonous trees, with a dicotyledenous undergrowth," will have great attractions for many persons—for lovers of nature as well as for naturalists. Somebody writes a piece entitled "Aunt Judy." "Back through the tender twilight of my one dim dream of a sinless childhood I catch that accusing glimpse of my mother—and myself. And as I stand here on this shapeless cairn of remorses which, after forty years, I have piled on my butchered and buried promises," etc. It goes on even more strenuously, and piles up the agony, as the actors say, as well as the "cairns of remorses." We sincerely hope, for his own sake, that the writer is not really, as he seems to assert, forty-odd years old. Mrs. Stowe believes that the race of man is as pious as it ever will be till its health is better, and its ill health she attributes mainly to the want of ventilation in houses, schools, churches, court-rooms, and buildings generally. She praises an article in the May number of "Harper's," which, however, should be read in connection with an article in No. 49 of The Nation. The rest of the prose articles are the "Passages from Hawthorne's Notebook," "The Great Doctor," "A Bundle of Bones," a clear, truthful account of "The Siege of Knoxville," written by Major Burrage, one of its gallant defenders, and a curious and instructive paper, which its readers will wish longer, on "The Medicine Men of our Indian Tribes." For poetry we have stanzas by Mrs. Whitney; Longfellow contributes a sonnet about "the poet saturnine," which is pretty; Bryant an eloquent ode, the music of which reminds of Milton, and Lowell has a jocose trifle on a socdologer—we should have thought it; a sogdologer, he calls it—of a seven-pound trout.

"Our Young Folks" for this month seems to show that there is a dearth of such people as can be depended on to keep a children's magazine full. If we were going to select the very last sort of mental pabulum which even an omnivorous boy could be got to swallow, or could pretend to digest, we should select art-criticism as that sort. Mr. Aldrich's article about the studios has a mouthful or two of it, and generally of that pleasant piece we should say that about one in five hundred of the juvenile subscribers will like it, and about one in five of older readers will dislike it. The same is true of "Midsummer." "Afloat in the Forest" shows how very badly Capt. Mayne Reid is willing to do for money. Carleton gives a vivid description of Dupont at Port Royal, and Mr. Higginson's and Mrs. Stowe's articles are also excellent and interesting.

Admirers of Eugénie de Guérin will find in the "Catholic World" for July a translation of ten recently published letters of hers, written during her visit to Paris in the winter of 1838–9. They fill a hiatus in her journal. Another selection of merit is an article from the "Dublin Review" upon Origen and the Christian Schools of Alexandria, and for the rest this magazine, as usual, makes the general reader regret the death of "Brownson's Review," whose place it occupies.

"Harper's" for July is good at the beginning, and the end and all the middle is rather feeble and dull. Porte Crayon describes General Patterson's Bull Run campaign, as we may call it, for, although Patterson was not at Manassas, his dilatoriness and its effects are an essential part of Bull Run, as the world knows it. The writer injures rather than benefits his work by remarks and reflections evidently the product of afterthought. But there is not very much of this, and the uncertainty and mortification of that time live over again in his pages—the rawness of the soldiery, the inefficiency of our generals, the rose-water warfare, the insolence of the secessionists, the newness and strangeness of everything, are all depicted by one who was living in the thick of events, and made both pen and pencil serve well the quick eye of a practised observer. From the "Editor in his Easy Chair" we get, as it was hoped we should, his graceful speech made at the Shakespeare dinner of the Century Club, in response to the toast of "Woman," and some preliminary discoursing in answer to the remarks which the speech called forth from Dr. Vinton and Mr. R. G. White. "A Look at Lisbon" is a little dry, but infinitely superior to the flippancy of "Sanctuary Privileges in Rome." "An Hour at Sea" is good, and the article on "Francis Ashbury," the founder of American Methodism, tells in rather a formal style, but with a just appreciation of his enormous labors, the story of that remarkable man.

The "United States Service Magazine" dies, a good deal regretted, we believe, by military men, with the present number. There is to be found in it

a readable article on "Our Navy Yards," which marshals us the way that we seem to be going. It proceeds on the supposition that our future wars will be naval; that our means of building and, what is of almost more consequence, repairing Government vessels are utterly inadequate, and urges the establishment of new yards at several points on our immense coast line. "Screw Propulsion in Naval Warfare" is a readable essay, giving the history of that subject, and the other most noticeable article is a very laudatory biography of Major-General Meade, whom "Grant called the right man in the right place." That was praise certainly; but just what the place was it is of some importance to determine before we say how high praise. Not so high, we think, as the writer supposes, when he imagines the "Rollin" of a few centuries hence oblivious of Sherman and his march, and remembering Meade and Gettysburg. Under the head of "Correspondence" we find some interesting facts, the compilation of which is credited to the Washington correspondent of the Chicago *Tribune*, in reference to the mortality in the Union army during the rebellion. About two men, it appears from these tables, died of disease for one who died on the field or from wounds received in battle. If officers and men had perished in exact proportion to the number of officers and men, there would have been one officer killed for every twenty-five soldiers. But, in fact, one officer was killed for every eighteen soldiers. As to deaths from disease, there should have been twenty-five among the enlisted men to one among the officers; but instead of twenty-five there were ninety. It seems clear, then, that our officers did not shrink from exposing themselves in battle, and likewise it is clear that they were less liable to disease—less liable, probably, by reason of their better and more varied food, better shelter, better opportunity for personal cleanliness, and superior elasticity of mind and moral powers of endurance. This last consideration may account for the very great mortality from disease among the colored troops. Two white soldiers died of disease to one who died in action or from wounds. But for each negro soldier who died in the latter way eight died of disease. To the total number of deaths in battle or from wounds the New England States contributed the highest proportion per thousand. Disregarding fractions, there were 45 such deaths for every thousand New-Englanders in service. Of a thousand Middle States men 32 so died, of a thousand Westerners 37, of a thousand from the Border States 25. But though among the groups of States, New England, with Vermont at the head, thus excels, there is one Western State, a child of New England's, which surpassed her in this dismal pursuit of glory: Kansas lost 61 men in each thousand that she sent to the war, and she sent more than half her able-bodied men.

"Hours at Home," Scribner & Company's magazine of useful and religious literature, contains the usual quantity of more or less useful and not particularly religious reading. Dr. Philip Schaff treats of "Ancient Hymnology," giving a brief digest of what is known upon that subject; Donald G. Mitchell writes "De Rebus Ruris," and if his practical suggestions to farmers are as useful as his remarks are pleasing and readable, his paper is very much the best in the book. His practicalness has this good effect, at any rate—it may be nothing in itself, but it keeps him from sentimentalizing—a thing which he does so easily, and can do so well after its kind, that we have had something too much of it in his half dozen volumes. There are two features of this magazine which are peculiar to it among American magazines, and which might be made quite attractive. We refer to the long book reviews, embodying extracts from the work under discussion, and its article entitled "Books of the Month"—in which a great deal of current literature gets one or two descriptive sentences.

Lectures on the Study of History. Delivered in Oxford, 1859–61. By Goldwin Smith, M.A. Also, a Lecture delivered before the N. Y. Historical Society, December, 1864, on the University of Oxford. (Harper & Brother, New York.)—A letter to the "Westminster Review," *via* the *Daily News*, on the Moral Freedom of Man, and a lecture on the Foundation of the American Colonies, complete the contents of this volume, indicated only in part by the title. The compilation is more homogeneous than it would at first sight appear. When we have got from a learned professor his idea of the way in which history ought to be studied, nothing could be more in order than that we should test that idea by some study of his own; and of all such studies what more crucial one could be selected for the American reader than this on the foundation of the colonies which have developed into our present Union? Few will be surprised that Prof. Smith passes through this ordeal of the publishers (contrived quite innocently for the American market) with scarcely the smell of criticism on his robes. His admiration of the Puritan character perhaps carries him too far when he says of the church in New England that it has "enduring glory, because intolerance and persecution *instantly* gave way to *perfect* liberty of conscience and free allegiance to the truth." The transition was not immediate, and it is doubtful if it can yet be called complete—at least unless somebody dare affirm that the separation of church and state in New England is complete; as to which Mr. Buck's "Massachusetts Ecclesiastical Law" may be consulted. Nor do we think the lecturer has done full justice to the Indians, whose extrusion and gradual extinction may indeed be philosophically accounted for without by any means glossing the several acts by which an inferior race disappears before a more civilized. This expression cannot be used of Prof. Smith; but he has, we fear, taken too lenient a view of our dealings with the aborigines, though, as the Government treaties have always been more equitable and humane in their phraseology (and perhaps intent) than in their execution by Government agents, the error is one into which a foreigner might naturally fall. Nor is there much force in the suggested apology that the Indians were unsusceptible of the religious enlightenment offered them by the Jesuits and other of the early colonists of America. No such difficulty was the cause of the breaking up of the enterprise at Missionary Ridge, Georgia—a crime for which Prof. Smith may trace an apparent retribution in the battle which slavery lost on the identical spot of its former triumph. But these comments do not affect the general accuracy with which the elements that made up the original colonies are appreciated, and they must not permit us to overlook the thorough sympathy of the lecturer with all that was lofty and far-sighted and philanthropic in the founders of the republic. Here, as when theorizing in the preceding pages, we recognize his profound belief in character as the key to the philosophy of history—character, which determines the moral quality of actions, and in the formation of which nations rise, flourish, and decay, with a sort of tidal progress toward a higher condition of mind and conscience; and his faith in the religion of the New Testament as the sufficient handmaid of the best political systems of which the race is capable. It is on these points especially that he dwells in discussing the proper methods of studying history, and he engages at once with Comte, Spencer, and Buckle in contesting their right to reckon history among the exact sciences of which we have or may hope to obtain all the data, and in which no disturbing forces enter to interrupt the immutable laws to which the world of matter is subjected. It is seldom that our publishers, in seeking to reproduce the works of English authors, select so suggestive, thoughtful, we might almost say masterly, writing as we have here. We commend the book heartily to that public which Prof. Smith ever delights to honor with his praise.

The Student's Practical Chemistry. By Henry Morton and Albert R. Leeds. (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1866.)—This is a book of 286 pages, whereof 130, or five-elevenths of the whole number, are devoted to physics, 103 to inorganic and 53 to organic chemistry. The illustrations, 163 in number, take up a great deal of room upon the small pages, which are still further broken up into numerous small paragraphs with headings in capitals. The quality of the matter is as bad as the quantity is small. We are at a loss to say which most abound, incorrect, inaccurate, or unintelligible statements. Many sentences are entirely innocent of grammar, and, in fact, the general style is that of the hasty notes of a lecturer who needs catch-words to help his memory. Two examples, showing the average perspicuity of the style, must suffice. Speaking of ozone, our authors say: "Its test is paper moistened with starch, containing a little K I (starch, 5 parts; iodide of potassium, 1 part; to be boiled), which it turns purplish blue, or the juice of the mushroom, boletus luridus, boletus cyanescenus, etc., or the alcoholic solution of the resin of guaiacum, to which it communicates a blue color." It will be an intelligent student who learns from that sentence how to test for ozone. Concerning the sources of ammonia we read as follows: "Lastly, when organic substances decompose—I. Spontaneously; II. By heat alone; III. By heating with caustic potassa—the nitrogen and hydrogen combine, in the nascent state, to form ammonia, and in this way is derived the fertilizing property of manure and the ammoniacal liquor of gas-works, which is the commercial source of ammonia." A chemist might, perhaps, be able to detect in this farrago some traces of chemical truth; but a student would hardly find this one of those "clear and simple explanations" which the preface promises.

There is hardly a proper name in the book which is not misspelt. Thus, in Tyndale, Fraunhoffer, Kirchoff, Nichol, Naudhausen, and Reinch we have our authors' peculiar spelling of the well-known names Tyndall, Fraunhofer, Kirchhoff, Nicol, Nordhausen, and Reinsch. Such spellings as *dyabysis*, *eramakausis*, *regellation*, and *congellation* will not make it easier for the student to appreciate the derivation and signification of these words. The proper names of the chemical elements and their compounds sometimes begin with capital letters, and as often are not so distinguished; both modes of printing constantly occur in the same sentence. The book cannot have passed through the hands of any intelligent proof-reader. It were useless to attempt any serious criticism of the general method and plan of the book, considered either as a brief statement of the elementary principles and facts of chemistry or as a manual for students. It has no method but that of an abridged dictionary, without the usual merits of dictionaries, accuracy and a convenient alphabetical arrangement.

The book is exceedingly discreditable both to its authors and its publisher, and, it may be added, to the teachers who use it, if there be any such. It is much to be regretted that the name of a society which has done so much good work as the Franklin Institute should be officially mentioned on the title-page of such a work. Were it not for the sanction which the name of this society and that of the publisher lend to the book, we should not have spent time and space in noticing it.

PARIS GOSSIP.

PARIS, June 8, 1866.

THAT prince of dentistry, Dr. Thos. W. Evans, who numbers among his friends and patrons nearly all the crowned heads of Europe, and whose diamonds and orders prevent so many of his less fortunate brethren from sleeping, encouraged by the success of his work on the medical department of the great war in the United States, has just published, in the form of a series of letters, a very admirable description of the nature and working of the government of his native land. In addition to the intrinsic value of the

work itself, these letters derive a melancholy interest from the fact that they were written for the amusement and instruction of a nephew and adopted son of great promise, brought up by Dr. Evans, and who, after having taken for several years an active share in the professional labors of the distinguished firm of the Rue de la Paix, became consumptive, and died, a few months since, at the early age of twenty-three. The work in question treats of the origin of the Constitution of the United States, of the legislative, judicial, and executive powers of the States and their relations to the Union, of the Constitution of the United States, and of the various modifications which have brought that instrument to its present form. Clear, perspicuous, and concise, giving a bird's-eye view of a subject which has lately attracted so much attention on the part of the Old World, these letters may be said to constitute a valuable and instructive "hand-book" to the political institutions of the great republic of the West.

The virtual refusal of Austria to take part in the deliberations of the Congress which was to act as a conductor to the accumulated electricity which threatens so much mischief to this hemisphere, has given a severe shock to the confidence of the optimists; but it is not regarded here as absolutely excluding all hope of a peaceful settlement of the affairs involved in the pending quarrel, as it is still thought to be possible that Austria may yet reconsider a decision involving issues of such magnitude. Napoleon, at all events, seems to be really desirous of peace; and it will hardly be possible for the would-be belligerents to come to blows if he be seriously determined that the "peace" of this hemisphere shall not be broken at present. A fews days since, while inspecting the progress of the works in the Champ de Mars, as he does two or three times a week, he went up to a group of workmen, and after expressing his satisfaction at the zeal of all concerned, he added, evidently with the intention of having the remark repeated: "Do not attach too much importance, messieurs, to the rumors of war that are so rife. I, for one, am sincerely desirous of peace, and shall do my utmost to ensure its maintenance; but pray remember that, come what may, the exhibition of next year will take place as appointed, and exert yourselves accordingly."

The doings of the Chinese ambassadors excite but little curiosity here. The Parisians went wild over the Siamese envoys, and took an interest nearly as absorbing in those of Japan. The Cochin-Chinese found them somewhat less eager, and they are now becoming rather *blasés* in regard to Orientals and their peculiarities. The dresses of these representatives of the Flowery Land are, however, so splendid, the tissues of which they are composed are so exceptionally rich and splendid, that they have obtained more attention than has been accorded to their wearers. But the honor of their fabrication, popularly attributed to the transcendent skill of the dyers and weavers of the Celestial Empire, redounds, it is asserted, to those of France. It appears that the cases containing the wardrobes of these distinguished visitors were unfortunately wetted during the voyage, so that, on reaching Paris, all their contents were found to be so much damaged as to be unwearable. Great was the despair of the long-tailed magnates, who saw no other alternative but to shut themselves up until new suits could be procured from China. Luckily, however, some one about their almond-eyed excellencies suggested that patterns should be sent to Lyons, for imitation, when, to the amazement and delight of the Celestials, who were dying of impatience to see the marvels of the capital, there arrived, by return of post, an agent of one of the principal houses of Lyons, which for some time past has been turning its attention to the imitation of Eastern fabrics, with an assortment of fabrics so gorgeous and splendid that the ambassadors declared they surpassed everything they had ever beheld. These magnificent silks being purchased with enthusiasm, were at once entrusted to one of the best tailors of the capital, and made up exactly on the model of the damaged garments, and so quickly that, in twenty-four hours after the arrival of these beautiful silks in this city, the envoys of the "Son of Heaven" were feasting their eyes on the wonders of the "metropolis of Europe." From that moment to this the saffron-hued dignitaries have been doing the lions with an assiduity that proves how deeply their curiosity has been stirred by their first introduction to barbarian life. They have been received at the Tuileries, dined by ministers, and escorted by the proper officials to all the public institutions and the principal scenes of amusement. It is reported that their enthusiasm on returning from the opera was so great that one of the official *chaperons* attached to their service was moved to enquire what were the items of the evening's entertainment which had most forcibly struck their fancy, when he learned, to his disgust, that it was neither the house, nor the lustres, nor the scenery, nor the music, nor the costumes, nor even the lavish display of shoulders and ankles in the ballet, that had most delighted them, but the preliminary tuning of the instruments by the orchestra before each lifting of the curtain!

The Chinese embassy has, moreover, a formidable rival in the good graces of the *beau monde* of the capital in a couple of youthful cannibals attached to the train of Sir George Scott, staying here on his way back from New Caledonia. Sir George is trying hard to civilize these specimens of primitive humanity, and has already brought them to the capacity of wearing livery and handing ices and syrups to their master's friends. They are not handsome, but they are very alert, intelligent, and smiling, and seem to put so much good-will into the performance of the not very onerous duties of their new position that they are immensely admired and petted by all who see them. These amiable youths have been brought up in the practice of anthropophagy. One of them has eaten his grandfather, and the other has devoured the professor who trained his boyish powers to the use of the war-club—circumstances which appear greatly to enhance the interest taken in them both by their master's friends and the public of the capital.

The two young sons of Abd-el-Kader, now on a visit to this *focus* of modern illumination, are also much petted in aristocratic saloons. M. de Lesseps takes the lead in entertaining and lionizing these sons of a son of the desert (for they themselves know but little of true Arab life), and took them, a night or two ago, to the opera, to see "Le Dieu et le Bayadère," when the spectacle of the *claque*, of the chorus and anti-chorus of stout hands all clapping at once with the force and *ensemble* of a well-regulated machine, filled their unsophisticated minds with such amazement and so completely absorbed their attention that they had neither eyes nor ears for anything else.

The vast printing establishment of M. Paul Dupont, which employs 1,200 work-people, has just been celebrating, at its branch in the Rue de Clichy, the annual festival which brings together, at the same ample banquet, all the *personnel* of this model firm, in which every one of either sex employed in its various departments is a partner, and receives, besides a fixed amount of salary, a certain proportionate share of the year's profits. A worthy fellow-laborer of M. Arlès Dufour, the great silk-weaver and leading free trade apostle of Lyons, of M. Godin-Lemaire, the eminent iron-master of Guise, and one or two other practical philanthropists of this country, who have thoroughly laid to heart the great principle of human fraternity so generally lost sight of, M. Paul Dupont has created in connection with his industrial establishment—in which he employs female labor wherever it can be conveniently utilized—model dwelling-houses, in which the work-people are well and healthfully lodged at the lowest paying price; shops in which all the necessaries of life are sold at cost price and of the best quality; schools, reading-room, a sick club, a fund from which pensions are paid to each laborer who becomes disabled from age or accident, a loan club, and various other combinations which are supported, according to certain fixed proportions, by all the members of the firm, from M. Paul Dupont down to the humblest worker in the establishment.

On the gala-day in question all the workshops were thrown open to the public during one hour, thus giving to all who cared to inspect them the opportunity of seeing the interesting work of printing in all its varieties. The banquet, substantial and abundant, was furnished, as always, by the head of the house, and after it had been done full justice to, M. Paul Dupont made a general statement of the results of the year's work, of the state of the various departments of the establishment—schools, clubs, etc.—and sketched the plans in contemplation for the coming industrial year. A workman, delegated to that end by his brethren, expressed the gratitude and satisfaction of all in terms of warm affection, enthusiastically applauded by the assembly; M. Paul Dupont then distributed inscription-books, medals, and other prizes to those who had obtained the best marks in the schools and singing-class, and the fête terminated amidst the mutual felicitations of all concerned.

How oddly illustrative of the old adage, "extremes meet," is the fact that in this country of splendor, luxury, and intelligence, wolves, which became extirpated from England under the Plantagenets, still exist in great numbers, and that a sturdy beggar is reported, from the Puy de Dôme, who has been making a good thing of his profession by lying in wait about the farm-houses of that region until he knows that all the men are absent, when he makes his appearance holding a wolf in leash, and demands all the money in the house of the terrified womankind, with the threat of letting loose the savage brute upon them in case of refusal! A few days since he presented himself thus at a farm-house in which there was no one on the premises besides the mistress, who, so far from yielding to the threat, seized a fowling-piece that hung over the kitchen fireplace, and not only held the two-legged brute at bay therewith, but compelled him to precede her, with the four-legged one, to the village, where she gave up her captives to the proper authorities, amidst the plaudits of the neighborhood!

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

HOW WILL THE WAR IN EUROPE END?

THE outbreak of hostilities in Europe has probably by this time taken place. It is generally believed that a contest has begun which will probably terminate in a radical change in the political arrangements of the European continent, and give the final blow to the theories on which the settlement of 1815 was based. The aim of Prussia is, doubtless, German unity, but there is no likelihood that she will achieve such complete success as to render it possible for her to fuse all the small states under her own sway. To do this she would have not only to beat them, which would be no very difficult matter, but to beat Austria not a little, but very badly. Austrian force lies not so much in strength as in endurance. She is not capable of great efforts, but she has an almost unequalled capacity for what, in the slang of the prize-ring, is called "taking punishment." She has in her service a magnificent body of officers, who are bound to the empire by traditions and associations of extraordinary force, who are perhaps now the best representatives extant of a class once very numerous, that of professional soldiers, devoted to the country, but very deeply devoted to a certain government or reigning house. To Austrian officers the army is what it is no longer to the officers of any other country in the same degree—their only home and their only fatherland, and they are bound together by an *esprit de corps*. They have under their orders a remarkable power—troops drawn from the finest military races of the world, out of which an iron discipline has made an army which has neither the French impetuosity, nor Italian fire, nor the Russian solidity, nor the English firmness and destructiveness, but which has perhaps no equal in cohesiveness and tenacity. It is perhaps the only army in Europe which could witness the flight of its chief and the apparent dissolution of his empire without breaking up. It can, consequently, bear immense reverses in the field without demoralization, and draws perhaps at this moment as much inspiration from the memory of its defeats as most other armies do from the memory of their victories. It has survived so much disaster that hardly any disaster would now seem to it irreparable. A succession of rapid and terrific blows, such as the elder Napoleon gave it, might perhaps put it *hors de combat*, or bring the war to what Prussia would consider a satisfactory conclusion; but there is no probability—hardly a possibility—that any such blows will be delivered. Napoleons do not appear even once in a century, and, unless we are greatly mistaken, the world need not look for any remarkable displays of promptness or agility from either Prince Charles or Marshal Benedek. They will fight desperately and shed a great deal of blood, devastate a great deal of country, and contribute an interesting but not very novel or instructive chapter to the history of the military arts.

Consequently, it is not by any means certain that Austria is at present to lose her hold on Germany, or that the minor states are to disappear down Bismark's ravenous maw. Should Prussia at the outset suffer any severe checks, such as the loss of a great battle or two, it would be safe to predict a speedy peace based on her humiliating retreat from the conflict, and the overthrow and retirement of Bismark. Her population and the raw material of her army are far superior to those of Austria. There is probably no army in the world, not even our own, which can show in its ranks so many educated and intelligent men; and no army which has a more intelligent or better educated people to draw upon for recruits. There is no limit to the devotion and sacrifices of which such a people would be capable, if a crisis were to come which really kindled their enthusiasm. Were Bismark a popular leader, he would have a nation at his back with which he might challenge the whole Continent to the field. But he is not a popular leader, and no war brought on and conducted by him is likely to command the popular support, much less excite the popular enthusiasm. He is either profoundly hated or profoundly distrusted by all that portion of the Prussian people in whom the national pride and national pluck most abound. Therefore the present contest meets with the most decided opposition. The Landwehr has been dragged rather than marched to the field; the opening of the struggle seems, as well as we can judge, to be awaited by the public either with horror or foreboding, and we hear nothing of any enthusiasm even on the part of the regular army. The drawing of blood, especially should the outbreak of hostilities be marked by any successes, however trifling, may bring about a great change. Should there be early successes so great as to hold out a near prospect of what is now only seen in troubled dreams—the destruction of the whole tribe of princelings and the consolidation of the German people into one great state—there is little question that the Prussians would fling themselves into the struggle with an ardor which nothing could withstand, before which Austria would surely go down, and we should witness the appearance on the political scene of a power whose magnitude and real strength would certainly alter the whole complexion of European politics, and give a new turn to European progress.

"German unity" has presented itself to our minds so long as a mere vision babbled of by orators, or mused over by professors, that few foreigners have ever taken the trouble to think what it would really mean. It would mean, however, the sudden creation of an empire containing a population of over sixty millions—that is, it would be numerically the equal of Russia. But these sixty millions would be, unlike the population of Russia, of one race; they would include, perhaps, the most learned, patient, industrious, civilized people on the face of the globe, which has attained the highest distinction in arts, in science, in arms, in literature, in everything, in short, but in politics, occupying the most fertile of the favored portion of the European continent, and which would be capable of maintaining with ease a million of men in arms within a week's easy march of Paris. It will be easily seen by anybody who seriously considers the meaning of these facts that the creation of a real German state, whether empire or republic, would revolutionize European politics. It would launch an immense population on a career of extraordinary progress; it would consign France and England to the rank of second-rate powers. It would reduce Russia to comparative insignificance, and deprive her of most of her influence in European affairs, and even in Turkish affairs, and force her to find vent for her energy more and more in expansion eastward. Whether in such an event the House of Hapsburg could settle down on the Principalities of Servia and Bulgaria, and protract an enfeebled and somewhat inglorious existence, far removed from the scenes of its past greatness, may be doubted. But it is every day clearer and clearer that a royal house which has no nation at its back must soon cease to be a reigning house, and that the spectacle of kings existing for their own sakes is one which Europe will not much longer tolerate.

In case the Prussians succeed, it is of course possible that Louis Napoleon might seek, in the resettlement of the map, for what is called the "rectification" of the French frontier, by the abstraction of the Rhine provinces from Prussia. But this is something to which Prussia, victorious, would, in our opinion, never submit, and which she would be sure to resist successfully, and which, even if imposed upon her after a defeat, could not prove a permanent arrangement. Sixty millions of Germans united would treat a demand for the annexation of a portion of the true German soil to the French empire as absurd; and even if Germany should not be united, and this demand were successfully enforced, the union of Germany is not likely to be sufficiently remote to allow time for absorption.

Then there are changes going on in France which it takes close observers to perceive, but which are, nevertheless, exercising a marked influence on her foreign policy, and which promise, if not checked, to make her, perhaps in our lifetime, as pacific in spirit as England herself. The love of material comfort is increasing amongst the people with extraordinary rapidity, and as it grows the military spirit declines. The long freedom from political convulsions and the free-trade policy of the empire have, by giving a great stimulus both to foreign and domestic trade, enlisted a vast body of the population on the side of peace. The horror of war, which was once the reproach

of the Paris bourgeoisie, is working lower down amongst the population every day, and the population is not only not increasing but slightly diminishing, a fresh and striking illustration of the thrift and love of comfort of the whole body of the people; for in this case population, far from pressing too closely on the means of subsistence, is kept down by choice. We may, therefore, fairly count on a longer period of repose, of careful abstinence from interference in foreign quarrels, and a more single-minded devotion to the production of wealth than has ever been before witnessed in French history.

SPECULATION.

If we may judge from the language of a certain influential portion of the press, and from the theories of political economy which, so far as domestic trade is concerned, seem to find general acceptance among the people, we should conclude that the great lack of America was apron-strings. Society is no longer able to exist without the paternal guidance of the legislature in every department of life. Laws are called for to regulate all the actions of men. Eight-hour laws, we are assured, will reduce the labor and at the same time increase the pay of all mechanics. Landlords have been asking extravagant rates for houses, and this outrage, thousands of tenants honestly believe, ought to be checked by law; though whether by fixing a maximum for rent, or by compelling every man who owns two houses to build a third, is yet undecided. Unskilful workmen are found in various branches of trade, and it has, therefore, been gravely urged that we should return to the ancient system under which no one could work at a mechanical business unless he had served an apprenticeship of seven years. In short, there is a very general belief that in one direction or another men are unable to take care of themselves, and a general unbelief in the restraining and curative powers of natural law.

The most widespread form of this delusion is probably the theory which ascribes all manner of evil results to speculation. There never is a commercial disaster, a panic, or a scarcity of any necessary article, without an accompanying outcry against speculators. If goods are dear, the speculators for a rise are denounced without stint; if they are too cheap, the speculators for a fall have ruined trade. If a rotten corporation is brought down to dust, the bears are vigorously abused upon every successive decline in the shares; but when the receiver takes possession and the truth is made plain for the first time, the bulls are held responsible for having forced the stock upon an unsuspecting public. Thus, in the spring and summer of 1857 the newspapers filled columns with denunciation of the party which worked so vigorously for a fall during all that year, attributing every fresh disaster to the direct manipulations of the bears. The real crash began, however, with the failure of the Ohio Life Insurance and Trust Company, which had never been attacked by the bears, and which proved to have been long insolvent. This called attention to the condition of other institutions, numbers of which proved to have been managed with the utmost recklessness and even positive dishonesty. Naturally enough, these disclosures excited a general distrust of all similar corporations, and even sound institutions were compelled to strengthen themselves at the expense of their customers. The pressure for money soon revealed the fact that mercantile profits, and even capital, largely consisted in a process equivalent to a mere "marking up" of goods, and prices, which had for three years been unnaturally high, fell to rates unnaturally low. When the storm had done its worst, and the wrecks of commerce lay scattered on every side, the sagacity of the bears was too well vindicated to be longer disputed, and the same critics who had denounced the speculators for a fall now attributed all the disasters of America and Great Britain to the speculators for a rise during the preceding years.

During the last four years there have been enormous speculations in gold, stocks, and produce, mainly for an advance. Gold has reached 290 per cent., Erie Railway stock has been at 125 or more, flour is now $18 a barrel, pork $35 a barrel, and butter has been called cheap at 75 cents a pound. Loud have been the outcries of the afflicted and unwilling purchasers, and all kinds of remedies have been tried. The anti-butter combination, which all patriotic housekeepers remember, reduced butter from the atrocious price of 50 cents to 35, with the immediate result of sending an immense amount of it abroad, to be used as grease, the rates of exchange making it cheap enough for that purpose to English buyers. The next and logical result was a final advance to a much higher price than that which excited our indignation so deeply, and, the stock having been greatly reduced by export, the advance was permanent. The inflation of gold was first met by high-toned censures on moral and patriotic grounds. These failing, the Stock Board itself, the very seat and centre of speculation, was infected with the popular prejudice against its own business, and enthusiastically voted to exclude gold from its dealings. This deadly blow at the business was soon found to result simply in leaving the public at the mercy of cheats, who could return sales at almost any price they liked, there being no general and public quotation. Accordingly this restriction was abandoned, and the business was resumed upon a larger scale than ever. But in 1864 Congress resolved to try the remedial effects of legislation, and passed the celebrated Gold Bill, which did more mischief within the brief fortnight of its operation than all the speculators had ever been able to accomplish. It raised the price of gold from 180 to 290 within fifteen days. It struck a blow at the very foundation of public credit, for it was difficult for reasonable men to resist the conviction that the act indicated a state of mind among our rulers not far removed from lunacy. The promptness of its repeal, however, showed that the only fault of Congress was its total ignorance of political economy. Gold fell from 290 to 240 on the day that it was known that the statute would be repealed, and speculation left free to run its course.

Should not this signal example convince every impartial observer that restraints upon the operation of natural laws are unwise? There has seldom been a statute so rigidly obeyed as was the gold law during its brief and inglorious existence. The gold room was promptly closed, and not a single case of dealing, except for cash actually paid on the spot, was ever heard of. All that is usually called speculation was at an end. No other business was conducted under such burdensome restraints, none so effectively guarded against speculation; and in none was the rise so tremendous, or the panic so terrific. Brokers who previously bought and sold for a profit of one-fourth of one per cent., sold nothing at an advance of less than five per cent. Men took gold into the offices, sold it, came into the street, noticed the pale and anxious faces of the crowd pressing in to buy, and themselves repurchased, at an advance of ten, twenty, or thirty per cent., the gold they had sold ten minutes before. Three hundred per cent. was in full view; five hundred was freely predicted, and the depreciation of the public credit seemed likely to be unlimited. None were more terrified than those who had put their faith in legal prohibitions. The calmest men were those who had foreseen the results of such folly.

In reality, whatever may have been the motives of the parties concerned, the speculation in gold had certain beneficial results, which outweighed its evils. It tended to keep gold in the country, by giving its holders the continual prospect of an advance, without which it would all have left the country in 1862, and have remained abroad until the close of the war, since it would have been quite useless here and a mere deadweight upon its holders. Abroad, it would have drawn interest; here, it would not. The chances of speculation, however, seemed to promise something better than interest at foreign rates, and an immense amount of gold was kept here, to the obvious strengthening of the national credit; both the Government and the banks having always a handsome specie reserve. The very *excess* of speculation tended to produce this result, as it made shipments decidedly unprofitable, and foreign exchange unsalable. Thus we closed the war with a very respectable stock of gold, which then became available to the public at prices which were only too moderate.

¶ Speculation in food is often censured with special severity. Yet there is nothing in which it is more plainly beneficial. Were it not for speculators, the farmers would be utterly unable to sell plentiful crops while the price paid by consumers would be so low as to lead to extreme wastefulness. When in the course of nature a barren season came round, there would be no stores laid up against it, and all the desolations of famine would follow. Joseph and Pharaoh were, perhaps, the greatest speculators on record; and what is clearer than that their speculation in corn was the salvation of Egypt?

Speculation has a direct tendency to equalize prices over all the world. If cotton or iron falls much below its real value in one port, speculators promptly buy it for shipment elsewhere, thus raising the price where it is low and depressing it where it is high. Or they simply store it away, and bring it out when the price has advanced. In either case their operations tend to keep the price from touching extreme points, and thus benefit both the producer and the consumer. Of course speculation increases the *number* of fluctuations, but it greatly diminishes their *extent*, and keeps up a fair average rate. In the nature of things it cannot be otherwise, since no speculator intentionally buys when prices are too high, or buys with any other view than to sell again.

Excessive speculation undoubtedly leads to great evils; but so does excess of any kind. The events of the last four years have tempted many out of the pursuits of industry for which they were qualified into wild speculations undistinguishable from gambling. The country suffers greatly from such a perversion of mind and labor, but no more than it would if a few thousand persons, fitted by nature to be farmers, should become clergymen. The existence of fifty thousand useless priests in Italy does not prove that the three or four hundred missionaries employed among the freedmen or the heathen are not wanted in their present sphere. An excess of speculation works its own cure by drawing so many into the business that it gradually becomes unprofitable, and a reactionary tendency follows in favor of other occupations.

Fluctuations in prices may be injurious, but it is certain that they are part of the system which pervades the universe. Action and reaction are common to all branches of life. Where changes are frequent, they are not violent; but if, by a violation of natural law, fluctuations are repressed, the inevitable change, when it does come, is far more sweeping than it need have been, and that which nature designed for a relief becomes a disaster.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY THE COMPLEMENT OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

It is not often that we have a chance to indulge in the luxury of giving praise to our city government, or to any member thereof. It is, therefore, with the zest of protracted abstinence that we yield to the rapture of bestowing our heartiest commendation once again on Councilman White for his proposition looking towards the establishment of a public library in this city. This phœnix ot magistrates, this phenomenon of civic officials, turning aside from the jobs which constitute the business and the turtle-feasts which form the recreation of our City Fathers, has stooped to the consideration of so humble a subject as the intellectual and moral necessities of the common people. As one of that numerous though despised multitude we return him our humble thanks for his good intentions and bid him a hearty God-speed in his virtuous undertaking. It is almost too much to hope that a majority of those owners in fee of the city whose manor-house is the City Hall will consent to divert so considerable a proportion of the revenues thereof as this scheme would require from their natural channels, which sometimes in the line of directness, and sometimes by the more tortuous circumundulations of the line of beauty, find their way to their own pockets or those of their friends. But perhaps the days of miracles are not over, and Councilman White may be but the Avatar of a new dispensation, the first fruits of a municipal Pentecost of power even to change the aldermanic heart. Let us humbly hope and trust that this may be so.

The public library is the natural complement of the common schools. The importance of maintaining these is universally acknowledged in the free States, and we believe there is no ground of complaint against those of this city—at least none to which those of the most carefully provided cities are not also open. That intelligence lies at the foundation of free institutions is universally recognized, and the free schools are the testimony the people bear to their faith in the doctrine. The best minds of the community are busy in devising how these nurseries of the future can be made to answer their purpose the most effectually; and constant advancement is making in the application of the science of mind to the art of its best development. And this should be so, for in the schools is contained the commonwealth in the very act of growth, and the inclining of the tree depends, so Pope says, on the bending the twig receives in that tender stage of existence. But when the common schools have been brought to the highest degree of perfection possible to human institutions, we hold that society has not even then done its whole duty to the rising and the risen generation. The State should not forego its charge of its youth when the doors of the school-house close behind the grown-up young man and woman. The school, at best, can only teach the use of tools, and indicate whereabouts the material lies which is to be worked up for the nourishment, the development, and the adornment of the mind. Many young persons, of either sex, soon lose all taste for the studies which have occupied their pupilage, if they do not entirely forget them. The battle of life is too fierce a conflict to most of them to make it possible for them to go far out of their way, or to expend much of the sinews of their warfare on the continuing of their education. If they can make the trial, they find it hard to get the books and apparatus necessary for further self-cultivation.

For Gibbon never said a truer thing than that every man who makes any mark in the world has had two educations—one from his teacher and the other, and the more important, from himself. Now, surely, the system of public education, on which we so justly pride ourselves, is not complete until the public provide the free means of carrying on this self-education after that of the school is finished. Facilities and means for doing this should be brought within the reach of all, even of the poorest, and of these the most of all. The fountains of knowledge should be opened freely to all, that all may come and draw the waters of moral and intellectual life freely without money and without price. All comers cannot become learned men and women, but they may all become well-informed and refined ones, and the public should give them all the opportunity. The prosperity and happiness of every community depend on the virtue, intelligence, and good manners of the individuals that make it up. Whatever promotes these three conditions adds to the material wealth as well as to the harmless pleasures of the body politic; and nothing can promote them more effectually than the providing of useful and entertaining occupation for the leisure of the busy classes. Merely teaching the young citizens to read, though a great boon, undoubtedly, is a very imperfect one unless they can have access to books worth reading. It is inviting them to a Barmecide's feast, where there is nothing to eat. Or it is like the privilege the ladies are allowed at English public dinners—that of sitting hungrily in the gallery and seeing the lords of creation eating of the fat and drinking of the sweets below.

And the expense need not be so great as to deter the humblest community from thus completing its apparatus for the teaching of its children. A library containing all the standard English authors, with duplicates and triplicates of those most in demand, could be had for an investment of not more than two or three thousand dollars, and a very moderate annual appropriation would suffice to furnish it with all the new books worth adding to it. Of course, large towns and great cities would not be content with this modicum of mental food, but would provide for the necessities of the student as well as for those of the common reader. We are confident that no better investment could be made for the best interests of society, material as well as moral and intellectual, than such an appropriation of public money. The returns would soon begin to be perceived in the improvement of the general intelligence and morality. No better or more effectual antidote could be provided for the bane of bar-rooms, billiard saloons, and gambling-houses than the cultivation of a literary taste and the love for books which a free access to an ample library would furnish. To the allurements of pleasure and the attractions of vice the best counter-charm is that supplied by the magic of reading. The devil, we all know, is always readiest with his temptations in our idle hours, and the most potent exorcism against him to drown his whispers is to be found in the tones of the enchanters who transport us away from the ignorant present to the past world or to the fair fields of the imagination. Bell, book, and candle used to be the appointed means for putting him to an ignominous flight, and the two last will be found sufficient for the purpose, even now, if they be used aright.

If a public library have any power thus to prevail against the kingdom of Satan, we think there could scarcely be found a place where its virtue could be more satisfactorily tried than in this city—certainly the capital of one of the most flourishing provinces of that dominion, if not the great metropolis itself, of "Hell's dread emperor." At any rate, New York ought not to lag behind lesser cities in such a competition as this. The Astor Library, admirable as it is for its narrower purpose, does not meet the demands of this necessity. To answer its proper purpose, a public library should be a circulating library, with proper limitations and restrictions. This is the case with the Public Library of Boston, and has been for about ten years. That library is divided into two portions: the one consisting of English literature in its entirety—poetry, history, travels, fiction, etc.; and the other of the higher branches of science, the classics, the literature of foreign nations, valuable illustrated works, and the like. All is open to everybody; but the first is strictly a circulating library, and it is kept in constant circulation. The last time we heard of it the average number of books taken out daily was over a thousand, and the average of loss or injury, other than by necessary wear and tear, infinitesimally small. The trifling fines imposed for over-detention of books and other slight violations of the rules more than made all these losses good. The first care of founders and custodians of libraries generally is to preserve the books as long and to keep them as nice as possible. Here the object is to have them worn out by fair and honest usage as soon as may be, when they are replaced by new copies. This, of course, is not the plan as to the other and higher division of the library. Any one may consult the works it contains, and these can be taken out by special permission and on proper conditions. The whole library is for all. The division is for the convenience of the general reader and the accommodation of the special student. Now, New York should have such an institution, were it only not to be eclipsed by her lesser sisters. As we suggested the other day, the mere providing of a proper building and the inauguration of the institution would attract benefactors and benefactions to it. The establishment of the Boston Public Library induced the late Mr. Joshua Bates to make it the object of his princely liberality, who thus built up for himself a monument which can never wear away, but will endure as long as the intellectual pleasure and improvement he has promoted by his bounty shall continue to increase. Let Councilman White only be allowed to begin this good work, and we have faith that a Bates will be raised up to help complete it.

LINES TO A PAINTER.

Your "View from Nature," friend,
I 'm not disposed to flatter,
For if Nature looks like that,
I 'd rather not look at her.

I wonder where you got
The tints you make those dyes with—
And where you bought the specs
You use to see your skies with;

And where the blue is found
You do whate'er you please with;
And the purple for your ground,
And the green you paint your trees with.

Spinach and eggs we like
Upon a plate at dinner—
Not on a canvas smeared,
Though done by a "beginner."

I do n't think Nature has
Such sad blue devils ever—
Or on the Catskills gets
Such fits of yellow fever.

So pray excuse me, friend,
If your critic cannot flatter,
For if Nature feels *so* bad,
I 'd rather not look at her.

NITROUS OXIDE AS AN ANÆSTHETIC.

To the scientific observer there are few things in the annals of human progress more remarkable than the history of inventions. Whether the invention be great or small, in the ordinary acceptation of the term, is but little matter; as a general rule, there will still be found in its history the same series of partial successes to sustain the enthusiasm of its advocates; the same cheerless story of failure to attract the attention or to enlist the sympathy of that portion of the public which ought to be most interested in its success; and finally the same tumultuous applause and gratulation from all quarters when the world has once fairly turned its favorable eye upon the nursling. The invention having been "introduced," universal homage is, for a moment, rendered to the fortunate individual who, by chancing to display the infant at an opportune moment, or by luck of holding it in a new ray of light, has enabled the spectators to perceive the transcendent charms which had hitherto escaped attention, or been seen only by worshippers at the inner shrine. Sometimes, often, it may be, the appearance of the infant has really been improved under the care of this last of its nurses. It is better clothed than formerly, plumper, cleaner, and more comely; or it has been trimmed by corset and scissors into a nearer conformity with the conventional order of things. But this homage is of short duration. In so far as it is undue, in so far as it detracts in any way from the merit of others who have labored in the same field, and have really aided in the attainment of the successful result, the factitious glory quickly fades. The cry of fair play will be raised of a certainty. The voice of criticism makes itself heard. The case is sure to be passed upon and adjudicated in the tribunals of the world of science and art. The evidence finally comes to be written out in black and in white, ready to be summed up by any enquirer who may be desirous of satisfying his own sense of justice. And after no great number of years have passed, something like a just appreciation of the real merits of the case will prevail.

That the foregoing views will apply to the history of the discovery of anæsthesia, as to that of all inventions which are of sufficient importance to attract much attention, there can be no question; though for a clear understanding of this particular subject we are not yet sufficiently far removed from the time when the value of ether as an anæsthetic was first generally recognized. Yet another generation, perhaps, must grow up before partisan feelings shall have died out, and have given place to that purely judicial spirit in which alone such questions can be brought to a settlement.

The discovery of the power of ether-vapor to produce insensibility to pain is, of course, the turning point in the history of the invention of anæsthesia, for then it was that the world realized the value of it. To this event and to the actors in it no small share of applause may justly be accorded—in spite of any lack of nobility of feeling which may have then been manifested, and of all faults, follies, and drawbacks, of whatever name, which contemporaneous reports have associated with the discovery. But as time rolls on, the conviction is forced upon us that the prime fact of anæsthesia has been visible for years, and that this fact had really been seen by many individuals, though perhaps few among the gazers had ever fairly and fully realized and, as it were, assimilated the phenomenon. The power of nitrous oxide to produce insensibility to pain was recognized by Sir Humphrey Davy at the beginning of the present century, at the time when he was experimenting upon the gas with special reference to its exhilarating and intoxicating effects upon the animal economy. In a memoir entitled "Researches concerning Nitrous Oxide," published in 1800, Davy remarks: "As nitrous oxide in its extensive operation seems capable of destroying physical pain, it will probably be used with advantage during surgical operations, in which no great effusion of blood takes place." The efforts of the late Dr. Wells, of Hartford, to introduce nitrous oxide as an anæsthetic agent in surgical practice, are familiar to the American public. There are, in fact, many persons who now believe that the application of ether-vapor as an anæsthetic is a result which has grown out of, and is in a great degree directly referrible to, the discussions which were incited by Dr. Wells. However this may be, the importance of nitrous oxide as an anæsthetic agent, and the significance of Dr. Wells's aspirations, have been brought into bold relief by the experience of the last few years. As everybody knows, nitrous oxide is now very extensively employed by the dental surgeons. By many members of the profession it has come to be regarded as a safer and a more convenient and agreeable agent than either chloroform or ether for a large class of operations.

A manufacturing chemist of Boston, Mr. Sprague, who appears to have devoted himself particularly to the manufacture of nitrous oxide and the materials which are essential to the preparation of this gas in a state of purity, has lately made some statements with regard to the matter which may serve to explain the discrepancies and failures which embarrassed Dr.

Wells. From these new data, moreover, it is easy to frame a hypothetical explanation of the curious fact that the anæsthetic value of nitrous oxide did not become generally known years ago. It can now be at least inferred how it happened that neither Davy nor Wells was able to bring the gas into practical use.

According to Mr. Sprague, the gas which is obtained by decomposing pure nitrate of ammonia at a low heat is quite different in anæsthetic effect from that prepared at higher temperatures. He insists that in preparing nitrous oxide for inhalation the heat should be controlled by an automatic regulator, in such manner that the temperature of the nitrate of ammonia within the flask shall be maintained at a nearly uniform degree, lying somewhere between 400° and 410° Fah. Gas which has been thus prepared and carefully washed may be inhaled with perfect safety; and, as a safe and reliable anæsthetic, will, in the opinion of Mr. Sprague, compare favorably with any other which has yet been devised. On the other hand, gas which is prepared at higher temperatures, as is usual in the ordinary method of heating, where the heat, all the while fluctuating, often rises to 500° or even to 600°, exhibits very different physiological effects even after it has been thoroughly washed. The gas obtained at these high and irregular temperatures produces disturbed anæsthesia, and appears to act more directly upon the brain than that which has been generated at low temperatures. It has more taste withal, and persons of sensitive lungs are liable to experience inconvenience and distress upon breathing it.

Mr. Sprague's statements are timely. Every chemist who has frequently had occasion to prepare nitrous oxide must have noticed the wide difference in appearance which the gas obtained at one operation will exhibit as contrasted with that of another. At one time the product will be transparent, odorless, and colorless; at another it is pervaded with a dense white fume, which subsides only after the lapse of considerable time. This fume may possibly be due to the presence of nitrate of ammonia, as would, no doubt, be suggested by some chemists; or it may be the antozone cloud of aqueous vapor which has recently been so carefully studied, in another connection, by Meissner. In either event there can be no doubt as to its being an irritating agent, or as to the likelihood of its being competent to produce the disturbing influence which is attributed by Mr. Sprague to those samples of gas which may contain it. It is admitted by Mr. Sprague that the gas made at high temperatures is peculiarly uncertain, as an anæsthetic, when taken into the lungs soon after it has been prepared. This observation would go to corroborate the idea here suggested, that the disturbing element is extrinsic, and not in any way dependent upon an allotropic change in the nitrous oxide itself, as has been advanced. For it is known that the antozone, or the nitrate of ammonia, whichever it may be, will disappear from the gas which contains it when this is allowed to stand over water for a sufficient length of time. The admitted necessity of thorough washing, in any event, no matter at what temperature the nitrous oxide gas has been prepared, is another item of testimony which points in the same direction. It would be well, by the way, for all persons interested in the cleaning of gas, to take note of the fact, which chemists are nowadays beginning to recognize, that as a general rule a gas can be far more effectually cleaned by causing it to pass through several columns of some porous material, such as pumice, cotton, glass-powder, lime, and the like, than by any mere bubbling through water. In many cases it is not even necessary that all the porous material shall be moistened, if only it be chemically capable of absorbing the impurities; the action appears to be mainly dependent upon mechanical subdivision, the gas, as it passes through the porous material, being broken up into minute particles, each one of which is brought into contact with the purifying agent.

Against the absurdity of inhaling nitrous oxide from plain bags, or bladders, as in the old way, Mr. Sprague very justly protests. Where the breath expired by the patient is re-inhaled into the lungs over and over again, as must necessarily be the case in the simple bladder arrangement, the nitrous oxide will, of course, even become very impure—the more so in proportion as the inhalation is longer continued. The insensibility produced by this method of treatment may, therefore, be in part fairly attributable to the asphyxiating power of carbonic acid. In any event, the effects obtained cannot be wholly due to the nitrous oxide. The inhaling apparatus now employed is evidently a great improvement upon the old plan. It is simply an apparatus furnished with valves in such sort that the pure gas can be drawn into the lungs, while that which is expired is thrown into the open air.

As to whether or no nitrous oxide can ever be employed with advantage in protracted operations, the question seems to be still open. Mr. Sprague narrates that in several instances he has known complete anæsthesia to be maintained by means of this gas during surgical operations lasting from four to seven minutes and with the most happy results as regards recovery from its influence upon awakening. Others have mentioned successful cases where anæsthesia was maintained during much longer periods. Mr. Sprague is himself of opinion that entire insensibility to pain may be maintained for a longer period than would be safe with ether or chloroform. This, as he asserts, "may be inferred from the vitalizing character of nitrous oxide, which maintains the temperature and pulse by oxidizing the blood, while it is well known that the effects of ether, or more particularly chloroform, are the reverse of this" (Boston Med. and Surg. Jour., May 17).

Some idea of the extent to which nitrous oxide is used may be got from the statement that in a single dental establishment in Boston it has been employed for producing anæsthesia in nearly eight thousand cases.

MR. LINDSLEY'S WAY OF PROMOTING PRAYERFULNESS.

From the foundation of the world till now the theory of virtue, like the practice of it, has been too much for human powers. It is not many months since we heard of an undergraduate philosopher in Harvard, who, being asked in a yearly examination, What is virtue? replied in writing that virtue is the chief of the virtues. He is an ethical philosopher who has far to go before he reaches even that opinion of Protagoras, that virtue is an art which may be learned, and which, therefore, *à fortiori* (here proverbial philosophy would speak of the giving and taking of good advice), may be taught. It is an opinion not to be taken without modification, as we may discover by a look at Professor Fowler's *Phrenological Journal* and the pictures in his show-cases. It prevails, however, and practically is received in all its naked simplicity, and incidents constantly occurring attest the prevalence of this theory, if they do nothing to prove its incorrectness. But now and then some incident occurs, as the other day in Medina, of such a nature as to show us that although in this, as in other matters, the ideal may be impossible of attainment, it is of some importance that the ideal set up be the right one. A clergyman in the village referred to has, or rather he had, an infant son of three years old, whom, of course, he has been in the habit of training up in the way it should go. Therefore, when the child's stepmother required it to say its prayers, and the child, without assigning any satisfactory reason, refused to do so, its preceptor in virtue took a shingle, or, as some say, and as would have been more Solomonian, he took a heavy rod and chastised it, to use a euphemism of his own, for rather more than two hours, at the expiration of which time, possibly with a prayer on its lips, but with no recorded indication of docility, it died in its instructor's hands.

This Medina minister, it seems clear, must have held a radically mistaken notion of what constitutes virtue. His theory of virtue has led him straight to the gallows. Yet even he, one would have thought, must have known that by nature, which can no more be driven out with a shingle or rod than with a pitchfork, by blood, because his child was a child of his, it could never with any amount of instruction from father and stepmother—never though it should live to be an ordained minister of the gospel of love, though it should dispense the sacramental bread and preach the word which purifies the heart, and which annulled ceremonial ordinances—it never could be anything but a soulless, iron-hearted monster, with not very much more capacity for virtue than is possessed by a plaster cast of a murderer. But supposing that the baby's own mother, had she been living, would have striven to prevent this chastisement; that she was such a person as to make her offspring heir to a nature human rather than devilish, so that her son might have been worth whipping hereafter if he had not been untimely whipped to death—still, admitting all this in the case of this victim, what a notion of virtue it is that in one of its extreme manifestations tortures the life out of a span-long babe because it is refractory about its prayers or catechism! What a delusive, and, as a principle of education, a fatal idea of an infant's capacity, to treat it as able to comprehend either the meaning of prayer or the theory of parental discipline, when to send it to school would be inhuman! and what a theory of domestic government when a child is tamed as we tame a brute—belabored until resistance becomes a physical if not a moral impossibility. Yet even this terrible murder is not an isolated instance. The milder manifestations of the same spirit, though, happily, it is a spirit opposed to the genius of the American people, have fallen under everybody's observation. We all know families where two people of the best intentions that narrow minds and cold hearts can cherish succeed in making of their children half a dozen hypocrites and one rebel. The Jesuit fathers, we are informed, find that when American men make what is called a *retreat*, and are required to write out meditations on certain prescribed subjects, it is almost impossible to get from any one of them a good meditation on hell. This may be so, but if it is we should say that the fathers would do well not to generalize upon the American religious character without an acquaintance with the class represented by Mr. Lindsley, of Medina.

Correspondence.

"PARDONS AND MORALITY."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Your discussion of "Pardons and Morality" in The Nation of June 5th opens a serious question. We have not opened our eyes to the change which the progress of society and the growth of free institutions have made in the position of the criminal. In earlier times it was from power and oppression that danger was to be feared; all the safeguards of society were devised to protect the accused against the arbitrary punishment of the magistrate. The trial by jury, the *habeas corpus*, the pardoning power, all grew out of the fact that society had more to fear from the governors than the governed; and they have all been mighty instruments of progress. But now, so far as ordinary criminal procedure is concerned, this is wholly reversed. It is from the criminal class that our peril comes; we err more on the side of lenity than of severity; there is very little danger that the innocent will suffer, but very great danger that the guilty will escape. Unless we realize what a total revolution has taken place in the relation between government and criminal we shall never cope successfully with this gigantic enemy—crime.

If, however, we fail to appreciate this change, there is another quite as vital to which our community is rapidly becoming awakened—the nature and object of punishment. Side by side with this movement which elevates punishment from a barbarous and vindictive vengeance to a wholesome restraint, whose aim is to humanize and reform, let us learn to accept and understand that fundamental principle of punishment, that it must be sure in order to be efficient. Let us feel that—granted the justice and adequateness of the punishment imposed—we have no right to exempt from it; it is no kindness to the criminal and is a great wrong to society. This, of course, does not interfere with the method of shortening the term of punishment by good behavior, as in the Irish system, for this is one of the conditions of the punishment imposed.

I have no doubt that the pardoning power, as it exists and is exercised, does vastly more harm than good, and that it would be better for the community that it should not exist at all than that it should be used as recklessly as at present. If the only alternatives were, to keep it as it is or to abolish it altogether, it would be better to abolish it. But are these the only alternatives? There is no doubt that it is often the cause of great good, and it would be a pity to cast away entirely a useful instrument because it is so often abused. Might it not be possible to guard against the abuse of the power by dividing it? It might, for instance, be granted to the legislature instead of the executive, but to be exercised only on the recommendation of the governor, and then by a vote of say two-thirds. The object would be to preserve the power for those rare, special cases in which there would be overwhelming arguments for its exercise, leaving the mass of criminals to work out their full terms, shortening them by good behavior, but with the conviction that in no other way can they possibly be shortened. A really weighty argument for capital punishment is that imprisonment for life means being pardoned out in ten years or so; but this argument would fall to the ground if the pardoning power were practically abolished.

Marcel.

THE BEET-SUGAR MANUFACTURE IN GERMANY.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Day before yesterday, in the forenoon, I left the great cathedral in Magdeburg and came out through the old wall and over the drawbridge, and started for this place on foot. I turned back many times to take what I supposed would be a last look at the grand old grey towers that lifted themselves so nobly up in the clear sunshine, but still they lingered in the horizon. It was well toward the middle of the afternoon before they disappeared, and then only through the intervention of a hill.

"Immer gerade aus," and a gesture straight toward the south, had been my directions while crossing the moat bridge, and so they continued all the afternoon, and "right straight ahead" I walked on the hard turnpike, bordered by unbroken rows of cherry trees, till it grew monotonous. Far out on either hand stretched the grain fields, only varied by a gentle rolling, without fence or stump or tree, except here and there a small piece of planted pines. The fields of oats and rye predominated over all, green and luxuriant, interspersed occasionally with patches of beautiful yellow, where grew the rape, and long strips of fresh ploughed land. The great, sleepy windmills flapped leisurely in the brisk, cool wind and a thousand sky-larks were hanging in the air, singing as they flew.

After an hour or two I began to come into the midst of the great sugar-beet plantations for which this part of Germany is celebrated. The fields in which the root is planted here are often of vast extent, sometimes two or three hundred acres, reminding me of the prairies of the great West or the plantations of the South. I was inclined to continue the comparison last made much farther after seeing the manner in which they are cultivated. The beets are drilled in rows about fifteen inches apart, and the whole labor of tilling them, from first to last, is performed with the hoe. Never before had I seen so complete a reproduction of some of the scenes I have witnessed in the Southern States on the great cotton plantations. Here were at work men and women together, from fifteen to eighty in one gang, hacking stolidly over the ground with the same mechanical stroke that marked the slaves. In one row I counted eighty-one, and they were principally women. At least two-thirds of the laborers that I saw that day—at least a thousand—were women, and they were working generally in company with the men. To complete this Southern picture, there stood before these largest gangs the overseer, moving continually back and forth in front of the laborers and carefully scrutinizing their work. Sometimes he carried a hoe, but generally only a stout stick, and the ruggedness of the German which he sometimes employed upon the dilatory, though it was not intelligible to me, showed that his authority was very well established. The overseer never ventures to strike a laborer; but I have seen him rudely thrust about and harshly berate the younger laborers in a style that comported very ill with my notions of German independence of character. The laborers are very meek under these administrations, as they are almost absolutely dependent on the miserable pittance of daily earning for their daily bread. As I passed these groups of laborers my foreign appearance attracted their attention, and they paused a moment to bestow on me that stupid, listless stare that has made me sigh for human nature in Mississippi and Texas. When their labor is ended, however, and at the nooning, they display the same buoyancy and often playfulness that are characteristic of the blacks. When the village bell in the distance or the winding horn calls them to their simple fare, they often caper and chase across the fields in a rough buffoonery that shows the German elasticity of temperament still unimpaired.

The clothing of these peasants is, of course, of the simplest and cheapest; a short, thick dress of woollen and a close hood of the same for the women, and cheap, substantial store-fabrics for the men. The women wear almost entirely material of their own manufacture, even to the shoes, which are mere soles of wood with a little leather tip or socket to retain them on the foot; but the men wear much less of it than our country people in America.

The wages that these people get are, for American needs, utterly insignificant, and they are certainly small enough even for the supplying of German wants. The men get from sixteen to nineteen cents a day, the women from thirteen to fifteen, and that for a day of fourteen hours; for they generally begin at five o'clock and work till seven. Their labor is not severe, but very tedious and exhausting.

At Stassfurt, a thriving city of 15,000 inhabitants, I found the manufactories of beet sugar more numerous, perhaps, and certainly greater than in any other city in Germany. One of them employs a thousand operatives, another six hundred, and several others four and five hundred each. The beets are brought from the fields and elevated to the upper story of the building, where they are cleaned, crushed, filtered, etc., the juice descending from story to story, through curious processes, until it reaches the last one in the shape of beautiful "sugar hats," or cones of about two and a half feet in length, of the best quality of white sugar. The juice of the beet is red, a shade lighter, perhaps, than claret wine, but when boiled down without purification the sugar is only slightly tinged. This is called the "red sugar," and is converted into white by the use of blood. It is cast in earthen molds, of the size of the "hat" above mentioned, in which it is dried eight days and then taken out and polished for market. Turn one of these clear, solid cones up on its edge and strike it with a key, it rings like the purest steel. The price of this sugar at the factory at present is ten cents a pound, and, after testing it a hundred times, I pronounce it not at all inferior to the best article from Louisiana. One establishment, employing six hundred laborers, turns out six million pounds a year. The beets cost ten cents per hundred pounds, taken from the fields.

Here the condition of the laborers is worse than in the country. Stassfurt is a considerable city, and has most of the evils of larger cities without the compensating good of the country. The streets are narrow and crooked, the houses low, uncomfortable, and dark, and the presence of such a number of great manufactories brings into it a great number of poor people, who are crowded into small tenement houses. Many live in what the people here call barracks—the same as our tenement houses, only lower, longer, and built of stone, plastered over with coarse mortar or mud. Generally each

family has one room, though in some cases two are crowded together in one apartment not over twenty-four feet square. German families are usually populous, and the number of white-haired young Teutons that swarm about some of these barracks among the dogs and geese is alarming. But they are most stinted in their bill of fare. The employee's contract generally embraces rent and provisions in addition to a certain amount of wages, and in these cases it practically results that the proprietor furnishes such a market for them as he sees fit. In one establishment, the employees of which live in barracks, they have pork twice a week —Sunday and Thursday—for dinner; never beef or mutton. In another they have the same three times, to wit, Tuesday, Thursday, and Friday. For the rest they must make it up from potatoes, cabbage, rye bread, lentils, and greens. The mixtures and combinations of these various articles, according to the German liking, in not less than a dozen different dishes, in each of which vinegar has a prominent place, it is needless to enumerate. Milk and butter are very seldom seen in Stassfurt on the tables of the workmen; in the country it is better. There you will see a company of tired laborers seated around a huge pan of boiled potatoes and a dish of sour milk, each one peeling a little heap of potatoes before he makes a beginning of his meal. A cellar of salt and a spoon for the milk complete the preparations, and before they make an end of the matter the amount that has been disposed of is enormous. The greens they eat in this season of the year would go far toward keeping a respectable cow. But they are healthy, despite all this; healthier than we Americans, and live longer. They are living illustrations of the practicability of a vegetable diet and of its beneficial effects, when taken with a judicious proportion of flesh.

I arrived in Eisleben yesterday, and have paid a visit to the houses in which Luther was born and died; also the church where he preached three days before he died. The registers here kept show that a large number of Germans visit these places daily, but I have not seen the names of more than three English or American visitors within two years.

MUSKINGUM.

EISLEBEN, Prussia, May 28, 1866.

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday, June 25, 1866.

SPECULATION continues active in gold, and while a large number of persons sell it short on the theory that it is too high, at least an equal number buy with confidence for the rise. The volume of gold on the Street is so disproportioned to the short interest, that it is worth from 1-16 to ⅛ of 1 per cent. for immediate delivery. Nearly ten millions will be disbursed by the Sub-Treasury on the 1st proximo in the payment of interest on the national debt. Exchange continues heavy; bankers' bills are offered at 108½, and in second hands sell at 108. At these rates specie cannot be shipped as a remittance; but on Saturday over a million went out in the shape of bars and silver coin.

The money market is very easy indeed. Call loans are 5 per cent. and first-class short paper sells at 5 to 6. Foreign merchandise is dull of sale in consequence of the advance in gold. The importations, however, continue heavy. They were again last week over $6,700,000 at this port; exports only $2,397,000. Much is expected of the new cotton crop, which some sanguine estimates figure as high as three million bales; circulars in the bear interest warn the trade not to look for over half that amount. The prospect of the food crops in the West is thus far good, but prices are so high here in consequence of the depreciation of the currency that none of the Western staples can be shipped to Europe except in the face of a loss.

Government stocks continue firm with considerable activity. The railway shares are generally dull. Erie is the only stock in which there is any life. It sold on Saturday as low as 57½. "Puts" at 59 and 60 for thirty days can be bought for one per cent., and the chances of an improvement in the price are thus deemed small. The earnings of the road continue to decline. Other shares are steady, with very limited transactions. The Fort Wayne company have declared their usual quarterly dividend of 2½ per cent. Western Union Telegraph, which was done as high as 64 a couple of weeks ago, dropped to 50 last Saturday, and looks as if it might fall lower.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 18.	June 21.	June 25.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	106	106	106	....	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103¾	103⅝	103⅛	....	¼
5-20 Bonds of 1865	103	102⅞	102¾	....	⅛
10-40 Bonds	96⅛	96⅛	96⅛	....	...
7.30 Notes, second series	102⅛	102¾	102⅝	....	⅛
New York Central	99¼	99	98⅝	....	⅜
Erie Railway	59⅛	58	58⅛	⅛	....
Hudson River	110¼	112	111	....	1
Reading Railroad	109¾	109	108⅝	....	⅛
Michigan Southern	78¾	79¼	78¾	....	⅜
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	83¾	85	82½	....	2⅛
Chicago and North-western	30	30	29⅜	....	⅝
Chicago & North-Western, Preferred	59	59	58¾	....	¼
Chicago and Rock Island	93¾	95¼	93	....	2¼
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	97	98	98	....	....
Canton	60¼	59	55	....	4
Cumberland	44¼	45⅛	44¼	....	¾
Mariposa	11¼	11½	11¼	....	¼
American Gold	158	150½	153½	3	....
Bankers' Bills on London	108	108¼	108¼	....	....
Call Loans	6	5	5	....	....

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For the guidance of those who may feel disposed to assist us with their contributions, we may mention that the contents of THE NATION will fall nearly under four divisions—or that, at all events, these divisions would have to be kept in mind by anybody writing for it as a volunteer.

1. References to, and concise comments on, the news of the day, with the view of fixing the degree of its importance, and suggesting its bearings upon and relation to the main current of contemporary history.

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Topics of the Day.

THE "third party," which has given little sign of life for a good many weeks, has just put forth a summons for a general convention. It is to be held in Philadelphia in August, and the delegates who are to meet together in the City of Brotherly Love are to represent all the South as well as all the North. The call is an enunciation of the familiar political doctrines maintained by most of the Democrats and by President Johnson, and as it is issued by the "National Union Club" of Washington city—an organization which contains nearly all the present members of the new political body—we may say that the third party gets its name from one and its principles from the other of the two great parties which already exist in the country. And as these two parties divide between them all the principles which are of the least importance to the settlement of the questions now before the people, it seems clear enough that the history of the new party will be the history of the sharp practice of a few politicians.

H. RIVES POLLARD, the editor of the Richmond *Examiner*, who spells ethics with a *k*, seems to stick to the obsolete "theorique and practique part" of that science as obstinately and amusingly as he sticks to the antiquated orthography. Mr. Samuel James went into his private office the other morning and made a call on his truculent brother-in-law. He unguardedly made certain remarks about Edward A. Pollard. At what point in the Richmond thermometer the mercury was standing we are not informed, but the remarks immediately "led to a collision between the parties." James left the premises, and by and by Pollard, who, we fear, got a thrashing in the sanctum, "having armed himself," sallied forth, and began ranging the streets like Mohawk and like Hawkabite of his favorite hundred and fifty years ago. While he is running amuck, a constable, who apparently "comprehends" him very well, escorts him to a justice, and he is bound over in the sum of $4,000. For the moment we may breathe freely; but the outside public ought to be forewarned if it is as a historian that Mr. E. A. Pollard must be spoken of respectfully. If so, we protest against the Richmond dictator's decrees having any retrospective force.

THE Southerners during the rebellion were literally driven to the wall for paper on which to print their newspapers, and to the next ditch for mint with which to make tea. Another breakfast beverage was made not only from peas and beans, like some of ours, but they also took burnt wheat, corn-bread crusts with sorghum syrup, okra, and dandelions to supply the place of "Yankee coffee." Waistcoats, blankets, and trousers were made from carpets of large and small patterns, and it is easy to recollect the cannon that came out of the church steeples. But one Confederate invention of which necessity was the mother we had forgotten. "H. E. C.," who lived in the South while the war was going on, writes to the editor of the *Herald* about utilizing dead dogs, and gives some striking facts which would justify the establishment of a joint stock company—The Swart Star Slaughter and Sirian Hair Oil Company it might be called. He "found a medium sized, tolerably fat dog to yield a quart of oil." He refined and deodorized some of it, and it made a capital unguent for the purposes of the toilet. In the crude state it was superior to any other oil for curriers' use. The skins of the bull-dog, the Newfoundland, the big cur which is often called the yellow dog, and which is always found in and around the hovels of the poor whites, the mastiff—the "nigger-dog" we hope was tried—all made excellent leather. "H. E. C." has seen boots made from this leather as good as any calf-skin boots. Bone-black and glue can also be got, and altogether it will be a pity if the fifteen or twenty thousand dogs annually put to death in the hot weather in this city and Brooklyn should not be made to furnish something besides manure.

LAST autumn F. P. Blair, an hereditary politician, refused to take the test oath which excluded returned rebels from casting a vote in Missouri. It is not impossible that in thus making himself a martyr and champion of a strong minority of his fellow-citizens he may have had it in mind even then to stump the State, as he has been recently doing, with a view of getting office from the men whom his success would have admitted to the ballot-box. At any rate, he declined the oath, and his vote being, therefore, refused, he brought suit against the judge of election who refused it. For many months oaths have been a cause of great heart-burning in Missouri and of interminable talk. But this case excited a peculiar interest. It was confidently anticipated that the United States Court would pronounce in favor of the complainant. On the contrary, the validity of the oath is affirmed, and the general, who played well, has lost, and lost also the respect of his former companions and friends.

A GOOD deal to the surprise of everybody, the telegraph this morning reports that the bill ordaining universal suffrage in the Federal District was yesterday disentombed from what was supposed to be its last resting place, and put on its passage in the Senate. It is pretty certain that no educational qualification will be insisted on, and it is certain that an amendment is incorporated which denies the right of suffrage to all persons who left Washington during the war for the purpose of aiding and comforting the enemy. This looks as if the Senate were a little less doubtful than they have hitherto been upon the question, whether or not the people are ready to take the extreme ground of the Union party in reference to the matter.

BOSTON is again instructing her sister cities in municipal economy. She opens this year to all classes and both sexes free public bath-houses in different parts of the city, through which the waters of her bay are constantly flowing. It is not so far from Boston to Nahant as from New York to Long Branch, but the luxury of sea-bathing is no longer

restricted to those who can afford to resort to this and other localities. The spirit which suggested this public benefit is the same which founded the free library of Boston, only it is to be noted that the library came first. Here, on the contrary, the obstacles to a library proceed from "the great unwashed," and, perhaps, to conciliate this class of the community with baths is the speediest way to get at our books.

THE right of secession and the perpetuity of confederations are questions, it is found, debatable by monarchical as well as by republican states. Prussia has declared the Germanic Confederation at an end, and Austria has declared it indissoluble; and of course the Federal Diet has sided with Austria. That body ordered the mobilization of the Federal army on the 14th, and Prussia at once declared war and invaded Saxony. On the 16th it was telegraphed from Prague that she had occupied Löbau and Zittau, on Saxon soil, with a view to the capture of Dresden, and, on her own territory, had concentrated at Schkeuditz and Zeitz, for the possession of Leipzig. Communication between Dresden and Berlin is completely cut off. Prussian troops also entered Hanover from the north, and traffic across that frontier was prohibited. Austria's counter movements are not yet known. She is reported to have manifested some anxiety for her Hungarian border. Kossuth had advised his countrymen, from Turin, to wait in patience, and Deák, somewhat enigmatically, told them at Pesth that the future of their country depended rather on fortunate chances than on political combinations. The lines of the Po and Mincio are no longer passable to or from Venetia. There is a grave contingency that the horrors of cholera may be added to those of bloodshed. The disease has broken out in Northern Prussia near the mouth of the Oder.

FIFTEEN hundred women in England have petitioned for the extension of the franchise to widows and unmarried women possessing the needful property qualification. The petition was presented through Mr. Mill, and it is said to be the most sensible and able document of this sort which has yet seen the light. The demand is moderate, and it is supported by arguments which are likely to have weight with those to whom they are addressed, a qualification for which female politicians have hitherto displayed little regard. From this peculiarity the opponents of their enfranchisement draw a strong argument against their claims, treating it as an indication of the total absence of the political sense. The best answer to this perhaps is, that utterly powerless people are generally deficient in logic, and that women will never apply hard sense to politics or anything else on which they can exercise no influence whatever. There is fully as much nonsense talked by French politicians every day as could possibly be produced in a female parliament, and for much the same reason. Frenchmen have never had the control of their own affairs, and half their political speeches are apt to be rhapsody, and the other half twaddle, which is doubtless what the *Saturday Review*, or any other cynic, would say of the utterances on great occasions of women anxious to vote.

AMID the voluminous war news from Europe one little paragraph is quite overlooked, and yet it tells of one of those victories which we are assured belong to peace as well as to war. The makers of the Atlantic cable congratulated themselves, on the 14th, on finishing their labors. To-morrow is the date fixed for the sailing of the *Great Eastern* from Sheerness for Valentia. If hostilities last a couple of months, it is possible we may study their progress with almost as fresh an interest as if we were in London or Paris.

RUSSIAN aggrandizement in the East, which has met with some reverses since entering Bokhara, is again encouraged by a decisive defeat of the Prince of Bokhara, who, in a recent engagement on the 20th of May, attacked the Russians with 20,000 men and 21 cannon. He lost all but two of his guns and inflicted little damage on his enemy. Some idea of the spread of telegraphic communication over the globe may be had from the fact that the news of this engagement reaches America in scarcely more than a month from the date of the event itself.

CONGRESS.

Monday, June 25.—In the Senate, a bill to allow claims of loyal persons at the South for stores furnished to the army was strongly contested. In the discussion of the tax bill, the tax on raw cotton was retained by a vote of 24 to 10, and, after sundry amendments, the bill was read a third time and passed.

In the House, Mr. Morrill reported a bill amendatory of the tariff act; referred to Committee of the Whole on and after Thursday, the 28th. A joint resolution, amending that of June 15, 1866, respecting bounties to colored soldiers, which, by mistake, was restricted to those free at the time of their enlistment, was passed. A message from the President was read concerning the imprisonment without *habeas corpus* of American citizens in Ireland. The House non-concurred in three out of the Senate's six amendments of the army bill, and called for a committee of conference. It agreed, however, to reduce the appropriation for army contingencies from $250,000 to $100,000; to appropriate about seven millions to the Freedmen's Bureau for the next fiscal year, and to require the quartermaster to prefer American products in contracting for supplies

June 26.—In the Senate, the bill to amend and continue in force the bill establishing the Freedmen's Bureau was taken up and passed—yeas, 26; nays, 6. It continues the Bureau for two years, and provides among other things for the equitable settlement of the land-titles involved by Gen. Sherman's famous order. The bill goes back to the House for concurrence in the amendments.

In the House, the bill regulating the transportation of nitro-glycerine and other inflammable and explosive oils, was reported from a committee of conference, and passed. Also, a bill prohibiting any State making discrimination in the rates of pilotage between vessels of different States or against U. S. national vessels, and annulling all such discriminations. The Internal Revenue bill as amended by the Senate was referred to the Committee on Ways and Means.

June 27.—The Senate concurred in the House amendments to the bill regulating the transportation of nitro-glycerine. The bill regulating the elective franchise in the District of Columbia was taken up and discussed, and an amendment making the ability to read and write a necessary qualification was rejected—yeas, 15; nays, 19.

In the House, a bill to prevent smuggling was passed. The tax bill was considered, and the Senate amendment reducing the tax on cotton from five to two cents a pound non-concurred in; also, that allowing gas and railway companies to add the tax to their charges.

THE FREEDMEN.

THE animosities of races are yet bitter at the South and seem to grow more demonstrative as the days go on. In Goldsboro', North Carolina, a commissioner of the town, about a fortnight since, set upon a discharged colored soldier, who, in attempting to escape, was shamefully maltreated by the crowd that had gathered. The mayor refused to receive colored testimony against the assailant, who was accordingly discharged from custody, while the victim was retained. A natural expression of indignation on the part of the colored citizens was the occasion of the mayor's ordering the arrest of all who censured his conduct! Resistance to such an order was inevitable, and bloodshed ensued. Three miles from Memphis, on the 20th, a colored household was attacked by seven armed desperadoes, and though these were finally repulsed with the loss of one of their number, the negroes had three killed and were all more or less injured. On the 19th two colored women were violated by a white man who entered their house. At Charleston, on the 23d, some white and black boys quarrelling involved men on both sides. The ringleaders were arrested by the police, and subsequently three hundred blacks got together and, headed by negro soldiers, marched through the lower portion of the city. A military and police force attacked and drove them from the streets with numerous arrests. In Clay county, Georgia, a sheriff sought to compel a freedman to report to the agent of the Bureau, whereupon the negro stabbed the officer fatally, as is supposed, and was immediately shot dead by the bystanders. In Thomaston, Georgia, several negroes are reported to have violated their contracts, and to have resisted incarceration. A riot was the consequence, in which both whites and blacks lost their lives, but the latter were overcome and imprisoned.

—On the 12th of this month the leading citizens of Oxford, Mississippi, having been impressed with their duty to the freedmen, issued a circular giving some reasons why the latter ought to be educated—even the danger to the Republic of "illiterate voters" being enumerated. Their religious obligations were especially acknowledged, and the immediate result is a Sunday-school with one hundred pupils and twelve teachers.

—The Bureau is transporting the surplus population of the Virginia peninsulas to homes in various parts of the North. The relief to the State thus depleted will be great.

Notes.

LITERARY.

PERHAPS the bitterest pill which the Americans had to swallow in the war of 1812 was the capture of the *Chesapeake* by the *Shannon*. The number and the brilliancy of the naval victories gained over the British had unduly excited expectation, and Capt. Lawrence sailed out of Boston harbor on the morning of June 1st, 1813, with the confidence of an easy victory. His confidence, too, was shared by the whole community, and the news of the disaster was received with wondering incredulity, which speedily turned into dejection and rage, only relieved by the gallant conduct of the *Chesapeake's* crew and the heroic death of her commander. The life of Sir Philip Bowes Ven Broke, Bart., the commander of the *Shannon* on that occasion, has just been written by the Rev. J. G. Brighton, M.D., and although as a book it is very badly put together, it contains some interesting details of the cruise and victory of the *Shannon*. Broke's life was otherwise very uneventful. He went into the navy young, and although he had captured several French vessels and burned a good number of American ships which were easy prey, he had never been engaged in any great action. After the capture of the *Chesapeake* he was laid up by his wound, which caused his retirement, and he lived in seclusion until his death in 1841. The incidents in his life were very few, and, with his characteristic reserve, he had expressed himself very briefly on paper, so that it is not surprising that the chief event of his career occupies about half of the memoir. The whole account of the action given in his journal is comprised in three lines: "June 1st. Off Boston. Moderate. N.W. W. Lawrence. P.M. Took *Chesapeake*." The challenge which he designates by "W(rote) Lawrence" is given in full, and is a fair, spirited production. Nothing particularly new is brought forward with regard to the fight.

—The graduates and students of University College, London, held a meeting on the 30th of May to present a testimonial of plate and books to Mr. David Masson, the late professor of English language and literature in that college, on his being elected to the chair of belles-letters in the University of Edinburgh. Mr. Farrer Herschel presided. Prof. Masson expressed the pleasure with which he looked back on his thirteen years' professorship there, and said that he went to Edinburgh because Scotland was his native country, and he had a natural desire to return there; and that while in London circumstances had prevented his giving the whole of his attention to his professional duties, so that he felt it incumbent upon him either to give up those duties or to exercise them where he could give them his undivided attention. He had chosen the latter course.

—Sir John Bowring is about to publish a translation of poems selected from the works of the popular Hungarian poet, Alexander Petöfi, of whom he gave an interesting account in an essay contributed to the "Gentleman's Magazine." Among the Magyar people his poems are like "household words," and he has as strong a hold on all classes of his countrymen as Burns and Béranger had on the Scotch and French. His genius was very prolific, and there is some difficulty in choosing among so many excellent poems. He died young—at twenty-six—after having passed through every stage of want, at a high position of social and political influence, fighting by the side of Bem. The following is Bowring's translation of "Jo ideje lement a nap:"

"All the earth is wrapped in shadows,
And the dews have drenched the meadows,
And the moon has taken her station,
And the midnight rules creation;
Where is my beloved staying?
In her chamber, kneeling, praying.
Is she praying for her lover?
Then her heart is flowing over;
My beloved! is she keeping
Watch, or is she sweetly sleeping?
If she dream, her dreams are surely
Of the one she loves so purely.
If she sleep not, if she pray not,
If to listening ear she say naught,
Thought with thought in silence linking,
O! I know of whom she 's thinking:—
Think, O think of me, sweet angel,
Rose of life, and love's evangel!
All the thoughts that melt or move thee
Are like stars that shine above thee,
And while shining, to the centre
Of thy spirit's spirit enter,
And there light a flame supernal,
Like eternal love, eternal."

—In *Notes and Queries* a writer suggests a new origin of the name of Gibraltar. "Not far south of Samalout on the Nile rises a precipitous rock from the river's bank, which my dragoman called *Jabal-el-tayir*, from *jabal*, a mountain, and *tayir*, a bird, in Arabic. He stated that there were other eminences of the same name higher up the river. If I remember rightly there is a Gibraltar or *Jabal-el-tayir* on the Gulf of Suez. The Gibraltar in Spain may be derived from the Arabic words *jabal*, a mountain, and *tarik*, a way or passage; and perhaps signified, as originally written, the mountain of or by the passage—*i. e.*, the passage from Africa into Spain. It is equally probable that the first part of the name of the Moorish leader *Tarik-ben-Zeyad* was bestowed on the rock to commemorate his successful landing in Europe."

—In the lists of recent publications the following French historical works appear: "La Vendée en 1793, par E. Bonnemère;" "Marguerite d'Angoulême, Reine de Navarre, et la Renaissance, par V. Luro;" "Marie Antoinette, Louis XVI., et sa Famille Royale;" "Journal Anecdotique tiré des Mémoires Secrets, pour servir à l'Histoire de la République des Lettres (Mais, 1763—Février, 1782);" "Mémoires lus à la Sorbonne, dans les Séances extraordinaires du Comité Impérial des Travaux Historiques et des Sociétés Savantes tenues le 19, 20, et 21 Avril, 1865;" "Louis XV. (1724–1757), par J. Michelet:" the first volume of "Mémoires de Mdlle. de Montpensier, petite-fille de Henri IV., Collationés sur le Manuscrit Autographe, avec Notes, par A. Chéruel;" the third volume of "La France sous Louis XV., par M. Alphonse Jobez, ancien représentant;" and "La Correspondance de Marie Antoinette avec les Empereurs Joseph II, and Léopold II., ses Frères (1775–1794), avec quatre fac-simile originaux," which will reopen the discussion as to the genuineness of the former series of Marie Antoinette's letters.

—The last book of M. Renan, "Les Apôtres," is still a target for the fire of the religious journals of Paris. The *Revue du Monde Catholique*, founded by Louis Veuillot, in the number of the 10th of May contains an article on this book by M. Laserre, which is so bitter and malignant as to have excited a sentiment of repulsion even in the bosom of the clerical party. M. Georges Seigneur, editor of the *Croisé*, itself no tender journal to its adversaries, has felt himself obliged to publish in his paper the following note on the violent refutation of M. Laserre, which adds strength to what for some years has been said of the strange excesses of religious journalism: "The article of M. Laserre begins with two pages of such impropriety, to say nothing more, that it is impossible for us not to protest against it. . . . For the honor of Catholic polemics we are unwilling to let such an occurrence go without loudly expressing the painful impression which it has made upon us."

—As a specimen of the liberty allowed in the Catholic ranks to those who do not choose to agree, even in matters foreign to faith, with the official clergy, the case of the Abbé André, curé of Vaucluse, can be taken. He had published a dissertation entitled, "Les lois de l'Eglise sur la nomination des curés," a subject certainly very inoffensive. The book was, of course, referred to the *Index*. After a careful examination, the Sacred Congregation made the singular decision "that there was no reason for putting the book on the *Index*, but that the author, notwithstanding, deserved not only a mark of blame, but even a severe admonition." The crime of which the Abbé André was guilty was that Gregory XVI., by a rescript of May 1, 1845, and Pius IX., by a judgment of the congregation of bishops, had wished to reserve this discussion to the Holy See. The worthy pastor must disavow his book, on an open question, and receive a public reprimand. Yet it is called calumny to say that Catholicism smothers all discussion.

—A collection of Greek MSS. which, until now, have been hidden in the archives of Naples and in the monasteries of Monte Cassino, Cava, and other monastic buildings, has lately been published by Signor Francesco Trinchera, superintendent of the archives of Naples. The work is published in one volume quarto, and is entitled "Syllabus Græcarum Membranarum quæ partim Neapoli in majori tabulario, et primaria Bibliotheca, partim in Cassinensi Cœnobio ac Cavensi et in Episcopali Tabulario Neritino jamdiu delitescentes, in lucem prodeunt." In the first part Signor Trinchera, beginning with the Hellenic origin of the many cities and towns of the southern provinces, sketches a brief history of "Grecesino" under the Romans, under the dominion of the Goths, under the emperors of Byzantium, and successively under the Norman, Swabian, and Angiovine kings, concluding with a report of the researches and labors which he and the learned men connected with him in the archives of Naples have made in order to collect and explain the MSS. of which this volume is a syllabus. The second part contains three hundred and fifty-two Greek MSS. (with a Latin translation) from the ninth to the thirteenth centuries. The third part is composed of the reproduction in fac-simile of numerous extracts from these MSS., with the signatures and seals of the times, and a complete index of words and things treated of in the MSS. In the innumerable details which these documents supply of private and civil religious life in the Middle Ages is brought to light a phase hitherto unexplored of that mixed society of Greek and Italian, Roman and barbarian, Catholic and Byzantine, that inhabited Southern Italy.

—One of the most welcome announcements of the season is the poems of Miss Christina G. Rossetti, which the Messrs. Roberts, of Boston, are to republish, with four designs by her brother, D. G. Rossetti. The volume is to match the same publishers' edition of Jean Ingelow's poems, and as two poetesses of the new day of English poetry they deserve to be classed together. But in our opinion Miss Rossetti far transcends her rival in genius, and when the American public have had an equal opportunity to appreciate her quality, we are confident they will agree with us. She uses words as her Pre-Raphaelite brother uses the brush, with remarkable vigor, and with all the simplicity and homeliness of truth. What we cannot speak knowingly of is her range of themes, and on this account the collection of her scattered poems under one cover will be welcome. "Macmillan's Magazine" has latterly been her principal channel of communication with her admirers.

MORALITY AS THE RELIGION OF CHINA.*

If in journeying to-day to Egypt, and ascending the Nile, we found there the same people whom Herodotus found so many centuries ago—the people who built the pyramids and filled the temple-palaces of Karnak and Luxor with the wonders of their monstrous art—we should feel doubtless the same awe with which the lively Greek was inspired as he walked the now speechless streets of Memphis or of Thebes, and we should take much greater pains to satisfy a more eager curiosity as to the origin and history of a race possessed of so much knowledge, and at the same time misled by so much superstition. Yet beyond the Indian Ocean there exists at this moment a nation as intelligent and ingenious, whose origin, if we could trace it, would probably be found to date from a period preceding the rise of the Egyptian civilization. In the general history of mankind, indeed, there is hardly a fact so unique as this long and solitary existence of the Chinese; for, as they go beyond tradition in their extreme antiquity, so all along the course of history they appear always as a self-developed, peculiar people, owing nothing to foreign influence, though often subjugated by foreign invaders.

But, without seeking the causes of this singular tenacity of life, it is a fact, perhaps not sufficiently considered, that their entire want of what we call religion is the strongest evidence of their great antiquity. For it is only as a civilization grows old that the religion which gave it life dies out. It was not until the Greek genius had touched the limits of its power that it began to question the popular mythology; it was not till the task of conquest had been accomplished by Rome that the stately ceremonial of the Roman temples ceased to have a hold upon the general mind; while the finer thought of the early priests of Egypt was almost wholly lost to the knowledge of men as soon as the Egyptian civilization, instead of being aggressive, relapsed into that unbroken monotony which characterized it for centuries before the Egyptians became Christians from mere disgust at the grossness of their ancient worship.

With the example of China before us, however, it might be a question how long the ancient civilization would have survived if the efforts of the Alexandrian philosophers to revive a purer morality had been successful, if the doctrine of the Stoics had been less severe or that of Epicurus better understood. But just as fast as the ancient faith broke up, its place was taken by another of a higher type and an enduring character. Marcus Aurelius had no time to become the Confucius of the Roman world, for the doctrines of Christianity were sweeping the ancient civilization away from its old basis. In China, however, the case was different. Whether from the vast antiquity of its civilization hiding the earlier growth of the religious sentiment, or from the early tendency of the Chinese mind to purely moral doctrine, there is no period known to us when the religious predominated over the strictly intellectual element in China; although the fact that there must have been such a period cannot be doubted by one who has studied carefully the historical conditions of the development of the human mind. Hence the great length of time which must have elapsed after the Chinese civilization had been fairly established before such a man as Confucius could have been received as a universal guide. For, besides having no religious doctrine, he had very faint conceptions of a future life. He admitted the fact of such a life, indeed, in a general way; but the whole spirit of his teaching is limited to this world—which again shows how old the Chinese must have been when he appeared, for it is only as a civilization has long been stationary in its maturity that the mind comes to occupy itself much more with this life than with the next.

At a time, therefore, like the present, when the spirit of philosophical enquiry is so wide-spread, it is interesting to observe what success a nation so cultivated and so ancient as the Chinese has had in attempting to get on with morality instead of religion; for with no other people, we may add, have the eternal laws of goodness and justice and truth been so completely developed in practical formulas, of which the little treatise of M. Martin furnishes a compendious statement. But this substitution of morality for religion exists, it should be borne in mind, chiefly among the middle and higher classes; the lower classes have taken up for the most part with the worship of Buddhism, which came in about the same time, perhaps, with Confucius, and which must, no doubt, be looked upon as a religion. Preceding Confucius, however, by half a century, at a period when China was in a state of political and moral dissolution which would have made it an easy prey to the Tartars if a powerful reaction had not set in, the doctrine of Lao-tsen was the best preparation through the excess of its spiritualism for the more practical truth which Confucius inculcated. To disengage the soul from the trammels of the body, to annihilate the passions, and finally to attain absorption in the contemplation of the supreme reason, was the object of Lao-tsen. But the gentleness and resignation and love which breathe through his philosophy, though they led on the one hand to a beautiful charity, led also on the other to a supine indifference. At an epoch of decadence when the luxury and cruelty of the rich brought misery and oppression upon the poor, the asceticism of Lao-tsen was a natural remedy. But a philosophy which makes the perfection of man to consist in throwing off his corporeal nature condemns itself in the end to impotence and decay.

He who knows men, said Lao-tsen, is prudent; he who knows himself is enlightened. Confucius knew men—few philosophers have known them better—and from the middle of the sixth century before Christ, when he was born, to this day his glory survives among the nation he taught; his precepts are written in letters of gold all over a great empire, and bear fruit in numberless lives. Unlike the teachers of almost all other religions, the enemy of mysticism, he claimed no supernatural power; he founded no religion and invented no philosophy; he was neither a legislator, nor prophet, nor king. But, recognizing in man a moral and social mission here on the earth, he attempted only to comprehend its importance, and to discover the means for accomplishing it. And that means he found in the moral nature of man, in the sentiments of goodness, and beauty, and justice, and truth, which he reduced to maxims for the regulation of the conduct. He recognized the existence, indeed, of a superior principle of intelligence; but the basis of his theory of duty, his fundamental dogma, did not have reference to another life and a higher being, but to this life and to earthly relations. That basis was filial piety, exaggerated even to fanaticism; for, as others conceived a divine personality, of which they could not explain the nature, and so called it a mystery, Confucius conceived a moral ideal inaccessible to the efforts of man, and called it perfection. Filial piety towards the Emperor and towards parents is thus, to-day, the dominant cult in China; and so strong is the sentiment of its importance that the titles of the mandarins are not transmitted to their sons, but ascend to their ancestors.

Conscience to illumine the soul, intelligence to distinguish good from evil, humanity, which is justice and courage in the heart—they were the faculties upon which Confucius relied. His defect was that, being above all things a man of observation and the world, and finding that men were universally given to care more for themselves than for others, he made selfishness a principle of life, although within necessary limits, for "he whose heart is right," he said, "and who has for others the same regard which he has for himself, does not depart from the moral law nor the duties prescribed to others, and *does not do to others what he would not have others do to him.*" He saw the facts of life, but he did not investigate their causes profoundly. He passed days without food and nights without sleep in meditation, but he learned, he said, really nothing from it; that is, by his own confession, he never lifted himself above this world to behold the spiritual grace which enfolds and illumines it.

Thus, under the influence of this teaching, the character of the Chinese has become substantially positive. They seek the satisfaction of material interests only. Inaccessible to theories, they are content with their ancient discoveries, because these discoveries afford them the means to gratify all their wants. Having lifted themselves very early by their inventions into a position superior to that of other nations, they have ceased to progress, because the necessities of their earthly nature having been once appeased, they have no motive to purify or exalt it by the study of a higher ideal, of which they have no conception. Thus, as M. Martin says, the Chinese civilization resembles the figures on their vases, which are remarkable for the fineness of their lines and their brilliant coloring, but express no sentiment or passion.

And thus it is that the Chinese philosophers have no knowledge of love transcending sex, because their conception of life does not go beyond its materialism; and they seldom speak of the relations of the sexes except with great reserve, for woman was something apart from man, partaking

* "La Morale chez les Chinois, par Louis-Auguste Martin, Auteur des *Civilisations primitives en Orient.*" Paris: Didier et Cie., Libraires-Editeurs.

rather of the character of the animal creation. The birth of a daughter was a misfortune, as it is to-day in China a malediction. Is a son born? says one of the ancient books, he is laid upon a bed and wrapped in rich stuffs, for the master, the chief, the sovereign is born, and to him empire belongs. Is a daughter born? she is laid upon the ground and wrapped in a piece of common cloth, for there is neither good nor evil in her; let her learn how to prepare the food of the family and how to avoid being a charge upon her relations. And even Confucius consecrates by his authority this subjection of woman, this degradation of the wife which strikes at the root of social order.

If the Chinese practised faithfully, indeed, the traditional morality of Confucius, they would be one of the most just and liberal and compassionate of nations; for there is hardly any theory of morals so complete, so characterized throughout by good sense, as theirs. And so the ancients, if they had lived as Socrates and Plato taught, would have been among the wisest and purest nations. But it is just at this point that human nature has thus far broken down. The moral law in China makes a great deal of private and public duties, but there is little social justice; it affirms that the obligations of men are reciprocal, but it does not sanction them; it blames the abuse of power, but cannot prevent it; it declares every one responsible for his own deeds, but makes the son answer for the sins of the father; it preaches humanity, and preserves slavery; it exalts filial piety, and leaves the wife and mother and daughter in a condition of servile degradation.

Thus half selfish, half indifferent, the Chinese are crafty, deceitful, overbearing with the weak, servile with the strong; indisposed to fight, but so eager for revenge that they will drown themselves in their enemy's well in order to bring down upon him the punishment of the law. Whatever, therefore, may be claimed for the purity of the Chinese morality in its higher expression, it must be admitted that the practice of it is a failure, for it has no inspiration; it stops with reason, and can find no explanation for sentiment or devotion. It eliminates the spiritual, and so confesses its inability to deal with the whole problem of life, and therefore to found durable institutions; and, in point of fact, the signs of decay are visible to the close observer throughout the empire.

The philosophy of history, then, if it teaches anything, teaches that faith in a continually ascending life is necessary to the preservation of a civilization; and it is in our modern civilization alone that this condition of permanence seems to be found.

POEMS OF GEORGE ARNOLD.*

It is to the honor of Ticknor & Fields that a volume of poetry with their imprint is sure of notice, and has almost a right to claim careful attention. Set aside the well-earned reputation of that house, and, unless one happens to be an adept in the philosophy which finds sermons in stones and moralizes everything, there is almost no reason for noticing this volume.

The constant succession, constant as the appearing of new false blossoms with each returning year, of those ineffectual poetic natures which, confusedly feeling within them all the stir and perturbation of spring, are yet destined to wither and drop off abortive, incapable of coming to any fruit of poetry, is really pathetic. Vanity, pretension, affectation, humbug of many sorts, with little of good to counterbalance, it is usual to find accompanying the display. But after all it is not necessarily or exclusively ridiculous, often as it is presented to us in that light, although, practically, the application of ridicule is well enough; haply some may thereby be saved from perseverance in a vain attempt, and the rest of us so be spared the sight of weakness exposing itself—a spectacle, be it said for the credit of human nature, one of the most uncomfortable, even painful, that man as a social animal is called on to endure, and which it is no wonder he tries by any fair means to prevent.

In the sense in which we may call poets all men who are not duller than the clod, hopelessly imbruted—and, perhaps, in this meaning there are no total exceptions among all the tribes of men—George Arnold was a poet. The power, and beauty, and harmony, and mystery of nature—of nature in the widest signification of the word, the poetry of the microcosm as well as of the external world, the poetry which is everywhere, in all things, of which life is made, he, like others, could in part discern and could intermittently feel. To express it, to do hardly anything more than vaguely express his feeling of its existence, is beyond him, and although in every piece which he wrote there are indications of poetic sensibility, he has left behind him no single piece worthy the name of poem. He could not. He is no longer living, and he died when only thirty-one years old; but if at that age it was soon to do much, it was very late to be making beginnings, and, judging him by this book, before he could commence poet he would have had to begin over. There is no wealth of fancy in it, no depth of thought, no strength of passion, no peculiar felicities of rhythm or diction, no force of imagination, nothing but that weak, half-morbid, melancholic sentiment of regret which preys upon the baffled poet who, having mistaken aspiration for inspiration and discovered his mistake, is without strength of judgment and power of self-restraint to impose silence on himself and set himself to labor in a new field. Mixed with this feeling is another, allied to it, which occasionally speaks in the verses—remorse, profitless repentance, real perhaps, perhaps feigned and poetical only, for years thrown away, opportunities and energies wasted in riotous or indolent self-indulgence, every labor undone, every duty disregarded, life left without dignity, till, as he says in "Recrimination:"

> "Till the glass of your life is darkened, and darkly through it you see
> Broken and ghastly fragments of duty and destiny."

Then again, seeking refuge from this feeling, he naturally falls often into a cynical indifferentism which scorns fame, wealth, goodness, and badness, smokes a pipe in laziness, and pets a terrier—Jack, of course, being kinder and more faithful in affection than man or any woman, and the smoke of the killikinick as substantial and as satisfying as the world of pleasure and business and human endeavor.

Evidently this is not a rare character which we have been describing, but one which is familiar and ordinary. To give it, with its narrow range and small depth and commonplaceness, such expression as should be noticeable among poetical utterances, would require far more than its own, more than common, force of genius. It will be easy, letting Mr. Arnold speak for himself, to show that this he does not possess:

> "The river down to the ocean flows
> By reedy flats and marshes bare;
> And the leafless poplars stand in rows
> Like ghostly sentinels watching there.
>
> "An osprey sails with wings spread wide,
> Down-slanting from his even flight,
> To a sedgy spot, where the falling tide
> Has left some kind of drift in sight.
>
> "A blackened mass, by the tide left bare,
> In the tangled weeds and the slimy mud.
> The osprey shrieks as he settles there,
> And a deathly horror chills my blood."

This poem is from "Drift," an idyl modelled after Tennyson's "Brook," blank-verse alternating with rhymes. The rhymed portions, like the songs in Tennyson's "Princess," having a not too obvious connection with their context, do not suffer greatly by being separated and offered alone for judgment. These verses seem to us to have very little in them that makes them worth reading or worth writing. They are smooth and easy; the picture-painting is not too bad, unless in that, as in other branches of poetry, we call barely good enough too bad; the dim suggesting of horror is not a new device, but the suggestion is well enough conveyed, except that almost everybody knows, and those who do not know should say nothing about it, that the osprey never leaves its business of catching fish to gorge itself on carrion. It is a pretty word in a verse, however. But these images have been used often, the sentiment is worn threadbare, the whole thing is the utterance of proverbially unendurable mediocrity.

"The Lees of Life" is another average specimen of the author's powers:

> "I have had my will,
> Tasted every pleasure;
> I have drank my fill
> Of the purple measure;
> It has lost its zest,
> Sorrow is my guest,
> O, the lees are bitter—bitter,—
> Give me rest!
>
> "Love once filled the bowl
> Running o'er with blisses,
> Made my very soul
> Drunk with crimson kisses;
> But I drank it dry.
> Love has passed me by,
> O, the lees are bitter—bitter,—
> Let me die!"

Mr. Arnold was for several years a successful writer for the press; he was a clever humorist, as one in each dozen or so of his "McArone Papers" makes evident; as we read the preface containing a biographical notice of the kind called "appreciative"—usually so called because they conceal one-half the character of the subject, and unjustly estimate the other half—we were glad to believe, without abatement, all that Mr. Winter says of the kind heart of his friend, of his generous sympathies, his integrity and honor. But these qualities and powers were far from making him a poet, which Mr. Winter, and we fear not a few others, may suppose him to be. We cannot think his friends or his publishers have done judiciously in making for him a claim which, it is fair to suppose, if he were living he would not make for himself. He knew, with grief perhaps, that his ideal was far above his reach.

* "Drift: a Sea-shore Idyl, and Other Poems. George Arnold." Boston: Ticknor & Fields. Pp. 177.

Articles on any of the subjects usually discussed in this journal will be received from any quarter. If used, they will be liberally paid for; if rejected, they will be returned to the writers on the receipt of the requisite amount of postage stamps.

All Communications which pertain to the literary management of THE NATION *should be addressed to the Editor.*

TO OUR READERS.

THE second volume of THE NATION closes with the present number. In the next volume, commencing with July 5th, we shall return to the weekly issue, as that which experience has shown to be best adapted to the public taste and requirements in a journal of this character.

It is confidently believed that every feature of the paper which has hitherto found favor with the public, will, during the coming year, be marked by still greater excellence.

One attraction of the new volume will be a series of papers from Mr. G. P. Marsh upon the last edition of "Webster's Dictionary"—one or more on each letter of the alphabet, and containing word histories, and other notes and comments, of the highest interest and value not only to those who use the dictionary, but to all students of philology.

We have made it a rule, from which we have only rarely, and then under peculiar circumstances, departed, not to append the names of the writers to articles appearing in THE NATION. We have done so because it is notorious that an article of which the author is known is hardly ever judged on its merits. If he is still obscure, most people will not take the trouble to read what he says; if he is famous, they will devour the veriest twaddle that comes from his pen, and insist on fresh supplies every day. Anonymous writing has its disadvantages, but it is in politics, and too often in literature, the only writing that is fairly considered. Many readers have, however, expressed so strong a desire to know if not who wrote particular articles, who did write for THE NATION at all, that we append a list of most of those who have favored us with contributions in one form or other during the past year:

REV. LYMAN ABBOTT; PROF. WILLIAM F. ALLEN; EDWARD ATKINSON; W. P. ATKINSON.

ROBERT D. BENEDICT; EUGENE BENSON; JOEL BENTON; JAMES T. BIXBY; MISS ANNA BLACKWELL; JOHN BONNER; F. BOOTT; CHARLES LORING BRACE; CHARLES D. BRAGDON; PROF. WILLIAM A. BREWER; CHARLES ASTOR BRISTED; ROBERT A. BURCH; J. H. BUTLER.

EDWARD CARY; MISS PHŒBE CARY; REV. J. W. CHADWICK; MISS SARAH D. CLARK; C. B. CONANT; CHARLES T. CONGDON; REV. J. L. CORNING; CHRISTOPHER PEARCE CRANCH; W. E. CROSBY.

HON. HENRY WINTER DAVIS; JOHN R. DENNETT; EDWARD DICEY; A. DICKERMAN; THEODORE DWIGHT.

PROF. CHARLES W. ELIOT; SAMUEL ELIOT; REV. GEORGE E. ELLIS.

JUDGE TIMOTHY FARRER; GASTON FAY; SIDNEY GEORGE FISHER; JOHN SAFFORD FISKE; CHARLES L. FLINT; J. T. FOARD; J. IRVING FORBES; REV. O. B. FROTHINGHAM.

WM. LLOYD GARRISON; W. P. GARRISON; PROF. D. C. GILMAN; EDWIN L. GODKIN; PROF. GEO. W. GREENE; PROF. E. W. GURNEY.

DR. WM. A. HAMMOND; REV. EDWIN HARWOOD; REV. JOSEPH HAVEN; CHARLES C. HAZEWELL; MICHAEL HEILPRIN; ROBERT J. HINTON; MRS. JULIA WARD HOWE; WILLIAM D. HOWELLS; MRS. H. HUNT.

HENRY JAMES; HENRY JAMES, JR.; OLIVER JOHNSON; R. A. JOHNSON.

FREDERIC KAPP; A. W. KELSEY; MRS. SARAH P. KING.

CHARLES LANMAN; AUGUSTE LAUGEL; HENRY CAREY LEA; REV. JOSHUA LEAVITT; CHARLES GODFREY LELAND; BENJAMIN F. LEWIS; PROF. TAYLER LEWIS; DR. FRANCIS LIEBER; T. R. LOUNSBURY; PROF. JAMES RUSSELL LOWELL.

PROF. D. H. MAHAN; MRS. JESSÉ WHITE MARIO; HON. GEORGE P. MARSH; J. K. MEDBURY; E. W. MORTON.

REV. B. H. NADAL; CHARLES ELIOT NORTON; CALEB C. NORVELL.

FREDERICK LAW OLMSTED.

MISS S. H. PALFREY; FREDERICK B. PERKINS; WILLIAM S. PHILLIPS; PROF. JOHN NORTON POMEROY; GEORGE E. POND; PROF. NOAH PORTER; S. POWERS.

EDMUND QUINCY.

JAMES REDPATH.

FRANK B. SANBORN; DR. FREDERIC SCHUTZ; EUGENE SCHUYLER; ARTHUR G. SEDGWICK; HENRY D. SEDLEY; THOMAS G. SHEARMAN; FRANK SHELDON; PROF. GOLDWIN SMITH; A. R. SPOFFORD; EDMUND C. STEDMAN; C. J. STILLÉ; W. J. STILLMAN; RICHARD HENRY STODDARD; RUSSELL STURGIS, JR.

BAYARD TAYLOR; DR. FOSTER THAYER; REV. JOSEPH P. THOMPSON; THEODORE TILTON; PROF. H. W. TORREY; N. TOURGUENEFF; REV. J. T. TUCKER; H. T. TUCKERMAN; MOSES C. TYLER.

HENRY VAN BRUNT; AUBREY DE VERE; HENRY VILLARD.

C. W. WAITE; REV. J. H. WARD; GEO. CABOT WARD; SAMUEL G. WARD; HERMANN J. WARNER; W. T. WASHBURN; JUDGE F. WAYLAND; CHARLES WELFORD; C. S. WEYMAN; PROF. W. D. WHITNEY; JOHN G. WHITTIER; DR. JOHN WINSLOW; CHAUNCEY WRIGHT.

HINTS FOR FOURTH OF JULY ORATIONS.

DURING the eighty years of our independent national life we have produced but one great publicist, Hamilton, but one decided genius in literature, Hawthorne, but one in art, Allston, and only two great natural philosophers, Franklin and Rumford, and of these two Rumford spent the better part of his life and did all his scientific work in Europe. And as the quality of American contributions to literature and science has been, on the average, low, so has their quantity been small. The annual literary and scientific product of the people of the United States is not the twentieth part of that of any other civilized people. We read voraciously, but the bulk of our reading is of foreign origin. This is as true of our periodical publications in all departments of science and literature as of the books we consume. Reprinted or translated books and articles constitute ninety-nine hundredths of our reading matter. This aspect of our national life is humiliating, and has often suggested to sceptical minds, both at home and abroad, certain curious doubts concerning the effect on literature and science of a state of society in which there are neither depths nor heights, but only one common level.

Acknowledging our inferiority in this regard, and leaving it to the future to demonstrate the real influence of republican institutions upon science and letters, we may find a full well-spring of consolation and hope in recalling the wonderful applications of science and the inventions of fundamental importance which the world owes to Americans of this generation. We do not now refer to the innumerable ingenious devices for economizing time and labor which form a very characteristic product of the Yankee mind; we propose to enumerate only those really great inventions which are of universal application, and which are everywhere recognized as American.

First upon this catalogue shall be named the practical use of anæsthetic agents. In the whole history of medicine and surgery there are but two or three discoveries which can take rank with this. Vaccination is the best parallel. The property possessed by ether and divers other substances of producing insensibility had been known to a few isolated philosophers for some time, though this property was undoubtedly rediscovered in this country. Neither was the idea of applying these agents to the relief of pain a new one. Ether itself had been before recommended for this very use. Americans demonstrated that ether could be safely administered in quantity sufficient to produce complete unconsciousness during many minutes, and that no evil effects whatever followed a prolonged inhalation of the vapor. American audacity and perseverance changed what had been only a scientific suggestion, an ingenious idea, into a practical and most beneficent reality. Who can conceive of the infinite load of misery which this invention has lightened? It is not only that it delivers poor human nature from the actual pain of the knife and saw, from the pangs of child-birth, and the physical agonies of death—it delivers also from the horror of anticipated pain. The discovery will always remain one of the chief glories of this generation.

The vast extent of our Western wheat-fields and the high price of

labor in our sparsely settled territory guaranteed a rich reward for all successful applications of machinery to agriculture. The actual introduction of horse-reapers is an American achievement, and one of the first importance not only to America, but to every other country in which agriculture is carried on upon a large scale. Accordingly, we find that the American reapers have been copied, modified to meet varying conditions, and not seldom spoilt, by the mechanics and agricultural engineers of all the nations of Europe. With the reapers should be mentioned the sowing, raking, hulling, and thrashing machines, which play so important a part in American farming. Agricultural work is the simplest and coarsest of all forms of labor, and yet must be the occupation of the vast majority of the people. The inventions which demand more skill from the farmer, which increase his head-work and diminish his hand-work, which relieve his muscles but exercise his mind, do much to elevate and educate the class which must always constitute the great bulk of the nation. They strengthen the republic.

Another purely American invention of the first importance is the sewing-machine. This very recent invention has already increased tenfold the potential production of every trade which uses a needle, and has emancipated American women from that never-ending toil with the needle which still oppresses all but the richest and the poorest of other lands. It is by no means possible to predict, as yet, the full effect of this wonderful invention, but we may be sure that twenty years hence hand-sewing will be as curious a sight as is now hand-spinning, and that the next generation will no more use hand-made garments than we use wheat-flour ground between two stones after the manner of the Pompeians. We see the Italian women to-day using precisely the same distaff with which the three Sisters spun their fateful thread. The American women of this generation have seen the beginning of a change the like of which has not come upon humanity in thousands of years—a change which is to affect deeply the domestic habits and social customs of the race. This great revolution dates from the invention of the American sewing-machine.

A complicated machine, like a reaper or sewing-machine, embodies generally, with the one idea which is new, a number of ideas which have become the common property of mankind. The needle with the eye in the point was new, but the treadle, the wheels of different diameters, the cam, and the shuttle were but applications of others' thoughts become common property. Not so with the next discovery on this remarkable list. When melted rubber cools it remains so soft and sticky as to be incapable of any useful application. Owing nothing to science, borrowing no hint from the experience of others, an American was found patient enough, and, let it be added, reckless and improvident enough, to spend the better part of a lifetime in mixing one substance after another with hot rubber, until at last, after many years of purely empirical seeking, he found a substance which, when melted with rubber, yielded a plastic and adhesive mixture that on cooling lost its stickiness, but retained its elasticity and toughness. The so-called *vulcanized* india-rubber is a mixture of sulphur and rubber, in proportions which vary according to the use to be made of the product. This useful substance is now known and used the world over, though it is not everywhere recognized as an American invention. Its applications are almost infinitely various; there is hardly an art or trade in which its elasticity, plasticity, toughness, or water-proof quality has not found useful application. The mechanic, the mariner, the physician, the chemist, the house-wife are all deeply indebted to its admirable qualities.

Since the steam-engine no invention has had such power for good and evil as the electric telegraph. America had not much to do with the accumulation of the scientific knowledge which made the telegraph possible. Our acquaintance with the principles of electricity and magnetism was the slow growth of several generations; the history of the development of the scientific principles, and of the invention of the philosophical instruments, which were necessary to the telegraph, makes distinguished mention of but one American name, a name still held in high honor among those of the most eminent living scientists. The idea of the telegraph had been entertained by many minds—little telegraphs had been actually constructed and worked as scientific toys or curious experiments—but it was reserved for American sagacity and enterprise to put in practice upon a large scale the accumulated knowledge on the subject, to realize the importance of the revolution a practical telegraph would work, and to make a mechanical and commercial success of what had before been a scientific curiosity, a philosophical plaything. It is this actual realization of an idea perhaps not new, this demonstration of value and power, which is often the chiefest part of a great invention. The science involved in the telegraph was chiefly European; the idea of the telegraph was not ours, but the practical application of the science and actual realization of the idea were purely American. The steam-engine and the telegraph are political powers—they make the American Union possible. Boston and Philadelphia were as far apart eighty years ago as New York and San Francisco now.

These great agencies, steam and electricity, created a new want, and made necessary a supplementary invention. Why get news hot from the event, why send the newspaper by steam over the face of the country, if it must take a week to print a daily paper? The cylinder-press, which strikes a thousand copies an hour, was a fit gift to the world from the land which introduced the telegraph. American cylinder printing-presses are used throughout the civilized world, wherever large communities consume the daily newspapers by tens of thousands. This invention was not the result of a single brilliant conception, not the embodiment of a sudden inspiration, but rather the result of patiently combining and improving ideas and methods not absolutely new, but new in combination. It is not the less on this account a great contribution to the resources of modern communities.

We close this catalogue with the mention of an invention which has justly reflected great honor upon the American name in Europe, and which is truly touching in contrast with the brilliant successes which we have already enumerated. Most of the apparatus by which the blind are taught is of American invention. The whole system of printing for the blind, the peculiar types, paper, and presses employed, the maps, globes, and slates which are used, both in this country and in Europe, are the product of the patient study and devoted skill of an American inventor. It is not many years since the British and Foreign Bible Society caused their Bible for the blind to be printed at South Boston, Massachusetts. Nothing can exceed the ingenuity exhibited in designing and executing the mechanical contrivances by which touch is made to do the work of sight in conveying knowledge. We have adduced this beautiful series of inventions to illustrate the fact that American inventors have not only worked successfully for the bustling, laborious, active world, not only for fame and money, but also in behalf of the suffering blind, who, lacking a sense, have fared hardly, these thousands of years, in the struggle for life, and only in this generation have been able to enjoy something like the same opportunities of intellectual and spiritual instruction which those who have sight enjoy. It is fitting that the name of the inventor of this apparatus of instruction for the blind should be quite unknown to the public, and that he should have had no reward but that of the consciousness of having made many happy.

The greatest of American inventions must not pass unmentioned—our political institutions, the product of the common sense and practical Christianity of a people who have been free for many generations. Our contributions to political science bid fair to prove of enormous value, but of course until other nations have more fully reaped the benefit of them we shall not receive for them the meed of honor which will one day be awarded us. Most foreign nations still look on our political system with the doubt and suspicion which usually greet untried inventions.

THE MAINE CONVENTION.

The Maine Union State Convention was held at Bangor on Thursday, June 21, and nominated Brevet Major-General Joshua L. Chamberlain, of Brunswick, for governor. For two months or more previous to the meeting of the convention there had been an active and somewhat bitter canvass of the claims of the several nominees for the position, which may not be without its lessons to the country at large. Several gentlemen had been mentioned in connection with the nomination, but the contest was finally narrowed down, by the withdrawal of

their names, until it lay between General Chamberlain and the Hon. Samuel E. Spring, of Portland. The former was popularly designated as "the soldiers' choice," the latter as "the politicians' candidate." The vote in the convention on the first ballot stood 599 for Chamberlain and 438 for Spring, and the nomination was then made unanimous.

The campaign was inaugurated early in April last, when the Bangor *Whig* suggested the name of Mr. Spring, and urged his claims for the nomination. This action on the part of the *Whig* caused some excitement, not wholly unmixed with surprise, General Chamberlain being a native of Brewer, a small town adjoining Bangor, and always claimed by Brewer and Bangor as one of their own guild, although, as a professor in Bowdoin College, he has for some years resided in Brunswick, where that institution is located.

General Chamberlain's name was first publicly associated with the nomination by the Bangor *Times*, although he had already been frequently mentioned in private. The *Times* is one of the very few newspapers in Maine which, previously Republican, have recently sided with President Johnson in his policy as opposed to that of Congress. This fact was calculated to injure General Chamberlain's prospects with the loyal, Union-loving voters of the State, who are almost unanimous in their support of Congress so far as it really endorses and endeavors to carry into effect the principles of "the Radicals." For in the Dirigo State there is no faint-hearted, half-way support of Radical measures, as the canvass as well as the results of the convention abundantly testify. But the doubt in regard to General Chamberlain's position on the great national questions of the day was eagerly seized upon by the advocates of Mr. Spring, and the papers devoted to his interests teemed with articles notable for insinuations and innuendos rather than direct charges. Had they been able to prove the charge against him, Gen. Chamberlain's chances for the nomination would have been quickly lost.

But while these insinuations were being so freely published, there appeared in print a private letter from the general, written to a comrade in arms, Major-Gen. C. H. Smith, which, the *Times* asserted, "spiked that gun before it was loaded." For the *Times* evidently appreciated the fact that no man not fully in accord with the popular sentiment could possibly receive the nomination. This letter, coming from a gentleman who has now been once more prominently brought before the country, is devoted to a statement of his position as regards the questions of restoration and reconstruction, and from it we quote the following:

"In the twelvemonth that has elapsed [since the close of the war] that progress has not been made which we had so fondly hoped in realizing the benefits of our dear-bought victory. We fought for that 'more perfect Union' which the Constitution announced as its object; we fought for the completion of those great ideas which inspired the souls of our fathers; for the extirpation of that fatal Calhoun heresy which would destroy the very existence of our nationality, and in defence of a united and indivisible country. We fought for liberty in its widest and best sense. In the language of an early Congress, 'the rights for which we contended were the rights of human nature.'

"If we fail in attaining these ends, then was the blood of our heroes poured out in vain, and our treasure worse than wasted. If this war has taught any one lesson more imperatively than another, it is that we should be slow to trust those who have been disloyal to the country, and that we should do justice to those who stood by her in the hour of danger and trial. It seems little else than absolute madness to hasten to reinvest with political power the very men who precipitated upon us the horrors of civil war; and little less than cowardly wickedness to turn our backs upon the millions whose humble and despised condition did not prevent them from befriending the country when it was most in need of friends. And yet this very madness and this very wickedness constitute to-day the main features of a policy urged upon the country with the full strength of the party which, pretending to oppose the war during its continuance, did in reality encourage and prolong it by a moral support, and, now that the war is ended in a triumph so contrary to its predictions, seeks to rob that victory of the fruits we had supposed secure.

"I know not how politicians may view this question. I am not in political circles; I have no hand in making platforms; nor am I skilled in party or partisan devices. But I know with unerring instinct how the soldiers who fought the battles feel upon this issue, and how the great popular heart of Maine, always patriotic, always true, will respond. The soldiers and the people, as one, will demand that their mutual efforts and mutual sacrifices shall not have been in vain. They demand that traitors, whether pardoned or unpardoned, shall not be clothed with political power; they demand that no injurious discrimination shall be made against any men who participated in the struggle for the preservation of the country. Political power must be impartially enjoyed by loyal men, and by loyal men alone.

"We must not repine over the past, nor be disheartened at the inevitable; but we shall be most recreant to duty if we fail to provide wisely for the future. Secession must be repudiated, with its debts and claims, its spirit and principles. We must have guarantees, good and sufficient, against any future attempt to destroy this Government, whether in the exercise of a pretended right by open war, or by the more artful and insidious assault against the principles on which this nation was founded. These are points we cannot yield without danger and dishonor; and when the Southern States shall have complied with these conditions in good faith, they will be in a position to ask association and fellowship with the loyal commonwealths of the country which they deserted with such violence and scorn. Until that time, in my judgment, it is wise to hold them in strict probation."

The publication of this letter silenced for a time the insinuations that Gen. Chamberlain was not "sound," and they were not revived until the day before the meeting of the convention, when the Portland *Press*, which had been strenuous and unremitting in its advocacy of the claims of Mr. Spring, renewed them more boldly and plainly. This action on the part of the *Press* naturally reacted against the gentleman whose cause it was intended to further. And when the charges were first made, in April, the same paper had said: "The rumors are probably without the slightest foundation. We have heard but almost forgotten them." When it was almost too late to disprove them the *Press* renewed them, sneered at Gen. Chamberlain's achievements in the field, and declared in effect that he had never been in sympathy with the party—had never voted for its candidates. The charges were cruelly unjust and untrue, and the members of the convention were convinced of the fact through the exertions mainly of the delegation from Brunswick.

Another element in the canvass has been the claim of the returned soldiers, *as* soldiers, on the gratitude and generosity of the people whom they defended. General Chamberlain's record, as a voter merely, having been proved to be satisfactory, he was nominated for governor simply because he had served with honor in the Union army. He has had absolutely no experience in politics or political affairs. He graduated at Bowdoin College, studied for the ministry at the Bangor Theological Seminary, and then became a member of the faculty of Bowdoin College. He remained there until August, 1862, when he was commissioned as lieutenant-colonel of the 20th Maine regiment. His subsequent military career was a highly honorable one, in which his native State justly takes pride. He was promoted by General Grant to the position of brigadier-general on the field—the solitary instance in the history of our army. At the close of the war Major-General Griffin especially recommended him for the full rank of major-general. This recommendation was approved by Generals Meade and Grant, and forwarded to Washington, where assurances were given that the promotion should be made. He has been six times wounded—twice severely. On the 18th of June, 1864, while leading an assault on foot at Petersburg, he was shot through the body from hip to hip, the ball passing through, severing arteries and fracturing bones. By all the rules of the surgeons, and in accordance with all their predictions, he ought to have died. At the time, he himself regarded the wound as mortal. He balanced himself on his sabre till his men passed him on the charge, when loss of blood caused him to fall to the ground. He has said that, regarding the wound as fatal, he thought it not worth while that he should be taken from the field until the day was really lost and he could only fall into the enemy's hands by remaining. It was for his action on this day that General Grant promoted him to the position of a brigadier-general.

In May last there was held at Bangor the first convention of the soldiers and sailors of Maine, their object being primarily to organize a Maine State Soldiers' and Sailors' Union. This union is designed to perpetuate their personal acquaintance and friendship; to aid and encourage all wise plans of the Government or of private benevolence for the support of families of deceased soldiers, and the procurement of employment for needy members, and to stimulate genuine patriotism and unflinching loyalty in the entire community. It was well understood, however, that the soldiers had their own preferences respecting a candidate for governor and for other State offices. The speeches at the convention contained frequent allusions to this fact; and it was strongly intimated that the politicians were disposed to violate their

promises, and to regard with jealous eyes those who had survived the struggle. For obvious reasons General Chamberlain did not attend the convention, and, in truth, he has kept aloof from any participation in the conduct of the campaign. But it was well understood (although the resolutions adopted carefully avoided any direct allusion to the subject) that he was the choice of those composing the convention, and that, should he not be nominated by the State Convention, his name would in all probability be submitted to the people by the executive committee of the Soldiers' and Sailors' Union. This, undoubtedly, had its influence in the convention.

General Chamberlain is a man of undoubted integrity and honor; an earnest and faithful student, and well versed in the political and general history of our own country as well as other nations. His experience in the field has certainly given him much insight into human nature; and the administrative and executive qualities brought into play there are those on which a demand will be made in his new position as governor of the State. The convention which nominated him strongly recommended him to the people, to whom he needed no endorsement; for his nomination was made by the people and not by the politicians. Party leaders and wire-pullers have signally failed in their efforts to control the nomination. A faithful history of their efforts, their means, and their failure, would present a curious picture in American politics.

JEALOUSY.

I LOVE my love so well, I would
There were no eyes but mine that could
See my sweet piece of womanhood,
And marvel of delight.

I dread that even the sun should rise,
That bold, bright rover of the skies,
Who dares to touch her closèd eyes,
And put her dreams to flight.

No maid could be more kind to me,
No truer maiden lives than she,
But yet I die of jealousy,
A thousand deaths in one.

I cannot bear to see her stop,
With her soft hand a flower to crop;
I envy even the clover-top
Her dear foot treads upon.

How cruel in my sight to bless
Even her bird with the caress
Of fingers that I dare not press,
Those lady fingers, white;

That nestle oft in that dear place
Between her pillow and her face,
And, never asking leave or grace,
Caress her cheek at night.

'T is torture more than I can bear
To see the wanton summer air
Lift the bright tresses of her hair,
And careless let them fall.

The wind that through the roses slips,
And every sparkling dew-drop sips,
Without rebuke may kiss her lips,
The sweetest rose of all.

I envy, on her neck of snow,
The white pearls hanging in a row,
The opals on her heart that glow,
Hushed with a tender red.

I would not, in her chamber fair,
The curious stars should see her, where
I, even in thought, may scarcely dare
For reverence to tread.

O maiden, hear and answer me
In kindness or in cruelty;
Bid me to live, or let me die,
I cry, and cry again!

Give me to touch one golden tress,
Give me thy white hand to caress,
Give me thy red, red lips to press,
And ease my jealous pain.

PHŒBE CARY.

Correspondence.

THE DUTY OF TRUTH-TELLING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

I read with interest the article of your contributor "L." in No. 59 of THE NATION, under the caption, "Does any one Tell the Truth." Whilst there are many statements therein to which all thoughtful men will agree, all of "L.'s" deductions will not so readily obtain general assent. Of these let me quote the following, substantially in his own words, as the basis of my remarks:

1. Perfect truthfulness in the present moral condition of our race is not attainable.

2. Deception is generally prevalent, and is necessary for the smooth working of our social machinery, and, therefore, in so far a good.

3. No man is morally bound to tell the truth always, but is morally justified in using deception as far as is recognized as necessary by the men of his age.

To the first of these propositions only I can give unqualified assent, and the reason that it is true is obvious. A man does not always speak the truth, simply because he is an imperfect being. Grant him a perfect moral organization, a conscience unerringly pointing out the right from the wrong, and a will always impelling him to do the former, and it would be impossible for him to lie. And just as his moral nature approaches or recedes from this perfection, just so will be the decrease or increase of his disposition to lie or to do any other evil thing.

We practise deception oftener than other sins because there are more opportunities for its commission, it goes oftenest unpunished, and its use is suggested more frequently by our self-interest, pride, vanity, etc., etc. It is generally our first step in the path of conscious wrong doing, and almost always duplicates itself and accompanies all the other sins. As soon as we do evil, we seek to deceive others as to our agency in the wrong act. So Cain no doubt only succeeded in killing Abel by first deceiving him as to his intention when approaching him, and, after committing the murder, sought to deceive God.

Whilst admitting the general prevalence of deception, I think there are many cases of daily occurrence of apparent deception in which there is really no intention to deceive.

If, for instance, I call upon that fascinating heiress, Miss Araminta Coupon, and Bridget, after due inquiry, brings back the answer "Not at home," when I am quite sure I just saw her form pass the parlor window as I turned the corner, is the idea that she is not actually in the house intended to be conveyed to me? Not at all. She may be entertaining her country cousin, Jemima, who will always make such untimely visits, and not wish to exhibit her gawkiness before my critical eyes; or she may be enjoying a delicious *tête-à-tête* with young Petroleum Jones, whom she accepted last week, and not care to be interrupted. "Not at home" is a general social phrase, including not only cases of actual absence from the house, but those wherein it is not convenient for the person visited to receive the visitor. Usage has substituted for its literal meaning an artificial one. We all understand it, and no one is deceived thereby.

Again, when next I meet with young Jones, after I hear of his engagement with Miss Coupon, do I practise deception because I grasp his hand warmly and congratulate him on his success? True, my pride, vanity, and disappointed hopes suggest to me that his sudden demise would not affect me disagreeably, and might still afford me an opportunity of gaining the hand of the heiress. But common sense and the natural kindly feeling I have for my fellow-man equally suggest that Jones has done me no wrong, and that I have no right to wish him otherwise than well. In cases where we are under the influence of contending emotions, we do not practise de-

ception by repressing our ignoble ones. For if we are true men, we do not wish nor intend to be guided by these, but only by those better ones which we express and which we strengthen by expression. As for the man who, whilst having good grounds for holding profound contempt for another, hypocritically treats him with respect and receives him as a friend, I hold him worthy of all condemnation. How your correspondent "L." can see that it is right for him to do so and wrong not to do so, surpasses my comprehension.

Granting for the moment that some deception is necessary for the smooth working of our social organization, no one but will admit that we use much more than seems needful for this purpose. We indulge in it unthinkingly, partly as the result of education and habit, partly because its use is congenial to our imperfect nature. We are so accustomed to commit those trivial errors (trivial they seem to us because they have apparently no immediate injurious influence) that we deceive daily when there is no necessity for it. Take, for instance, the point cited by "L.:" the right of an anonymous author to keep his own secret; is it really necessary for him to use the least deception to gain his object? Suppose Dr. Whewell were asked if he wrote the "Plurality of Worlds." Could he not say to his questioner, "Sir, the author of this work wishes to keep his name a secret from the public. I respect his right to do so, and cannot consent to aid you in your desire to thwart his purpose. As I cannot answer your question truthfully, either yes or no, without helping you to discover his secret, I decline to answer at all." Surely some such reply as this, courteous, polite, based upon sufficient motives, and yet not giving rise to the smallest deception, could be given in all such cases.

Everybody will admit, I think, that lying is a sin, when not necessary; but there arises the question, Who shall decide when it is necessary, and therefore (according to "L.'s" theory) morally lawful? "L." says, the men of the age. I doubt much if any considerable number of us would accept the variable opinions of their imperfect fellow-men as their sole criterion of right and wrong. We instinctively look higher, to some more absolute and perfect guide. As long as we consider lying a sin, no object, no matter how good, will sanctify its use to our hearts and consciences. Else we revert to the old Jesuitical dogma, that it is right to do evil that good may come. But, replies "L.," in such cases (where it is necessary to produce a beneficial result) deception is not a sin. Is it so? Does the sinfulness of an act depend upon its result, or upon the fact that the divine will has recognized it as a sin? The simple consideration that we, having only finite minds, can never know the full result of any act of ours, should be sufficient to point out the fallacy of this doctrine.

If it be a good thing (as "L." seems to admit) that our race is steadily approximating towards the ideal of absolute right, surely we will advance just as far and as rapidly if we set up this ideal as our goal, as if we select anything short of it; and we are likely to commit fewer errors if we aim to arrive as nearly as possible to perfection than if we aim at less. Conscientious and thoughtful men are not tortured because their rules of duty demand more of them than they are able to perform. They know full well that no man can do his whole duty, that every one must fall short of it a great deal. It is theirs to endeavor, by aiming at the highest standard, to reduce this deficiency to a minimum, and not, by aiming at a lower to which they can attain, to rest satisfied with this.

No, Mr. Editor; let our modern philosophers not cease still to hold that absolute truthfulness, absolute right, should be the basis of our moral code; our consciences ask this and will be satisfied with no less. Let us each endeavor, day by day, in all the details, no matter how trifling, of our lives, to fulfil all its requirements. It demands of us perfect charity and love towards others, the strict performance of our duty by ourselves. None of us, I know, will attain this perfection; but we shall approach nearest to it by making it our goal, and be ennobled by the effort. B.

New York, June 26, 1866.

[There are cases, such as that of Grotius's wife cited by Whewell, in which the choice lies not between simple truth and simple falsehood, but between two kinds of falsehood. Had she said that Hugo Grotius was in the box instead of saying that it was filled with books, she would have been true to truth but false to her husband; and, when we consider the comparative effect on society or on the individual character of these two kinds of falsehood, it is not so easy to concede that the claims of pure truth on our allegiance are always paramount. The world will always decide cases of this kind with reference to consequences, or, in other words, by the utilitarian standard.—Ed. Nation.]

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FINANCIAL REVIEW.

NATION OFFICE, Thursday, June 28, 1866.

THE export of gold has ceased. The favorite packet *Scotia* sailed yesterday with only about $50,000 in bars. Gold is maintained between 153 and 156 by the operations of speculators in the gold-room, who have locked up a large proportion of the floating gold, and hope to put up the price by creating a scarcity for delivery. The adventure is a perilous one. At 3 P.M. to-day the premium stood at 151¾. Exchange is weaker again—bankers' sixty-day bills 108 to 108¼. There are those who believe that we "overshipped" specie this and last month, and that a further fall in exchange to the rates which were current in March last is not improbable. By the *Java*, which arrived here yesterday with dates to 17th, we learn that war had actually begun in Germany; our securities, however, showed no further weakness, and in some of the Continental markets a fresh demand for 5-20s had been developed. A few parcels are being exported from this country on the expectation of a revival in the German markets. Cotton is again rather better on the other side, and breadstuffs are reported firmer, with an advancing tendency.

Money continues very easy, and the policy of the department is calculated to perpetuate the present condition of affairs. Yesterday the department notified holders of debt certificates that it was ready to pay them off, and that interest on all of them would cease on the 15th of July. This, of course, will increase the volume of idle currency at the financial centres. Unless measures are taken by the Government to absorb some of this unemployed capital, speculation can hardly fail to break out during the summer, though it may not take the old direction of railway shares.

The stock market continues extremely dull, the only activity being in Governments, which are firm, with an upward tendency, and Erie, which declines slowly. At a meeting of directors held on Tuesday the dividend question was incidentally reviewed. It was demonstrated that the company had not only not earned the dividend on either the common or the preferred stock, but had actually failed to earn the interest on the bonds. It was suggested that—passing over the dividend on the common stock, which no person expects—the preferred stockholders might possibly claim priority over the companies whose roads are leased to the Erie, and that if the leases were paid, while the preferred stockholders were not, legal complications might arise. No vote was taken on the subject; it will not be finally decided till 15th proximo. Much concern is felt at the renewed embarrassments and probable financial failure of this great enterprise. The price of the stock is, for the time being, steadied by the excessive sales of the bear operators of the Street. In other stocks there is no movement worth mentioning. Canton was sold down on Tuesday to 52¾. Central, Fort Wayne, Reading, and Pittsburgh are pretty steady. Old Southern is rather lower. There has been a sharp recovery in mining stocks. Consolidated Gregory, which sold down to $10 a couple of weeks ago, has since been done at $24.

The following table will show the course of the stock, gold, exchange, and money markets since our last issue:

	June 21.	June 25.	June 28.	Advance.	Decline.
United States Sixes of 1881	106	106	110¾	4¾	....
5-20 Bonds, old	103⅛	103⅛	103⅛	....	....
5-20 Bonds of 1865	102⅞	102¾	....	....	....
10-40 Bonds	96⅜	96⅜	96⅞	⅜	....
7.30 Notes, second series	102¾	102⅝	103¾	1⅛	....
New York Central	99	98⅝	98¾	....	⅜
Erie Railway	58	58⅛	60⅞	2⅜	....
Hudson River	112	111	112	1	....
Reading Railroad	109	108½	109⅜	⅞	....
Michigan Southern	79¼	78¾	78½	....	¼
Cleveland and Pittsburgh	85	82½	83¼	¾	....
Chicago and North-western	30	29⅜	30½	1⅛	....
Chicago & North-western, Preferred	59	58¾	59¼	½	....
Chicago and Rock Island	95¼	93	94½	1½	....
P., Fort Wayne, and Chicago	98	98	98¼	¼	....
Canton	59	55	53⅝	....	1⅜
Cumberland	45⅛	44¾	45	¼	....
Mariposa	11⅜	11¼	11	....	¼
American Gold	150⅜	153⅛	151⅞	....	1⅛
Bankers' Bills on London	108¼	108¼	108¼	....	....
Call Loans	5	5	5	....	....

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